Chapter – I

Work-Life Balance

Introduction

Chapter – I has two parts:

• Part A deals with meaning of work-life balance, definitions, components of work-life balance and issues.
• Part B deals with various approaches to work-life balance.

Part A:

Meaning

Work-life balance is the term used to describe those practices at workplace that acknowledge and aim to support the needs of employees in achieving a balance between the demands of their family (life) and work lives. The Work Foundation, earlier known as “The Industrial Society”, believes that ‘work-life balance is about people having a measure of control over when, where and how they work. It is achieved when an individual’s right to a fulfilled life inside and outside paid work is accepted and respected as the norm, to the mutual benefit of the individual, business and society.

Work-life balance is not merely work-family balance. More specifically, it refers to the management of one’s professional responsibilities and family responsibilities, towards children, aging parents, any disabled family member, or a partner/spouse effectively. One can have work-family balance, but may not have anything left for oneself, for one’s community, for one’s own personal growth and development, rest and relaxation. So, it is possible to have work family balance and still need to achieve work-life balance.

The concept of work-family (life) balance has emerged from the acknowledgement that an individual’s work-life and personal/family life which may exert conflicting demands on each other. Conflict is a normal part of life and is a natural result of the conflicting demands arising from multiple roles, such as that of a mother, daughter, daughter-in-law, wife, friend, and employee. In order to manage the negative spillover of conflict, it is important to balance the demands from both the domains. Work-life balance is about
adjusting work patterns to achieve overall fulfillment. A good work-life balance enables business to thrive and at the same time facilitates the employees to easily combine work with other aspiration and responsibilities. Work-life balance should not be understood as scheduling equal number of hours for each of one’s work and personal activities. A positive work-life balance involves achievement and enjoyment. A good working definition of work-life balance may be meaningful if daily achievement and enjoyment in each of the four quadrants of life-work, family, friends, and self are attained.

The best work-life balance varies for an individual during the life span. At different stages of career and age, different factors demand importance at once. There is no one work-life that fits all because all of us have different priorities and different styles of life. However, it is not just the balance that an individual desires, but the fulfillment in the roles enacted in life.


1. **Domains**: ‘work’ and ‘home/family’ can be called as two different domains - worlds that people have associated with different rules, thought patterns and behaviour.
2. **Borders**: Borders are the lines of demarcation between domains, defining the point at which domain-relevant behaviour begins or ends.
3. **Work** is defined as membership in a market or employing organization that compensates the worker for his/her contributions. The primary goal of work is to provide extrinsic rewards to the employee. These include bonuses, paid holidays, profit-sharing, etc. However, work may also provide intrinsic rewards, such as increased responsibility and freedom on the job, opportunities for growth, more challenging work, etc.
4. **Family**: social networks involving caring commitments that will be met regardless of monetary recompense or Family, like work, is a social organization
that demands certain contributions from its members. These contributions are required for the maintenance and well-being of the family.

5. **Balance**: is achieved when an individual’s right to a fulfilled inside and outside paid work is accepted and respected as the norm, to the mutual benefit of the individual, business and society.

6. **Work/family conflict**: the push and pull between work and family responsibilities.

7. **Work/home conflict**: is a subset of role conflict and is a generalized state of tension that results from incompatible expectations and challenges associated with work and home.

8. **Work-Family balance**: to give equal weight to the work and non-work aspects of one’s life.

9. **Work/life balance** from the employee view point: the dilemma of managing work obligations and personal/family responsibilities.

10. **Work/life balance** from the employer view point: the challenge of creating a supportive organisational culture where employees can focus on their jobs while at work.

11. **Family-friendly benefits**: benefits that offer employees the latitude to address their personal and family commitments, while at the same time not compromising their work responsibilities.

12. **Work/life programmes**: programmes (often financial or time-related) established by an employer that offer employees options to address work and personal responsibilities.
13. **Work/life initiatives**: policies and procedures established by an organization with the goal to enable employees to get their jobs done and at the same time provide flexibility to handle personal/family concerns.

14. **Work/family culture**: the extent to which an organization’s culture acknowledges and respects the family responsibilities and obligations of its employees and encourages management and employees to work together to meet their personal and work needs.

15. **Work-family Bundles**: consists of a group of complementary highly related and, in some cases, overlapping human resource policies that may help employees manage non-work roles.

16. **Work-family conflict** is a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the two domains, that is, work and family, are mutually non-compatible so that meeting demands in one domain makes it difficult to meet demands in the other.

17. **Work-life integration**: involves integration between two or more roles/domains. When two or more roles, for example, that of an employee and mother, are both flexible and permeable, then they are said to be integrated leading to work-family life integration.

18. **Work – Non-work integration**: to redesign work so that it enables employees to meet workplace demands while fulfilling non-work demands.

19. **Compensation**: compensation represents the efforts to offset dissatisfaction in one domain by seeking satisfaction in another domain. The term compensation also referred to as complimentary, competitive, or contrasting. Compensation occurs when an employee decreases involvement in the dissatisfying domain and increases involvement in a potentially satisfying domain.
20. **Segmentation**: Segmentation refers to the separation of work and family, such that the two domains do not affect one another. Segmentation was earlier viewed as a natural division of work and family since the two domains were separated in time and space and were thought to inherently serve different functions.

21. **Resource drain**: This involves the transfer of finite personal resources, such as time, attention, and energy, from one domain to another.

22. **Congruence**: The term ‘congruence’ refers to the similarity between work and family, owing to a third variable that acts as a common cause. These common causes may include personality traits, general behavioural styles, and socio-cultural forces. Congruence is different from spill over. Spillover attributes these similarities to the effect of one domain on another. On the other hand, congruence attributes this similarity to a third variable that affects both domains. For instance, general intelligence and aptitude of an individual may contribute to skills that may be of use to an individual of work as well as with the family. In this case, general intelligence and aptitude become the third variable.

23. **Affirmative action**: A variety of policies, programmes, and procedures put in place to monitor and correct discrimination based on dimensions such as race, sex, and age.

24. **Careerism**: the propensity to pursue career advancement through non-performance-based means.

25. **Mentoring**: Relationships at work that involve activities such as sponsorship, coaching, counseling, and role modeling

26. **Sex-role spillover**: when gender roles within society spillover into the workplace and compete with or replace work-related roles and expectations.
**Definition of work**

Work may be defined as various activities carried out by human beings for varying purposes. Activity is an important aspect of life and it is essential for growth and health. It is through activities that human beings adjust to environment. Sometimes activity is engaged in for its own sake; sometimes it is reflexive and often it is purposive with an end, object or purpose in view. Purposive activities are termed as work.

The concept of work has gained momentum in the last few years with increasing research work in industry and education. Work may be defined as various activities carried out by human beings for various purposes. To describe work in terms of science of man, the elements of responsiveness, purpose, adjustment, habit, interest, motive, drive, intelligence, aptitude, self-direction and adaptive behaviour along with minor complexities must be introduced. Hence, work is activity directed toward the accomplishment of a set or purpose. Human work is activity with an end in view (Cleeton, 1949).

The economic purposes of work is the means by which we provide the goods and services needed and desired by ourselves and our society. The type of work has always conferred a social status on the worker and the worker’s family. The economic and societal importance of work had a dominated thought about its meaning and is justifiable. So, a function of work for any society is to produce and distribute goods and services, to transform ‘law nature’ into that which serves our needs and desires. Far less attention has been paid to the personal meaning of work, yet it is clear from the recent research work that work plays a crucial and perhaps unparalleled psychological role in the formation of self-esteem, identity and a sense of order (Organ, 1978).

Some functions served by work have been summarized by Sofer (1970) as follows:

- Notably work is instrumental for survival.
- Work roles provide opportunities for interaction with others.
- Work-roles provide scope for personal achievement, meeting and surpassing objectives recognized by others as valuable or praise worthy.
• Work provides for assuring oneself of one’s capacity to deal effectively with one’s environment and developing that capacity.

