CHAPTER 2

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CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A review of the literature indicates that philosophical and research perspectives are dominated with problem-oriented views of work-life balance and attrition issues related to working mothers. Little information or insight exists on the positive aspects and social supports inherent in the experience, which leads to many questions related to the centrality of this phenomenon. The purpose of this chapter was to explore the literature on working women, their problems and to provide a conceptual framework for, work family challenges for women at workplace, especially in Indian context. A number of studies were reviewed for impact of family responsibilities over their career decisions. Studies revealing the barriers to the advancement to senior positions also were reviewed. The changed expectations of working women in different sectors and the professional outcomes both at organizational as well as personal levels were reviewed.

2.1. Work-life Balance Theories

Pitt-Catsouphes et al., (2006)\(^{[1]}\) stated that the intersection of work and family research is fundamentally challenged by a lack of commonly accepted basic language and key constructs; no single prevailing framework or perspective is universally accepted.

Morris & Madsen, (2007)\(^{[2]}\) propounded that the academic body of knowledge regarding work-family scholarship relies on a variety of theoretical frameworks which include spillover, compensation, resource drain, enrichment, congruence, work-family conflict, segmentation,
facilitation, integration, and ecology theories. The experiences resulting from spillover can manifest themselves as either positive or negative.

**Spillover theory**

**Edwards & Rothbard, (2000)**[^1] quoted that Spillover refers to the effects of work and family on each other, and is described in terms of affect (mood and satisfaction), values (importance of work and family), and skills. Spillover has also been termed generalization, isomorphism, continuation, extension, familiarity, and similarity. There are two interpretations of spillover, firstly the positive association between family and work satisfaction and family and work values and secondly the transference in entirety of skills and behaviors between domains such as when fatigue from work is exhibited at home or when family demands interfere with work schedule.

**Compensation theory**

**Zedeck and Mosier (1990)**[^2] Compensation theory has been divided in to two broad categories: supplemental and reactive. Supplemental compensation occurs when positive experiences are insufficient at work and are therefore pursued at home. Reactive compensation occurs when negative work experiences are made up for in positive home experiences.

**Edwards & Rothbard, (2000)**[^3] stated the compensation theory refers to the efforts aimed at countering negative experiences in one domain through increased efforts for positive experiences in another domain.
Clark (2000) is of opinion that compensation theory, includes an inverse relationship between work and family, so workers attempt to satisfy voids from one domain with satisfactions from the other.

**Resource drain theory**

Edwards & Rothbard (2000) stated that resources can also be shifted to other domains that are not work and family related, such as community or personal pursuits. Morris & Madsen (2007) propounded that this theory refers to the transfer of resources from one domain to another; because resources are limited (e.g., time, money, and attention), available resources in the original domain are reduced.

**Enrichment theory**

Zedeck and Mosier (1990) used the term instrumental to characterize this concept, which states that good work outcomes lead to good family outcomes and vice versa. Enrichment theory refers to the degree to which experiences from instrumental sources (skills, abilities, values) or affective sources (mood, satisfaction) enhance the quality of the other domain. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) defined enrichment as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role” (p. 73) and reported that employees perceive that their work and family roles enrich each other.

**Congruence theory**

Edwards & Rothbard, (2000); Staines, (1980); Zedeck, (1992) stated that congruence theory refers to how additional variables that are not directly related to work or family influence
the balance of multiple roles. While spillover is a direct influence between work and family, congruence attributes similarity through a third variable, such as personality traits, behavioral styles, genetic forces, and socio-cultural forces. For example, based on congruence theory, a third variable such as intelligence or level of education could positively influence both work and family domains.

**Inter-role conflict theory**

Greenhaus & Beutell (1985) propounded inter-role conflict theory refers to what occurs when meeting the demands in one domain makes it difficult to meet the demands in the other domain. They described some propositions where the constructs are in conflict in relation to time, role strain, and specific behavior such as the pressures must come from both work and family, self-identification with roles is necessary, role salience moderates relationships and is positively related to conflict level, conflict is strongest when there are negatives associated with non-compliance, directionality is based on conflict source, conflict is related to career success and stage and external support is related to conflict.

**Segmentation theory**

(Kanter, 1977) stated that it has been proven no longer to be true and perhaps never was, particularly for female workers, segmentation is now referred to as the active process that people use to create and maintain boundaries between work and family. Piotrkowski (1979) stated that the theory refers to viewing work and family as separate domains that do not influence each other. Since the industrial revolution, work and family have been inherently separate by time,
space, and function. He described this process as what occurs when people actively suppress work-related thoughts, feelings, and behaviors in the family domain, and vice versa.