• Work provides the individual with opportunities to relate him to society, to contribute to society through providing needed goods and services.

It is then obvious that work provides a means for the satisfaction of various needs. Purposive work is carried out in organizational settings. An organization comes into existence to accomplish its objectives. The objectives determine the structure and structure determines the positions and the hierarchy in the organizations. The positions clarify the Roles to be executed by the personnel in the organization.

**Work-Life Balance definitions**

Work-life balance is defined as “the management of one’s professional responsibilities and family responsibilities towards children, ageing parents, and disabled family member, or a partner/spouse effectively. One can have work-family balance, but may or may not have anything left for oneself, for one’s community, for one’s own personal growth and development, rest and relaxation”.(Buddhapriya,2009)

Work-life balance refers to the integration of person’s personal and work-life, but is particularly complex when an employee has family obligations. Some argue for a separation between these two components in one’s life, others assert that the integration of one’s work and personal life can be a source of synergy or stress. The three core factors, societal issues, organisational issues, and personal issues provide an interplay that profoundly affects the success with which one can live an integrated life.

According to Hudson (2005), work/life balance, in its broadest sense, is defined as a “satisfactory level of involvement or ‘fit’ between the multiple roles in a person’s life”.

Voydanoff (2004) drew on person-environment fit theory and suggested that work-family balance is “a global assessment that work resources meet family demands, and family resources meet work demands such that participation is effective in both domains”.

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Greenhaus, Collins and Shaw (2002), drawing on role balance theory (Marks & MacDermid, 1996) and previous nominal definitions (Clark, 2000; Kirchmeyer, 1993), defined work-family balance as “the extent to which individuals are equally engaged in and equally satisfied with work and family roles”.

The phrase “Work-Family Balance” is relatively new to the research and corporate-policy lexicons and reflects issues raised by changes in workforce demographics, family patterns, women’s employment, attitudes toward work and family, and changes in the traditional employee-employer contract. (Barnett, 1999)

Work-life balance is a self-defined, self determined state of well being that a person can reach or can set as a goal that allows him/her to manage effectively multiple responsibilities at work, at home, and in their community. It supports physical, emotional family and community health, and does so without grief, stress or negative impact. It is about “living a fulfilled life inside and outside paid work, and having control over a person’s time so one can achieve that” (HR Magazine, 2001)

Work/family conflict is defined as “a form of friction in which role pressures from work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respects” (Greenhaus & Beutell 1985). Work/family conflict is bidirectional, meaning that work roles can interfere with roles and responsibilities in the family domain, and family related roles can interfere with the work domain.

According to Bhagoliwal (1981), conflict is an expression of disagreement, the subject of which may be as wide as human experience and its intensity may be wild or all-consuming. Those involved in disagreement may be few or innumerable.
Fundamental components related to Work-life balance

Work-life issues

Work-life issues or concerns refer to those aspects of an employee’s work or family life that may have an influence on one another. Initial interest in work-family issues was the result of two developments that occurred during the 1970s. These developments included an increase in the number of women entering the workforce and the growth of dual-career families where both the spouses are working. This trend resulted in organizations being urged to acknowledge employees’ family and other personal commitments. Work-family issues, however, were regarded as a women’s issue and was primarily a social rather than a business concern.

Work-life issues/concerns encompass all non-work related demands and hence are not restricted to only family demands. Equations both at the workplace and at home have changed in the networked era. While in the machine age, work and life were seen as two independent domains, in the networked age there is a complete overlap between the two domains. These shifts are summarized in the following Table 1. Women face conflicts between work and family demands as well as demands from family have increased over the years. This has made it difficult for organizations to ignore the significance of employees’ non-work demands on their performance, commitment, and job satisfaction.
Table 1

Showing Different Phases of Work-Life Balances issues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>The machine age</th>
<th>The industrial age</th>
<th>The networked age</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work-life issues</strong></td>
<td>Work and family were two independent domains</td>
<td>Work started spilling into family time and was often carried home</td>
<td>Workdays span 24 hours with brief time intervals for non-work activities</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Home issues</strong></td>
<td>Traditional roles with men working and women taking care of household chores</td>
<td>Dual career couples with both men and women working but women still tending the household chores</td>
<td>Dual career couples with both men and women working as well as attending to home issues</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Support</strong></td>
<td>none</td>
<td>Availability of help like baby sitters, crèches, old-age homes, and maids</td>
<td>Hands-free executives support firms that provide services as diverse as managing the laundry and the kind’s homework.</td>
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**Characteristics of Work and Life issues:**

During the 1970’s and 1980s, the scholar Urie Bronfenbrenner described the ecological perspective on human development in a series of books and articles.

One ideology of this perspective is an emphasis on contextual factors, such as:

- “Dual-earner family” possess relatively little about the nature of family members’ lives.
• Looking beyond work status (that is, whether or not the mother is employed) and started considering specific characteristic of work (that is, what parents do on the job).

• When the job is stressful for the employee and while socializing by the nature of their work (and how that socialization affects their family life).

• When employees perceive their job as highly demanding, their relationships with family members seem to suffer.

• Employees in high-stress jobs tend to spend less time with their spouse and are more negative during spousal interactions. Stressful occupations also make their mark on the parent-child relationship.

• Employees in high-stress jobs tend to engage in more conflict with (and express more anger toward) their children, spend less time with them in joint activities, and know less about their children’s activities and experiences when compared with employees in less stressful jobs.

• Work that seems to be important is the extent to which parenting goals, values, and behaviours are influenced by parents’ work characteristics; that is, how the work environment socializes the parents.

• High autonomy enjoying employees were likely to value independence of their children and use reasoning instead of physical discipline, whereas fathers with low levels of occupational autonomy valued obedience from their children and were more likely to use physical punishment.

• Contemporary research has demonstrated that mother’s parenting is similarly influenced by their work experiences, and has also provided evidence of work as a managing agent for their children.
• Work role characteristics affect the level of control individuals are able to exert when faced with conflicting role pressures and thereby the extent of work-family conflict experienced.

• Autonomy increases perceived control over work role demands and enables individuals to structure their job in a manner that reduces the occurrences of work-family conflict.

• Schedule flexibility provides individuals latitude in dealing with the competing demands of work and family, and may be expected to decrease work-family conflicts.

• Family involvement which refers to the importance of the family to an individual and the extent of psychological investment in the family.

• As in the case of job involvement, family involvement is likely to generate internal pressures to invest increased effort and energy in the family domain to fulfil family role demands.

• Time commitment to home may be viewed as an objective indicator of the extensiveness of family role demands as reflected in the total investment of time in housework and childcare activities. The greater the investment of time in the family domain, the less the time available for the work domain. However, these negative effects may be mitigated for self-employed persons who have greater autonomy and schedule flexibility.

**Home Issues: Family roles and patterns, contemporary trends**

Family patterns and Roles have been greatly affected during the past century by contemporary trends that include changes in urbanization and economic modernization. The fundamental change in the family over the past half century is the decreased economic dependence of women on men. Women’s almost universal participation in paid labour has also dramatically changed family roles. The most common family pattern
today is not the breadwinner-homemaker nuclear family, but the dual-earner family in which both spouses are responsible for providing for the family as well as a variant, the dual-career family, in which both women and men maintain commitments to ongoing careers along with family responsibility.

**Influence on Family patterns and roles**

Changing family patterns and roles appear to be part of a broader process of global modernization linked to economic and demographic changes that are increasingly separating family from the economic sphere and changing ideas about appropriate family roles, especially women’s roles. A model of modern family living arrangements assumes that peoples’ choices represent the outcome of weighing preferences and constraints, costs and opportunities.

Women increasingly have emphasized the place of jobs and careers in their lives. Childbearing patterns have also changed. Higher incomes and higher educational levels are associated with lower rates of childbearing. The contemporary trend of delaying childbirth and spacing births further apart also decreases the average number for children born per mother.

**Dual-Earner Families**

Family labour was divided into two roles in middle-class: market labour by the husband as provider, and household labour by the wife as homemaker. In dual-earner families, the distinction between the provider and homemaker roles has become less clear as more than half of all married women are employed outside the home and bring in pay-cheques that are definitely necessary to the economic survival and well-being of their families. Employed wives are not necessarily regarded as family breadwinners. In most dual-earner couples a husband’s status as provider is modified in varied, complex, and dynamic way by his wife’s employment, but is not eliminated.

The differentiation of roles in families where the wife assumes a dual-earner role is not simply a function of the work status of both the spouses. Instead the spouses’
expectations of the roles and behaviours associated with each gender and how these are constructed and continuously negotiated are very important in understanding the division of labour and family role differentiation in contemporary societies. Another consideration is the influence of societal, ethnic, and cultural traditions and variations, which may influence and prescribe not only individual behaviours, but family roles as well. In the dual-career family, both the women and men have a strong ongoing commitment to the lifetime development of careers. The success of the dual-career family often depends on the willingness of both spouses to actively help and support each other in work and family roles. In dual-career families with children, family life is hectic and often interprets the new culture for the parents. Racial and ethnic prejudices can seriously compound the family’s problems and adjustments.

However, women at the highest levels of business are still rare. Workforce has grown by around 12 percent this decade, but is only expected to grow 4 percent between 2010 and 2020 (Benko and Weisberg, 2007). Women lead in only 2 per cent of Fortune 500 companies and in only five of those companies listed on the Financial Times Stock Exchange 100 stock index (The Economist, 2010). The March 2009 report, Women CEOs of the Fortune 1000, published by Catalyst (the U.S. firm working to expand opportunities for women and business), identifies the women CEOs of the Fortune 500 and 1000 companies. Of the Fortune 500 companies, 15 CEOs are women, including one Indian woman. Of the Fortune 501-1000, there are nine women CEOs. Statistics also suggest that as women approach the top of the corporate ladder, many jump off, frustrated or disillusioned with the working world. Organizations must figure out how to stop the female brain drain. Women’s careers tend to focus on their individual choices which are likely to prioritize on the basis of urgency. Career decisions are in large part a reaction to outdated work structures, policies, and cultures that do not fit their lives. In weighing the costs and benefits of a traditional career, many women, especially mothers are choosing the kind of career that enables them to be successful on their own terms, to find their balance (Heslin, 2005). Deep, widespread changes to the traditional workplace are needed so that women have more options and don’t feel forced to choose between career and family.
The percentage of women in management in India is approximately 3% to 6% with approximately 2% of Indian women managing Indian corporations. However, almost 9.6% of women workers are in the organized sectors, and most statistics focus on labour in the organized sectors, leaving out the many workers in unorganized (informal), unstructured sectors of the economy. According to the office of the Registrar General in India, the 2001 India census shows that the work participation rate of female workers in rural areas is 31% and 11.6% in urban areas. Employment member for women, further detailed in women workers in India in the 21st century – unemployment and underemployment, indicate that of India’s 397 million workers, 123.9 million are women, 106 million women are in the rural areas and 18 million in the urban areas. However, only 7% of India’s labour force is in the organized sector (including workers on regular salaries in registered companies), with the remaining workers (93%) in the unorganized or informal sectors.

Contemporary organisational functioning: Employment relationship in post globalization era

Contemporary changes in the economic and social environments within which firms operate have brought about fundamental changes in the nature of the employment relationship in the twenty-first century. Increasing globalization and competitive markets led employers to resort to headcount management to gain flexibility, remain competitive, and ensure survival. Corporate downsizing across all industries and hierarchical levels led to a breakdown of the traditional employer-employee relationship that was characterized by mutual loyalty and lifelong employment. The new relationship has shifted away from the long-term relationship involving loyalty to an economic contract between the employer and employee.

Today, the employer offers the employee a challenging job, individual reward for performance, and opportunities to learn valuable skills, but less job security. The employee pays back the employer through job performance but does not promise a strong commitment to the organisation. Employee behaviour basically depends on different
career and life stages, employees from different countries, cultures, and backgrounds, core employees and peripheral employees, will have different priorities and values.

There is a reciprocal relationship between a firm’s business environment and its social environment that affects the nature of the employment relationship. For example, with more women in the workforce in BPO jobs, the issue of security of women employees has also assumed importance. This has resulted in a move toward developing safety norms in call centres for women who have to work in shifts (especially night shifts).

In Post globalisation era the new employment relationship is the employer’s responsibility to provide training, education, and skill development opportunities and the employees’ responsibility is to take advantage of those opportunities to develop and utilize their skills. The contemporary relationship is also characterised by a desire for flexibility by both employer and employee. Organizations faced with increasing competition and rapid technological changes seek greater flexibility, which may be reflected in the number of contractual or part-time employees. Employees desire flexibility to be able to address work and non-work needs and interest.

The new employment relationship has made employee commitment more important and central, because employers want to be assured that empowered employees use their autonomy and discretion to further the interest of the organisation. Today, organisations need new and different approaches to develop and maintain employee commitment.

Tsui and Wu (2005) reported that organizational performance is best when organizations adapt a ‘mutual investment’ employment relationship. The goal of a mutual investment approach is to obtain higher commitment from employees. The approach induces to obtain higher commitment from employees. The approach induces employees to make significant contributions. The employees are expected to contribute to their organization overall instead of focusing only on performing their own jobs. The firm on its part focuses on developing a long-term relationship with its employees, through practices such as extensive training, profit-sharing, and promotion from within. This relationship recognizes and meets the needs of both employer and employee. It also acknowledges
that employee satisfaction goes beyond payment of wages and includes social as well as economic needs. Hence, mutuality leads to a psychological contract or commitment.

Trends impacting work-life issues

It is important to understand the range of business and environmental trends as well as socio-economic and demographic forces that have led to the strategic importance of work-life issues. In an environment characterized by corporate downsizing, mergers and acquisitions, globalization, multinational alliances, and global staffing, human resources have the potential to create value for the firm that cannot be imitated by competitors. This recognition on the part of organizations has led to an increasing competition for attracting and retaining quality employees. Organisations are confronted with global competition for quality human resources. Terms such as ‘lifelong employment’ and ‘loyalty’ no longer seem to be relevant. With increased global competition, organizations are also faced with the need to improve productivity, efficiency, performance, quality, and profit margins. Organizations are responding to these pressures by reducing the workforce, which results in lower loyalty. At the same time, organizations are faced with an unprecedented need for committed employees in order to stay ahead of competitors.

Employees too are likely to change jobs more often to advance their careers. Aspirations of employees and their expectations of employers have increased. Employer concern for personal needs, both on and off the job, is likely to be increasingly important to the growing number of employees. When employees are helped to balance their work lives with the rest of their lives, they feel a stronger sense of commitment to the organization. This sense of commitment causes improvement in their performance on the job. Improved employee performance on-the-job leads to a winning organization.

In such environment, organizations have recognized that employees are their biggest assets and they must be cultivated and kept happy for the company to deliver and grow. Management is confronted with challenges such as attracting, motivating, and retaining high performers and therefore, is experimenting with alternative ways of doing
so. By offering work-life programmes as one of the alternative options, organizations are looking to become a great place to work in’.