**Integration theory**

*Googins (1997)*[^15] believed that an approach to work and family that includes all parties and shared responsibility will yield greater results in both domains than solutions created in isolation. *Clark (2000)*[^16] referred to the holistic view that a healthy system of flexible and permeable boundaries can better facilitate and encourage the family-life, work-life, and community-life domains. *Morris and Madsen (2007)*[^17] acknowledged that integration theory best describes the incorporation of additional contextual elements, such as community, into the body of knowledge regarding work and family. Integration calls for contemporary understandings that retool traditional work-life paradigms, making all stakeholders (employers, workers, and communities) active partners with equal voices in the creation of a holistic model of work-life balance.

### 2.2. Women’s Developmental Theories

Three pertinent theoretical areas related to women’s development are career development, mentoring and psychology.

**Career development**

*Fitzgerald, Fassinger, & Betz, (1995)*[^18] focused on women’s traditional roles in homemaking and mothering influence their career choice and adjustment making current career development
models inconsistent with women's experiences, along with the lack of research specific to women's careers. Schreiber (1998)\textsuperscript{[19]} said that women's career choice and career development processes are unique and different from those of men due to social contexts of role and expectations. Wentling (1998)\textsuperscript{[20]} quoted the success of women's career development to be manifested in the linkage of family needs and community responsibilities to career decisions, so as to balance both roles.

\textbf{Mentoring}

Kanter (1977)\textsuperscript{[21]} stated the mentoring relationship originally focused on career advancement and upward mobility but is now considered to be both psychosocial and career development, which are mutually important for an effective relationship. Levinson, 1978;\textsuperscript{[22]} Lyness & Thompson (2000)\textsuperscript{[23]} found that human resource management literature refers to social support in the context of formal and informal mentoring. The mentoring literature has focused primarily on male experiences yet the mentor relationship can be one of the most developmentally significant interactions for an employee. Higgins and Kram (2001)\textsuperscript{[24]} acknowledged that employees are mentored by many different people at differing times. Mentoring is process oriented and developmentally holistic, yet the research and current interventions use male-centric models.

\textbf{Psychology}

In both the fields of work-life integration and career development, existing theories, models, and frameworks are inherently male engendered or degendered and do not allow for an understanding of social support networks for working mothers, which by definition must be
exclusively engendered. Miller (1976) pointed to the fact that women's sense of self and worth is grounded in their ability to make and maintain relationships; women generally derive a sense of value and effectiveness from experiences that lead to connection rather than separateness. Relationships are significant for most women, and it is through relational interactions with other people that women develop, although some can develop in isolation.

Gilligan's (1982) propounded that the developmental model of psychology of an individual in organization. It includes four levels: (a) orientation to individual survival, (b) self-sacrifice, (c) goodness, and (d) nonviolence. The orientation to individual survival occurs when individuals perceive themselves as powerless and are concerned only with them. From this developmental phase, a woman would then transition to responsibility and then to an understanding of others' needs and feelings. At this developmental point the person in transition decides that it is responsible and mature to think about others and selfish and immature to act based on personal desire. However, she will still blame others rather than take responsibility for her own actions. During the next developmental level, self-sacrifice, the moral agent determines that being good means sacrificing for the good of others. She will then perceive herself as good if she is being the caretaker, and she considers herself responsible for the actions of others while holding others responsible for the choices that she makes. Next, the transition to goodness occurs when the person decides that considering oneself in moral decisions is not selfish, but honest. The moral agent develops a new sense of herself as someone also worthy of consideration. She is no longer dependent on outside perceptions of herself as caretaker. The final level is nonviolence, where the moral agent is no longer troubled by a perceived conflict of caring for self versus caring for others, and caring is automatically understood to include others and self.
Gilligan (1982) and Berger (1994) proposed that psychological theory can best provide a framework for this experience because, if we are going to study the experience of women, we must acknowledge the inner sense of connection to others as a central organizing feature of women’s development. A theoretical foundation for support networks for working mothers was found in his work based on the view that women’s development is grounded and defined in their connectedness to self and others.

Theory Evaluation

Morris & Madsen (2007) proposed that work-life integration and career development theories have been found to be structurally weak as frameworks to explore social support networks for working mothers, primarily due to four reasons: (a) separateness of constructs, (b) lack of assessment instruments, (c) research completed without theoretical foundations, and (d) male-oriented models of development. In many of the theoretical approaches, and specifically in segmentation and compensation theory, the relationships between work and family constructs are treated as separate and distinct concepts that fundamentally exclude additional contexts such as community.

Zedeck and Mosier (1990) quoted that another weakness of existing work-life balance theories is the lack of generally accepted empirical work to non-work interface models that are well documented in the literature and specifically noted by him where all models are basically descriptive. Bacharach (1989) stated that this weakness is difficult to overlook, because to be
of the most value to research, theory, and practice, frameworks should be usable and empirically refutable.

Grzywacz & Carlson (2007) found that weakness in work-life balance theories is the difficulty the field of HRD has had in capitalizing on work-life theory because it has not kept pace with interest; also, there is not currently an instrument to assess work-family balance using a unified theoretical foundation.

Greenhaus & Allen (2006) found that the main challenge in evaluating work-life balance theories begins with semantics and differing conceptions of the term balance, which makes it difficult then to situate research within a theoretical framework, thereby making measurement and evaluation virtually impossible. Utilizing the definition of work-family balance as presented by them as the work-life balance is then a social rather than a psychological construct that gets its meaning from outside of the individual; a focus on the inherently interactional aspects of the work-life experience is essential for accurate characterization. In addition, weaknesses are found in the literature through the domination of quantitative information focused on supervisory roles, specific corporate interventions, policies, and gender differences, all done with little regard for conceptual frameworks, let alone theory.

Clark (2000) identified this void, and began working on a model to better explain the multifaceted relationship of work and non-work that is inclusive of human interaction, meaning creation, and the complexity of work and home situations.
Miner (2002) said that it is an exception in the research of the Hawthorne studies. Experiments carried out by George Elton Mayo on human behavior at the Hawthorne Works of the Western Electric Company placed an emphasis on the intrinsic nature of work and concluded that recognition, security, and belonging influence the morale and productivity of workers. We propose that a major weakness in current conceptual understandings of working mothers is the fact that male researchers have written about male employees, in male-dominated enterprises, resulting in theories devoid of engenderization. Women’s psychological theory and social capital theory appear to address some of the shortcomings of work-life balance and career development theory.

Gilligan’s (1982) said that theoretical approach is inherently engendered. When coupled with the fact that social capital, social network theory, and women’s moral development theory are also more holistic approaches to understanding when taken together these theoretical frameworks create a comprehensive model for understanding social networks for working mothers. However, models and research regarding work-family integration must still be reviewed and critiqued as possible theoretical frameworks for understanding support constructs in the workplace to best understand the complexity of research related to formal social workplace networks for working mothers.

2.3. Work Family Challenges of Women Professionals

In most of the societies, work-life conflict seems to be quite high in case of working women.
Crosby (1987) in his study found that although men also face this challenge of balancing work and other priorities, it affects women more since they do most of the work associated with the household activities, apart from taking care of children, older family members, and other dependents. Though multiple roles in work and family can be the source of multiple satisfactions for employed women, a combination of career and family roles is often associated with conflict, overload, and stress.


Googins and Burden (1987) ; Jick and Mitz (1985) ; Zappert and Weinstein, (1985) from the data collected during their respective researches show that women professionals still assume the primary responsibility of home and child-care activities. Balancing both career and family is an arduous task for working women especially when they have small children and there is no well-equipped day-care/créche facility where they can leave their kids without any tension while they are at work.

Lewis and Cooper (1987) ; (1988) in their respective studies stated that developed countries in the West, especially in North America, sources of stress for women include role overload from paid work and family work, role conflict, pressures associated with child care and other family care, and aspects of spouse relationships, including dissatisfaction with spouses' contribution to family work.
Googins and Burden, (1987) in a study conducted, suggests that among married couples, fathers reported to be spending 10-15 hours less each week on home and childcare tasks than full-time employed mothers, giving fathers a combined weekly job-home load of 68.92 hours and mothers 83.91 hours.

Wajcman, (1981); Falkenberg and Monachello, (1990) carried a study and revealed that women give birth to children, and still do most of the work of bringing them up. To do a demanding job and managing family and social life simultaneously is notoriously difficult. It is generally women who take the primary responsibility for childcare and who, in situations of conflict, adjust their working lives to accommodate family pressures.

Joshi (1990) stated in his study that family environment and work environment are the two factors that contribute to the enhancement of complications or problems for employed women, and between the two, the non job factors or family-related factors weigh more importantly for women.