Lobel, Googins, and Blankert (1999) have identified some of the trends that have encouraged organizations to offer a wide array of family supportive services to meet the needs of individuals with diverse work and personal lifestyles. Some of them are:

**Globalization:** many firms headquartered in one country have a large proportion of their workforce located all over the world. Organizations are witnessing greater cross-cultural management and interaction. Multinational alliances between companies present a complex set of challenges that derive from merging organizational cultures and practices, which may vary widely around the work-life domain.

**Increasing Organisational Flexibility:** Many organizations are developing new organizational structures such as teams and cross-organizational alliances as well as new job designs. Innovative job designs include flexible work arrangements, such as telecommuting, job sharing, time off for dependent care, or sabbaticals. New corporate structures and job designs need to be linked to work-life issues since it is important to define what kind of workplace supports diverse individual lifestyles as well as business goals.

**Changing family structures:** There have been rapid changes in the nature and meaning of family. Fundamental changes have taken place in the structure of work and family roles, such as increasing prevalence of dual career couples, more women in the workforce, and altered family arrangements. The number of single parents has gone up along with the percentages of workforce with dependent care responsibilities.

**Market Forces:** Business cycles tend to strongly influence growth, unemployment, and price stability. When businesses are affected, so are its workers. Recessions tend to limit employment options, increase the cost of living, and increase work hours while economic expansion has the opposite effect. A second macroeconomic factor is the growing global competitive pressure on industry. Government agencies are serving as testing grounds for
new employment and workplace practices, such as the 9-hour workday with one day off every two weeks, on-site day care facilities, and job share programs.

**Reliance on Market-Based Support Systems:** Support systems for individuals and families take four forms: personal, employer, government, and market-based. It is important to see first how the increased dependence on market-based services over the other form of support is reshaping communities and society as a whole. Personal support systems traditionally consisted of family members and friends, for many demographic groups, largely disappearing, with families relying on a patchwork of costly professional services to manage home or domestic life. This phenomenon is in part due to the greater mobility of the workforce, which results in families moving away from their extended families and established communities for a better job. The increased presence of women and, more recently, retired-aged people, in the workforce also diminishes the role and availability of these traditional support systems. Government support systems are largely aimed at families either living below the poverty line or unemployed for extended periods of time. Employer-provided support systems, in the form of services and benefits, can be fairly extensive, but are also scaled out and back as the labour force contracts and expands, respectively, and thus are not a consistent source of support.

**Technological Change:** Rapid technological advances have created a need for employees with higher levels of education and training as well as new sets of skills. The demand for skilled workers far outweighs the supply, and organizations have to compete with each other to attract skilled employees. Organizations that offer generous work-life benefits and attractive working conditions are likely to have an edge in recruiting and retaining desirable employees.

**Changing Emphasis**

There has been a change over time in the way work-life issues have been viewed by organizations. Organizations’ perception of work-life issues has determined the nature of HRM practices focusing on helping employees manage their work-life issues. Human resources professionals started addressing work-family issues as late as in the 1980s.
From viewing work-family HR practices as a benefit provided to employees, organizations now implement family-friendly practices primarily to recruit and retain skilled employees. It is not enough for organizations to implement family-friendly practices such as flextime and extended parental leave, to reduce employees’ work-life conflicts. It is more important to have a supportive culture that encourages employee utilization of work-life benefits. The extent to which individual managers are sensitive to and accommodating of employees’ family needs. It is the managers’ responsibility to ensure that employees complete their leave entitlements of optional holidays for the years.

**Work-life spillover**

The term work-life spillover refers to the influence of work on family and vice versa. Spillover could be in both directions - work to family as well as – family to work and outcome could be either negative or positive. Spillover may take place for moods, values, skills, and behavior. Positive spillover takes place when the energy, happiness, and satisfaction at work spills over into positive feelings and energy at home. An employee who is praised by his/her superior at work feels so good that he/she takes the family out for dinner is experiencing positive spillover. Similarly, the happiness of an employee whose child has won admission in higher studies of repute may spill over to work in the form of higher performance and positive interactions with colleagues. Negative spillover from work to family is demonstrated when the problems or conflicts at work where individual is bypassed for promotion may result in irritable behavior at home, or when family problems are weighing down the individual it may be difficult to display full participation at work. Other terms that capture the essence of spillover are extension, generalizations, familiarity and similarity.

Undeniably, many people who reach executive levels in organizations do so at the expense of personal lives. They spend long hours of difficult and tension filled jobs and retreat to their homes not for comfort and sustenance but for a place to hide or to vent feelings left over from a bad day at the office. The major determinant of work’s impact on private life is whether negative emotional feelings aroused at work spill over into
family and leisure time. When an executive experiences worry, tension, fear, doubt, or stress intensely, he is not able to shake these feelings when he goes home, and they render him psychologically unavailable for a rich private life. The manager who is unhappy in his work has a limited chance of being happy at home—no matter how little he travels, how much time he spends at home, or how frequently he takes a vacation.

When individuals feel competent and satisfied in their work—not simple contented, but challenged in the right measure by what they are doing—negative spillover does not exist. During these periods executives are open to involvement in private life; they experience positive spillover. When work goes well, it can have the same effect as healthy physical exercise—instead of leading to fatigue, it is invigorating.

The dilemmas and conflicts women face in trying to manage the relationship between their professional and private lives may be even more difficult than those faced by men. While in many cultures it is acceptable for men to specialize in their professional roles and delegate the main responsibility for private life to their wives. Women are under more pressure to manage skillfully the boundaries between professional and private life. They are probably more aware of what causes the conflicts than many men.

Psychological coping mechanisms identified by Seligman, Csikszentmihalyi (2000) emerged from reactions of human functioning and behaving. Seligman and few others (Sheldon, King, 2001) promoted the factors that allow individuals, groups, organizations, and communities to thrive.

The three levels of positive psychology (Seligman, Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) were as follows:

- Valued subjective experiences: well-being, contentment, and satisfaction (in the past); hope and optimism (for the future); and flow and happiness (in the present).

- Positive individual traits: The capacity for love and vocation, courage, interpersonal skill, aesthetic sensibility, perseverance, forgiveness, originality, future mindedness, spirituality, high talent, and wisdom.
• Civic virtues and the institutions that move individuals toward better citizenship: Responsibility, nurturance, altruism, civility, moderation, tolerance, and work ethic.

These are “positive” goals which have obvious implications not only for therapy, education, family life, and society at large, but, importantly, also for organizational life and behavior.

Optimism has surfaced as a major component of the positive psychology movement.

**Optimism in the workplace**

Optimism has the desirable characteristics of perseverance, achievement, and health; makes external, unstable, and specific attributions of personal bad events; and is linked with positive outcomes such as occupational success. For example, optimists may be motivated to work harder; be more satisfied and have high morale; have high levels of aspiration and set stretch goals.

The causal attributions or explanatory style pessimists and optimists tend to habitually use in interpreting personal bad events.

• Pessimists make internal (their own fault), stable (will last a long time), and global (will undermine everything they do) attributions.

• Optimists make external (not their fault), unstable (temporary setback), and specific (problem only in this situation) attributions.

It has been found that the internality of attribution is shown to be significantly linked with desirable characteristics such as happiness, perseverance, achievement, and health. Optimism is often used in relation to other positive constructs such as emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence expert Goleman (1995) identified considerable attention to the role of optimism in his discussions of emotional intelligence and even at one point refers to optimism as an emotionally intelligent attitude.
Emotional Intelligence

Meaning of Emotional Intelligence

The most distant roots of emotional intelligence can be traced to Darwin’s (1965) early work on the importance of emotional expression for survival and second adaptation. Goleman defined emotional intelligence as “the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EI Dimensions:</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-awareness</td>
<td>Self-understanding; knowledge of true feelings at the moment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-management</td>
<td>Handle one’s emotions to facilitate rather than hinder the task at hand; shake off negative emotions and get back on constructive track for problem solution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-motivation</td>
<td>Stay the course toward desired goal; overcome negative emotional impulses and delay gratification to attain the desired outcome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>Understand and be sensitive to the feelings of others; being able to sense what others feel and want</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social skills</td>
<td>The ability to read social situations; smooth in interacting with others and forming networks; able to guide others’ emotions and the way they act</td>
</tr>
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</table>


Self Efficacy

Bandura (1998) emphasized self-efficacy as the most pervading and important psychological mechanism of self influence. He defines self-efficacy as “how well one can execute courses of action required dealing with prospective situations”. Luthans (2005)
defined self-efficacy as “which refers to an individual’s conviction (or confidence) about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognition resources, and courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context.”

The self efficacy process starts before individuals select their choices and initiate their effort. From the preceding it can be seen that self-efficacy can directly affect:

- Choice behaviors (e.g., decision will be made based on how efficacious the person feels towards the options in, say, work assignments or even a career field)
- Motivational effort (e.g., people will try harder and give more effort on tasks where they have high self-efficacy than those where the efficacy judgment is low)
- Perseverance: (e.g., those with high self-efficacy will bounce back, be resilient when meeting problems or even failure, whereas those with low self-efficacy tend to give up when obstacles appear)
- Facilitative thought patterns: (e.g., efficacy judgments influence self-talks)
- Vulnerability to stress (e.g., those with low self-efficacy tend to experience stress and burnout because they expect failure, whereas those with high self-efficacy enter into potential stressful situations with confidence and assurance and thus are able to resist stressful reactions)

**Work-Life Stress**

In recent years, the interconnections between work—life stress, have an impact on work and family roles. Stress is usually thought of in a negative term.

Ivancevich and Mattison (1980) define stress simply as “the interaction of individual with environment” but then they go onto give a more detailed working definition, as follows: “an adaptive response, mediated by individual differences and/or psychological processes, that is a consequence of any external (work place) action, situation, or even that places excessive psychological and/or physical demands upon a person.
Beebe and Newman (1978) define working life stress as “a condition arising from the interaction of people and their jobs and characterized by change within people that force them to deviate from their normal functioning”. Taking these two definitions and simplifying them for the purpose, “work-life stress” is defined as an adaptive response to both workplace and family situation that results in physical, psychological and/or behavioral deviations for organizational participation.

**Causes of stress**

**Extra-organizational Work-life Stressors**

It is generally recognized that a person’s family has a big impact on an individuals’ performance. Illness of a family member, can act as a significant stressor for employees. There is even research indicating that in dual-career families, a stressed-out husband may transmit this stress to his wife. Relocating the family because of transfer or a promotion can also lead to stress. This situation reduces time for recreation and family related activities. Also, for professional women, the particular sources of stress have been identified as discrimination in work place, stereotyping, the marriage/ work interface, and social isolation. In a recent survey a significant number of working women reported feeling personal or family stress which in turn leads to job stress. In particular, dual family and work roles frequently result in job stress. One researcher identified those conditions of housing, convenience of services and shopping, neighborliness, and degree of noise and air pollution as likely stressors.

**Organizational stressors**

In organizations frequent causes of stress are task demands, role demands, interpersonal demands, organization structure, organizational leadership and organization’s life cycle.

**Group Stressors:** Group can be a potential source of stress. Group stressors can be categorized into three areas:
1. **Lack of group cohesiveness**: If an employee is denied the opportunity for the group cohesiveness because of the task design, because the supervisor does things to prohibit or limit it, or because the other members of the group shut the person out, this can be very stress-arousing.

2. **Lack of social support**: employees are greatly affected by the support of one or more members of a cohesive group. By sharing their problems and joys with other, they are comfortable.

3. **Intra-individual, interpersonal and inter-group conflict**: intra-individual conflict refers to conflict within an individual arises from frustration, numerous roles which demands equal attention etc.

   Interpersonal conflict arises because of differences in perception, temperaments, personalities, values systems, socio-cultural factors, and role ambiguities.

   The achievement orientation, impatience and perfectionism of individuals with Type A personalities may create stress in work conditions. Type A personalities, in this sense, bring stress on themselves.

   Type B personality, on the other hand, is less stress prone. Following are the typical characteristics of type B personality.

   Life change can also be stress producing. Life changes may be slow (like getting older) or sudden (like the death of a spouse). These changes have dramatic effect on people. Sudden changes are highly stressful.

   **Intra-role conflict**: Role ambiguity results from inadequate information or knowledge to do a job. This ambiguity may be due to inadequate training, poor communication, or the deliberate withholding or distortion of information by a coworker or supervisor. In any event, the result of role conflict and ambiguity is stress for the individual.

   **Organization structure**: defines the level of differentiation, the degree of rules and regulations, and where decisions are made. Excessive rules and lack of participation in
decision that affect an employee are examples of structural variables that might be potential stressors.

**Organizational leadership:** some leaders put unrealistic pressures to perform in the short run, impose excessively tight controls, and routinely fire employees who fail to measure up.

**The effects of stress**

Stress is not automatically bad for individual employees or their organizational performance. In fact, it is generally recognized that low levels of stress can enhance job performance.

The most serious consequence of stress relates to performance. It is said that moderate levels of stress stimulate the body and increase its ability to react, individuals then perform better. But too much stress places unattainable demands or constraints on a person, which results in lower performance.

**Role Concept**

Role is the position one occupies in a social system and is defined by the functions one performs in response to the expectations of the significant members of a social system, and one’s own expectations from that position. ‘Role’ and ‘office’ (or position), though two sides of the same coin, are nevertheless two separate concepts. According to Katz and Kahn (1966), ‘Office is essentially a relational concept, defining each position in terms of its relationships to others and to the system as a whole.’ While ‘office’ is a relational and power related concept, ‘role; is an ‘obligation’ concept. An office is concerned with the hierarchical position and privileges while a role is concerned with the obligations of the position. Office is a point in social structure defining the office-holder’s power; a role is the integrated set of behaviors expected from a person occupying that office.
The Role and the Individual

When a person becomes a member of a social system, he or she ‘receives’ certain expectations from other members and responds to these, at the same time projecting his or her own expectations onto the role. One may react very positively and with great satisfaction to others’ expectations and fulfils them to the best of one’s abilities. Such a ‘reactive’ (responsive) approach will help the individual take on the role effectively. In contrast, another individual may use the expectations he or she has from the role—what Kahn and Quinn et. al., (1964) calls reflexive role expectations to develop a role - behaviour. This is a ‘proactive’ approach to role performance.

Katz and Kahn (1966) have proposed the concept of a ‘role episode’ to explain the process of role taking. Role taking involves both role sending (by the ‘significant’ others) and role receiving (by the role occupant). The role occupant and the role senders constantly interact and the processes of role sending and role receiving together influence the role behaviour of the individual. The role senders have expectations on the basis of their perception of the role occupant’s behaviour. The role occupant, in turn, acts on the basis of his or her perception of the role. However, a person’s role behaviour also influences the expectations of the role senders. Thus a role episode has a feedback loop.

The other aspect of role taking is concerned with the identification of the self with the role. If the role expectations are congruent with the self-concept, there is role acceptance. However, if the expectations conflict with the self-concept, it may result in self-role distance. Even when there is no evident self-role distance, the degree of role acceptance can be defined in terms of the intensity with which an individual is able to get into the role—the intensity may vary from casual to a morbid identification with the role.

Role Systems

An organization is considered as a role system in which the individual is part of a role system comprising a role space and a role set. A role is a useful concept in understanding the integration of an individual within a social system and in planning organizational effectiveness.
Role space

The concept of the role is central to the organization, so the concept of the self is central to the several roles of a person. The term ‘self’ refers to the interpretations made by a person about the term ‘I’. Self can be defined as the experience of an identity, arising from a person’s interactions with external reality-things, persons, and systems. Role space is a dynamic interrelationship between the self and the various roles an individual occupies and also amongst these roles.