Brannen and Moss (1991); Hochschild (1989); Sandqvist (1992) in their researches found that, over time and across cultures continues to document the persistent inequality in the allocation of household work within dual career families, even among couples with ‘modern’ ideologies and a commitment to gender equality at home and at work.

CIPD (2003) in the survey conducted revealed some important facts regarding the working women. It said that women often suffer from the guilt-complex of not spending enough time during the tender age of their children and being forced to leave their children in the hands of the
maids on whom they have little faith. Women employees thus face a dual burden—work and family— which creates a lot of stress and strain and role conflict. Evidence indicates that workers who take advantage of family-friendly benefits, such as career breaks or flexible-hour contracts, are still perceived as adversely affecting their future careers by doing so. The same survey also highlights that employee groups, traditionally disadvantaged in their career progress, such as women or those with family care responsibilities, seem to stagnate in their career at a certain level.

Guillaume and Pochic (2009) stated through their study that women managers adopt various work-life strategies keeping the organizational norm, and an individual and family perspective in mind.

Rothbard (2001) in her study stated that gender differences exist in terms of work and family boundaries in almost every society and this has resulted in gender differences in the experiences of work-family interface.

2.4. Work Family Challenges: The Indian Context

Ramu (1989) through his study revealed further that unfortunately, even though Indian husbands are supportive of their wives' participation in the workforce, they are yet to assume responsibility for sharing domestic chores.

Sekaran (1992) in his research on career women in India shows that work and family dilemmas are often different from those reported by women in the West As compared to their
counterparts in other parts of the world, Indian women employees face a lot of difficulties in managing their work and life.

Sekaran (1992) stated in his study that in India, instrumental support for most working women come in the form of hired domestic helps or female members of extended families. Although hired domestic helps in urban areas of India have been noted to be expensive and unreliable, they still continue to be a major source of support for the growing number of nuclear families who live far from their relatives.

Komarraju (1997) through his study revealed that there are growing number of educated women in India and they are now participating actively in the urban, organized, industrial sector in technical, professional, and managerial positions. They have been accompanied by a steady growth in dual career families. He noted in his study that the relative absence of an infrastructure that provides a reliable supply of electricity, water, and time-saving, modern-day kitchen and other appliances, renders the performance of domestic responsibilities a burden, particularly for women in dual career families.

Rout, Lewis and Kagan (1999) in their research conducted found that women in India experience considerable pressure, in the morning before going out to work and after work, to do all that is necessary for the family and this definitely would have an impact on their state of minds.
Rosenbaum and Cohen (1999)\textsuperscript{[62]} conducted a study and found that in societies, where there is low gender egalitarianism, such as in India, spousal support is extremely important for women.

Bharat, (2001)\textsuperscript{[63]} focused through his study that the inflexible working hours and the absence of childcare facilities constitute impediments rather than sources of support for employed mothers. Though in urban India, things have started improving, yet they are not adequate. For maintaining work-life balance, social support plays a very significant role for women managers.

Bharat (2003)\textsuperscript{[64]} carried a research and found that although conflict between career and family roles can be a potential source of stress for both women and men managers, it affects women in India more than men because of many reasons. While social, legal, and economic reforms have helped women to join the workforce in India, the continuing influence of normative attitudes and values has prevented them from altering the perceptions of the society as well as their own regarding their sex-roles. Equal distribution of domestic responsibilities is thus a distant possibility now. The expectation that women should give priority to their family-needs leads to higher levels of personal role-overload for women than men. This has definitely affected the career prospects of women in particular. In many cases, the supervisors/managers are sensitive to this issue and try to handle employees’ difficulties at an individual level. However, in the absence of any systematic policy to address this important issue, the women suffer more than men in terms of their career advancement and familial role-fulfillment.
2.5. Impact of Family Responsibilities on Career Decisions

Rosen and Jerdee (1973) carried a study and revealed that although, in certain cases where women managers may not reduce their work involvement, it is found that family involvement can also have a negative impact on career prospects.

Kingstone and Nock (1985) in their research further supported the above mentioned findings and stated that working women experiencing the role conflict would devote less active time towards their jobs. They conducted a research and also indicates that women who experience extensive role conflict and time pressures from their career and family roles tend to reduce their level of career involvement.

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) ; Sekaran (1986) carried a study on the employed women, revealed that those working females who are married and/or those who have children tend to experience high levels of career-family conflict because of the conflicting pressures arising from family and work.