Role set

The individual’s role in the organization is defined by the expectations of other significant roles and those of the individual himself or herself. Role sets are sub-systems or interrelationships between a particular role and the other roles in an organizational system. Role linkage is an important concept in role satisfaction and role conflict.

A role is a very useful concept in understanding the dynamics of integration of an individual with a social system. It also helps in understanding the problems which arise in this individual-organization interaction and integration. The concept of roles goes beyond the individual employee and indicates a need to involve other significant persons in defining role requirements. A focus on roles can be useful in planning organizational effectiveness (Pareek, 1997 and Luthans, 2005).

The Concept of Role Efficacy

The performance of a person working in an organization depends on his own potential effectiveness, technical competence, managerial experience, etc, as well as on the design of the role that he performs in an organisation. It is the integration of the two (the person and the role) that ensures a person’s effectiveness. Unless a person has the requisite knowledge, technical competence and skills required for the role, he cannot be effective. Equally important is how the role, which he occupies in the organisation, is designed. If the role does not allow the person to use his competence, and if he constantly feels frustrated in the role, his effectiveness is likely to be low.
The integration of a person and a role comes about when the latter is able to fulfil the needs of the individual, and when the individual in turn is able to contribute to the evolution of the role. The more we move from role taking to role making, the greater is the likelihood of the role being effective. The effectiveness of a role occupant in an organization, therefore, depends on the individual’s own potential effectiveness, the potential effectiveness of the role, and the organization climate. This potential effectiveness can be termed efficacy. Personal efficacy would mean the potential effectiveness of a person in both personal and interpersonal situation. Role efficacy means the potential effectiveness of an individual occupying a particular role in an organisation. Role efficacy can be seen as the psychological factor underlying role effectiveness.

Role efficacy has several aspects. The more these aspects are present in a role, the higher the efficacy of that role is likely to be. These aspects can be classified into three groups or dimensions.

**Role Making:**

1. **Self-role integration** every person has strengths, experience, technical training, special skills, and some unique contribution to make. When his role provides him with greater opportunity for using such special strengths, his role efficacy is likely to be higher. This is called self-role integration. The self, or the person, and the role get integrated through the possibility of a person’s use of his special strengths in the role.

2. **Pro-activity:** A person who occupies a role responds to the various expectations that people in the organisation have from that role. While this certainly gives him satisfaction, it also satisfies others in the organisation.

3. **Creativity** It is not only initiative that is important for efficacy. An opportunity to be creative and try new and unconventional ways of solving
problems is equally important. The opportunity it gives people to be creative and try out innovative ideas increases their role efficacy.

4. **Confrontation** In general, if people in an organisation avoid problems or shift those on to others, their role efficacy will be low. The tendency to confront problems and find relevant solutions contributes towards efficacy.

**Work-Family Conflict**

The demands and pressures of work and family may give rise to work-family conflict in an individual. An employee may be faced with work-family conflict, when he/she has to attend the parent-teacher meeting in the child’s school or when he/she has a doctor’s appointment for an ageing parent. At the same time the demands and pressures of work make it difficult for the employee to stretch time for such activities.

Dubrin (1978), has identified four types of role conflicts, in general, as follows:

1. Intra-sender conflict which occurs when one person is asked to accomplish objectives that are in apparent conflict.

2. Intra-sender conflict which occurs when two or more senders give incompatible directions.

3. Inter-role conflict, which results when two different roles those are played, is in conflict.

4. Person – role conflict, which occurs when the roles expected by the organization, are in conflict with the basic values of the individual.
Types of work-family conflict

Three major types of work/family conflicts have been identified in work family literature.

Time-based conflicts

These arise when time spent on role performance in one domain precludes time spent in the other domain because of depletion of energy or stress.

Strain-based conflicts

These arise when strain in one role affects an employee’s performance in another role. This type of conflict does not connote conflicting demands. Rather, it occurs when the demands from one domain cause tension, anxiety, fatigue, or dissatisfaction for the employee thereby reducing his/her personal resources of energy and physical or mental capacity.

Behavior-based conflicts

These occur when there is incompatibility between the behavior patterns that are desirable in the two domains and employee is unable to adjust behavior when moving from one domain to another.

Conflict between work and family (life) is viewed in terms of the interference of the demands from family role on the performance of an individual’s work role. Most firms developed HR practices that would provide the employee with time off for fulfilling family demands. Work demands are also equally likely to interfere with an individual’s capacity to fulfill family (life) demands.

Work-family culture

Work-life (family) culture may be defined as shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees’ work and family lives. A family-supportive organizational culture refers to
the global perceptions that employees have regarding the extent to which the organization is family-supportive.

Thompson et al. (1999) suggested that there are three components of a supportive work—family cultures, which are as follows:

- Organizational Time demands: the extent to which there are expectations for long hours of work and for prioritizing work over family.
- Perceived career consequences: refers to the degree to which employees perceive positive or negative career consequences of using work-family benefits.
- Managerial support: the extent to which individual managers are sensitive to and accommodating of employees’ family needs.

**HRD Perspectives**

The primary purpose of organization is business. Hence, there may be a fundamental conflict between the efficiency and productivity oriented values of an organization on one hand and the work-life need of employees, on the other. Since organizations have to jointly manage these competing values, employees may often receive mixed-messages related to work-life balance. Kossek and Block (2000) proposed two perspectives of HRD that may be adopted by organizations for managing these competing values.

**Long-term or the Human Relations Model**

This view sees investment in employees’ work–life needs as a means for promoting productivity through caring about workers. This perspective assumes that when employees are provided with support in dealing with personal needs, organizational productivity will be maximized in the long run due to higher employee morale and commitment.
Short-term view or Rational Goal Model

Debate surrounding the importance of facilitating work-life balance has gained intensity and emphasis has largely been on what organizations can do to provide support to employees in managing the balance between work-life. More recently, however, work-life balance is seen as involving employer-employee partnership, rather than the sole responsibility of the organization.

Both the organizational and individual approaches to work-life are as follows:

Organizational Approaches: This approach must fit with the organizational mission, culture, values, company’s way of doing business, and the needs of the workforce. Kossek and Block (2000) described three organizational approaches. They are:

(i) Social Arbiter Approach

Firms that reflect this philosophy emphasize a separation between work and family. According to this approach, the employer should get involved only if the employees request help or if the organization feels that non-work issues are getting in the way of performance.

(ii) Whole Persons and Systems Approach

According to this approach, work-life balance should be an organizational goal. The organizations should vie employees as internal customers and demonstrate more sensitivity to their needs. This perspective reflects the human relations approach to management and promotes ‘whole systems’ and ‘whole persons’ approach to employment. By implementing holistic work-life programmes, organizations will have employees who will be more loyal and committed.

(iii) Omniscient organization

In this approach, the organization attempts to make workplace a home to employees. Hence, there is virtually no separation between work and personal life. Recognizing that people spend most of their waking hours in office, with workplace
developments such as telecommuting and flexible workplace options, there is a blurring of boundaries between the work and personal domains.

While many practitioners, advocates, pundits, and policy-makers were busy exploring different work-family frontiers, academicians also began to forge new paths leading to increasingly sophisticated understandings of the work-family phenomena. By the mid-1990s, Scholars’ interest in work-family issues had developed into a loosely coupled area of study. Today, a large number of academics see work-family issues as an important focal point for their teaching, research, and writing. Many who have attempted to chronicle the contemporary history of the work-family filed point to the publication of Kanter’s (1977), monograph, work and family in the United States: A Critical Review and Agenda for Research Policy, as an important maker of the beginning of concerted academic study of work-family issues in the United States. Psychologists focused on different aspects of work-family issues. The efforts to move work-family research agendas by sociologists who focused on “family sociology” regularly consulted the work of those who focused on “sociology of work. Scholars also trained in different disciplines to focus on different aspects of work-family issues, to examine current work and family experiences. Historians who conduct work-family research typically examine archival information to gain new insights about the patterns, trends, and interpretations of work-family experiences by different groups of people living in designated areas during specific, past time periods. Their perspectives not only introduce us to some of the work-family experiences of previous generations, but their findings can also facilitate a better understanding of today’s situations. Anthropologists focus on past as well as current cultures, and often conduct in-person observations of unfolding practices and rituals in which individuals and families engage (at home or at work). Industrial organizational psychologists and other organizational studies researchers often consider how the “employee” as a “person” responds to the workplace “environment.” The person-in-environment framework is often adapted to examine the formal and informal aspects of the workplace and the impact on employees’ work-family experiences. In the 1980s and 1990s, companies began to offer work/life programs.
Civil Rights Act

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 of United States represents the beginning of a series of executive orders, laws, and judicial decisions that have affected working environments in the direction of more equal opportunities for women.

Personal support systems traditionally consisted of family members and friends are, for many demographic groups, largely disappearing, with families relying on a patchwork of costly professional services to manage home or domestic life. This phenomenon is in part due to the greater mobility of the workforce, which results in families moving away from their extended families and established communities for a better job. The increased presence of women and more recently, retired-aged people, in the workforce also diminishes the role and availability of these traditional support systems.

Government support systems are largely aimed at families either living below the poverty line or unemployed for extended periods of time. Employer-provided support systems, in the form of services and benefits, can be fairly extensive, but are also scaled out and back as the labour force contracts and expands respectively and thus are not a consistent source of support.
Part – B

Approaches to work-life balance

Work-life balance has been an enduring preoccupation of researchers across disciplines for four decades. Interest in work and family matters has risen on account of changes in the way in which work has been carried out, industrialization and the entry of increasing numbers of women into the world of paid work. Approaches to work and family theories have increasingly been studied based on changing demographics and their impact on work-life balance and well being of individuals.

The present chapter focuses mainly on review of theories on work-life balance in management, psychology, sociology and social psychology as a parsimonious way of getting around the problem. Following are some of the theories identified revolving around the issue of work-life balance.

Work/family Border theory (Clark, 2000)

Work/family border theory explains how individuals manage and negotiate work and family spheres and the borders between them in order to attain balance. Central to this theory was the idea that ‘work’ and ‘family’ constitute different domains or spheres which influence each other.

Central concepts of border theory characteristics have:

a) Work and home domains : work’ and ‘home’ can be called two different domains-worlds that people have associated with different rules, thought patterns and behaviour.

b) Borders between work and home: Borders are lines of demarcation between domains, defining the point at which domain-relevant behavior begins or ends. Permeability Borders are characterized by flexibility, blending and strengthening in borders.

c) Border-crosser: Border-crossers can be described on the degree to which they are peripheral or central participants in either domain (Lave & Wegner, 1991). Lave &Wegner (1991) define a central participants as having: i) internalized the domain’s
culture, including learning the language and internalizing the domain’s values; ii) demonstrated competence in one’s responsibilities; iii) connected with others who have central membership; and iv) identified personally with domain responsibilities.

d) Border-keepers and other important domain members: Some domain members who are especially influential in defining the domain and border will be referred to as border-keepers at common border-keepers at work and supervisors; common border-keepers at home are spouses.

Border theory suggests that organizations can alter domain and borders to increase work/family balance. Communication and central participation are tools that can also be used by individuals to attain better work/family balance. Border-crossers can increase domain members’ other domain-awareness by regularly talking about that they do at other times, for example, sharing some of the challenges and successes at work with family members, and telling co-workers and supervisors about family events and happenings. Support is more likely to come from borders-keepers who understand and are informed about other-domain happenings.

Individuals can also increase their central participation at both work and home in order to attain better balance. This means developing relationships with others, becoming experts in their responsibilities at work and at home, and making work and home more integral parts of their identity.

Decision theory in work-life balance (Greenhaus and Powell 2006)

Theoretical models of individual’s decision-making make two general assumptions (Ilgen et al., 1989). First, people base their decision on one or more cues or pieces of information: a conflict situation exists when a work activity and a family activity are scheduled to occur at the same time, making it difficult or impossible for an individual to participate in both activities; that is, the situation represents an incident of work-family conflict.
Second, people combine these cues in some manner to reach their decisions: Internal cues pertain to the priorities of the individual facing the conflict situation. Individuals’ general priorities as captured by work and family role salient may also influence their decisions during incidents of work-family conflict. Further, the importance of the specific work and family activities may influence individuals; decisions during conflict incidents.

Role sender cues pertain to the priorities of members of the individual’s work and family role sets who are potentially affected by the conflict situation. Role activity cues pertain to characteristics of the particular work and family activities in the conflict situation such as whether each activity can be held at a different time or without the individual present. Decision theory process depicted by internal, role sender and role activity cues may influence each decision that individual make during this process.

Structural and Emotional Interference theoretical approaches (Near, Rice and Hunt, 1980)

Structural interference theories identified structural relationship between job and non-job demands. Structural interference hypotheses link a dependent variable, quality of family life, to objective work and family conditions, such as (i) number of hours worked (Burke, Weir, & Duwors, 1980; Pleck, Staines, & Lang, 1980); (ii) frequency and amount of overtime and flexibility of work or shift schedules; and (iii) spouse’s work schedule and number and age of children present in the family (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1982; Burke & Bradshaw, 1981. Burke., 1988).

In contrast, emotional interference theories emphasize the effects on employees’ emotional reactions to a job on quality of family life. Emotions interference theories focus on the relationship between employees’ affective responses to their jobs and home lives. Hypotheses relate quality of family life to tension, fatigue, and psychosomatic symptoms (Burke et al., 1980, Jackson & Maslach, 1982). The argument is that negative job-induced emotions can disrupt family life because they are carried home and allowed to color employees’ interactions with family members.
Utilitarian Approach: The process of Role Investment (Lobel, 1991)

Utilitarian approach to role investment (Farrell and Rusbult 1981) found both a significant positive relationship between perceived rewards of work and job commitment as well as a significant negative relationship between perceived costs of work and job commitment. In addition, Amatea and her colleagues (1986) reported positive correlations between occupational and parental role rewards and their respective measures of role commitment.

Work-family balance or the stress-free management of work and family roles occurs, according to the utilitarian approach, only when people’s role investments are unequal and correspond to unequal net role rewards. Relative equality of work and family role rewards and role investment will be laden with ambivalence and, hence, will be stressful. Work-family imbalance would also be experienced if an individual were forced by circumstances, such as birth of a child, to invest more (and thus more equally) in the family role. The competition between roles is inevitable, and one role will gain acceptance at the expense of the other. Hence the links between the utilitarian approach and role conflict models of effects of work on family life and vice versa are apparent (e.g., Goode, 1960; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979; Kahn et al. 1964). Also the utilitarian approach is consistent with Maddi’s (1989) conflict model of personality. The conflict model depicts life as a perpetual struggle between antagonistic forces (e.g., love versus work, individualization versus gregariousness).

Social Identity Approach: The process of Role Investment (Tajfel and Turner, 1985)

According to social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1985), individuals classify themselves as members of social groups. Individuals have multiple identities (e.g., manager, mother) that derive from their interactions with others (James, 1980). The extent of identification with each role varies across individuals and is a function of factors such as (a) selection of activities congruent with the salient social identity; (b) loyalty to the group despite negative attributes; (c) conformity to group norms and attribution of prototypical characteristics to oneself; and (d) reinforcement of the group’s
prestige, values, and practices. Social identity theory have described other cognitive roots of role investment: for example, Super (1981) and Stryker (1968) viewed investment in a role as an outcome of self-concept and identity salience, respectively.