Davidson and Cooper, (1986) carried a research that suggests that women managers report greater stress than men managers due to childbearing, conflicts with their partners, and other family-related problems. This indicates that even though career demands may be equal for both the partners, married women managers do not receive the support they need from the organizations and society.

Devanna, (1987) ; Lewis and Cooper, (1988) conducted a study and concluded that the organizations, which assume that women will subordinate their careers to their family
responsibilities, are unlikely to invest in the capacity-building of their women managers through training, sponsorship, and assignment of jobs that provide power and opportunity.

Gutek, Repetti and Silver (1988) \[72\]; Olson and Frieze, (1987) \[73\] in their research observed that the extensive family responsibilities, especially those involving marriage, childcare, and household activities can impede women managers’ career achievements and advancements.

Greenglass (1988) \[74\] conducted a research and revealed that women managers consistently report significantly higher job/family role conflict, which may be accompanied by higher mental and physiological strains than men managers. The more job-family conflicts women managers report, the greater is their irritation, anxiety, and depression.

Pittman and Orthner (1988) \[75\] on the other hand carried a study and stated that the involvement in the job is conditioned by an expectation and that such an effort would alleviate the conflict.

Schwartz (1989) \[76\] further carried the research on the same grounds and revealed that the less involvement is perhaps because of persisting stereotypes which often compels organizations to assume that married women (especially those with children) will and should play a primary caretakers’ role within their families.

Gutek, Repetti and Silver (1988) \[77\] carried a study and revealed that there is indeed a critical linkage between career and family of the women managers. It is found that women
managers' involvements, demands, and accomplishments in the employment and family domains are mutually interdependent. The internalization of the belief that roles are gender specific prescribes different life-options for men and women. For men, this life option implies prioritization of work over family, whereas for women, it implies prioritization of family over work.

Gutek, Searle and Klepa (1991) \cite{1} carried a study on today's world, work and family domains influence each other greatly. It is a truism that work interferes with family as much as family interferes with work. In case of female managers, this is even more true as the pressure of meeting societal expectations is more for them.

Bielby and Bielby (1992) \cite{2} in a study conducted showed that women experience extensive work-family conflicts because of their involvement in family affairs. And more often than not, women respond to this problem by reducing their involvement in work. As geographical mobility is risky for career progression and for family balance, many women managers choose to remain rooted at one place as tied-stayers.

Parasuraman and Greenhaus (1993) \cite{3} conducted a survey and proved the above said facts about work family conflicts, and stated it in turn, restricts the career opportunities and advancement of women.

Desai (1996) \cite{4} in view of the influence of a patriarchal value structure of the family on their career aspirations and motivations for work, found that Indian women tend to impose restrictions on their career aspirations or personal achievements for family reasons.
argues that keeping a low profile in one’s career enables these women to be in both the worlds, i.e., work and family.

Rajadhakshya and Bhatnagar (2000) studied and reported their findings in the context of India, reported that men are more committed to work or occupation than women and that gender-role expectations and gender based socialization lead men to identify themselves with ‘work-roles,’ and women to identify themselves with ‘family roles.’

Konard (2003) propounded by his empirical research that professionals and managers who expect to shoulder considerable domestic responsibilities express a preference for jobs that offer shorter and flexible working hours, and less demanding work environment While this holds true for both male and female respondents in the study, women have been seen to be affected more than men because they traditionally spend more hours in household work than men.

Aryee, Srinivas and Tan (2005) in their research found that women are expected to identify with the family and, therefore, invest more time and energy resources to enhance performance in that role. The expectation that women should give priority to the family suggests that women managers would experience higher levels of parental role-overload than men.

Tang and Cousins (2005) concluded in their studies that while there appear to be signs of growing gender convergence, but not equality, in parent’s contribution to childcare times women are still responsible for domestic labor and childcare.
O’ Brien (2005) revealed from his research on bringing fathers into frame, that it is the mothers, rather than the fathers, who have to ultimately bend their jobs to meet family needs.

Warren, Fox and Pascall (2009) in their study revealed that combining paid-work and motherhood remains a major source of difficulties for women.

2.6. Impact of Psychological Developmental Stages of Working Women on their Work-life

Bardwick (1980) carried the research and revealed that the psychological development of women should also be of the concern. Focusing her attention on adult (working) women, Bardwick identifies four basic life phases for women that contrast with the life stages of a man. These are early adult transition years (17-28 years), the settling-down period (30-40 years), middle adulthood (40-45 years), and the "age 50 and older" phase. During the early adult transition years, most women, unlike men of the same age, are busy getting married and settling down to family life. The primary concern is to provide a stable start to their marriage, and their investment in work at this stage is not as significant as that of their men counterparts.