A distinguishing feature of social identity theory is the assertion that group membership results from perceptions or cognitions, not from interpersonal affections (Turner, 1982). Whereas Utilitarian approach would predict that people invest in roles that yield more rewards than costs, according to social identity theory, a favorable cost-benefit ratio is not a necessary condition for identification with a role; in some instances, identification may even be enhanced more by costs than rewards associated with group membership (Turner, 1987).

**Institutional Theory (Sutton and Noe, 2005)**

Institutional theory suggests that organizations adopt family-friendly programs to gain legitimacy, but adoption of programs occurs with little consideration to how programs should be operated (Arthur & Cook, 2003). As a result organizations may implement various programs, including flextime, without taking into account the risks inherit in operating those programs. There are at least three pressures organizations experience that are consistent with institutional theory. These include normative pressure, mimetic pressure, and coercive pressure (Arthur & Cook 2003; DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Normative pressures suggest internal groups insist the organization adopt a specific family-friendly program in order to make the organization adopt a specific family-friendly program in order to make the organization legitimate.

Mimetic pressures cause organizations to change as a result of imitating a competitor, and the organization seeks legitimacy by “mimicking successful competitors” (Arthur & Cook, 2003). Coercive pressures are usually government – mandated rules, which force organizations to change family –friendly programs. Hence organizations are challenged by operational concerns such as difficulties in ensuring that employees are physically present in the office to respond to customer needs. In addition, there may be a lack of management support for employees to participate in family – friendly programmes.
Employees are impacted also by operational inefficiencies, as they are likely to work longer hours should they participate in family-friendly programs (Hochschild, 1997).

**Person Environment P-E Theory to work and family (Edwards and Rothbard, 2005)**

The constructs that constitute P-E fit theory was conceptualized in terms of work and family. Work demands may refer to task requirements, managing subordinates, and other expectations entailed by the work role. Family demands may include household chores, caring for children, and other family role expectations. Work and family abilities are conceptualized as commensurate with these demands, such that demands-abilities fit would entail the comparison between demands and abilities for work or family on a single content dimension (e.g., demands and abilities for work task requirements or household chores). Needs and supplies can also be distinguished between work and family. Work needs include intrinsic job characteristics, extrinsic rewards, and relationships with peers, coworkers, and supervisors. Family needs include companionship, intimacy, emotional support, and the desire to raise children. These needs are compared to commensurate supplies to determine the degree of needs-supplies fit (e.g., whether extrinsic rewards from work or emotional support from the family exceed or fall short of their corresponding needs). Other constructs constitute P-E fit theory can also be conceptualized in the parallel terms for work and family. Psychological strain, such as dissatisfaction and negative effect, can refer to either work or family. Coping and defense for work and family, change the objective or subjective person or environment focus on work family versions. Distinctions between work and family apply to coping and defense directed towards needs-supplies misfit most forms of coping and defense are domain specific, some forms target the person are environment as a whole transcending the work and family domain.
Role Theory perspectives on work and family (Barnett and Gareis, 2006)

The Role enhancement approach yields work and family as separate, conflicting spheres, was reinforced by the then dominant corporate culture that explicitly required family matters to be left at the work-place door. To be taken seriously on the job, women would have to conform to the traditional one-dimensional view of men as worker thrones. This bifurcated model is still unfortunately a part of the corporate landscape. Similarly, the traditional sex-role assumptions underlying this model still have a hold on our thinking. In addition, the scarcity model of energy is consistent with the then (and still) dominant management fixation on “face time” as a reflection of employee commitment and productivity. Because it is believed that family roles deplete employees’ energy reserves, the best way to get the most out of employees is to keep them working long hours so that they will be unavailable for such activities.

Because of the dominant assumption that work and family are separate and in competition for such scarce resources as time and attention (Barnett, 1998), the work-family interface has been characterized as involving constant tension and perpetual conflict, especially for employed married women with children. Each employee is viewed as caught in a zero-sum game in which resources expended in one sphere deplete those available for the other, leading inevitably to diminished role quality in the deprived sphere (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991). Time is the resource most often dealt with in this literature, and this conceptualization has received some empirical support. For example, excessive work hours have been related to increased marital tension (Hughes & Galinsky, 1994). Although most studies of work-family conflict focus on competing time demands, such other aspects as energy, strain, and behavior (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; MacDermid et al., 2000) have also been identified.

Barnett and Hyde’s (2001) expansionist theory: focuses on the beneficial effects of role accumulation, including added income, the buffering affects role combinations, social integration, and expanded personal and social opportunities. Moen and colleagues
(Moen & Yu, 2000) use the image of “linked lives” to study the strategies married couples use over the course of their lives to manage work and family.

**Goode’s theory:** Goode (1960) made several assertions that have become part of the dogma of the study of conflict between family and work. First, he assumed that the role obligations of most individuals would exceed their capacity to respond, making the experience of role strain so inevitable as to be normal. Second, he articulated the “scarcity” hypothesis, which is based on the premise that individuals have a fixed pool of resources. Thus, resources expended in one domain necessarily are deprived from another.

**Social Identity Theory:** (Hopkins, 2005) Social identity theory explains how individuals define themselves and others. It assumes that “people tend to classify themselves and others into various social categories”. The theory encompasses a person’s total psychological identification with social groups and roles that are deemed meaningful and important in shaping attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors (Deaux, 1993; Hooper, 1985; Tajfel, 1978).

According to social identity theory, personal identity is based upon a combination of factors, including a set of values and beliefs and personal experiences (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Supervisors’ beliefs and attitudes about help-seeking and help-giving at work likely determine how supportive and helpful supervisors are with workers experiencing work-life conflict. For example, supervisors who believe that workers should talk to them about work-life problems and think that it is part of their job to help workers with personal problems may be more likely to intervene proactively with workers than supervisors who do not believe that workers should talk about their problems at work. Certain values and attitudes may predispose some supervisors to be supportive and helpful people in general, not just when there are performance problems. But supervisors’ responses may also be affected by supervisors’ own work-life experiences, and their experiences in seeking help for problems. For example, a supervisor who has experienced child-care problems and received support and assistance from a manager and the human resources department may be more likely to support workers in similar circumstances and
refer them to human resources. Thus, a supervisor’s sense of his or her own identity, which includes personal experiences, may help explain his or her behaviors with workers.

Second, Dubin (1974) stressed the need for “understanding the linkages between individual and organization” because the nature of the linkages may provide information as to why certain human resources policies may or may not be effective. Accepting this premise and applying it to supervisor support for work-life integration, it would be important to understand how supervisors are linked to the organization that employs them and how identified they are with the organization.

According to Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail (1994), when individual members demonstrate behaviors that are inconsistent or interrupt the normal organizational routines or culture, it motivates other members to question and review what is happening.

Context is also important to social identity; past context and changes in context can impact current identity (Deaux, 1993). Thus, shifts in organizational philosophy about supporting and helping employees, roles and expectations for supervisors, and changes in organizational directives can impact supervisors’ identification with the organization, thereby affecting supportive behavior.

Third, the expanded view of supervision that has called for a new breed of supervisors to be supportive leaders and coaches may well have resulted in a stronger identification with the work group. However, the extent to which supervisors are personally identified with the work group may well influence concern for worker well-being that goes beyond job performance.

For many people, work is a fundamental aspect of life that helps give individuals a sense of purpose; thus it makes sense for individuals to try to derive a sense of community at work, just as they strive to make their personal and family life richer and more meaningful. It may be that through this endeavor, supervisors become more identified with their “work family” and committed to the success of their work group, the individuals within it, and the organization that employs them.