Gallos (1989) in his study stated that the attitude towards work involves a commitment to doing an important job well rather than a commitment to an ongoing occupational or professional identity. For women, the next phase namely the settling-in period entails strong commitment to family roles especially the maternal role. Women in this phase expand a lot more energy than do men in raising children as they oversee their children grow and move from preschool to junior
school. An attitude towards work that de-emphasizes career in relation to family continues for women until the middle adulthood phase (until the forties), and then things start changing. Having put child-rearing responsibilities behind them, women now have more time and energy to invest in to their careers. During this stage, while most men go through a painful midlife crisis, women experience greater assertiveness and professional accomplishment at work. This being their belated (and probably the last) opportunity to make a mark in their profession, most women who are freshly released from the dominant responsibilities of family roles apply themselves to work with renewed interest and energy. They experience professional resurgence at a life stage when, interestingly, men are ready to move towards the stereotypically feminine "enabler" roles at work and in the family. The age 50 and older phase presents comparable experiences and challenges for men and women as both have to learn to deal with the trauma of separation and loneliness caused by the empty nest at home, retirement from work, and a concomitant of aging--the occasional loss of dear ones. However, traces of differences could still be detectable in the seemingly similar experiences between men and women. As wives are usually younger than their husbands who are normally the first ones to retire and are often keen to support career pursuits of their wives, most women find this phase--post-middle-adulthood--to be professionally challenging and rewarding.

Sekaran and Hall (1989) conducted a study, built this notion of a "return to work" by women at a later stage in their life, have proposed a model that explains role cycling between work and family for dual-career couples. A couple begins with equal commitment to and involvement in both work and family roles, in the early stage of married life together. However, with the arrival of children into the family, one of the partners, usually the woman, reduces
her work involvement, whereas the other partner, usually the man, devotes himself to career-building activities. Once children have grown up and family responsibilities have abated, partners reverse roles. To conclude the discussion on adult development, while both men and women grapple with the developmental issues of attachment and separation in their work and family roles at different life stages, they seem to resolve these conflicts in different ways. The development process of women appears to be the mirror image of that of men. Men seem to begin their adult life with an emphasis on individuality and workplace achievement at the expense of other roles and move towards connectedness at a later phase of their life. Women, on the other hand, seem to begin their adult life by valuing connectedness with significant others more than autonomy and individual achievement, and move towards accepting separation and expression of individual excellence as recognition of self at a later stage.

2.7. Understanding Attitudes towards Work and Family Roles

The developmental approach having dynamic and comprehensive perspective is used to understand an individual's attitudes towards work and family roles, sees work and family life not just as static phenomena but as an evolving reality, which offers individuals different constellations of challenges and choices at different stages of development. Further, it addresses issues relating to work-family interfaces, allows for a different view of the adult development of women are different from men.
Erikson (1959) revealed that four broad periods of stability interspersed with periods of change in the life cycle of a man. The four periods of stability were the era of preadulthood (8-22 years), the era of early adulthood (17-45 years), the era of middle adulthood (40-65 years), and the era of late adulthood (60-65 years). Intervening between the periods of stability were four periods of change: the early adult transition years (17-22 years), the age-30 transition, the midlife transition (40-45 years), and the late adult transition (60-65 years). During the periods of stability, the life structure of a man involved addressing the appropriate developmental tasks during that period, whereas during the periods of transition, elements of life structure were reviewed and rearranged so as to respond to changes in one's external and internal psychological domains.

Levinson (1978) carried the study he stated in his findings that, building a career and family were the two major preoccupations for men during the early adulthood era. Career usually took precedence over family during this phase. Accomplishments in the world of work helped enhance self-esteem and professional standing. The precedence of career over family continued up to middle adulthood. It was not until the midlife transition years (roughly the midforties) that men begin to experience and deal with family issues, and with conflicts between career and family, in a significant way. During this period, as the purpose of life's journey and milestones on the way were reexamined, men started altering their perspective. His description of midlife changes suggested that during this stage, there was less inhibition in shedding some of the stereotypically masculine baggage and a greater willingness to acquire a more stereotypically feminine orientation in work and family roles. Although Levinson did not study men in the late adulthood stage that follows the period of midlife transition, late adulthood
is generally understood as a stage that involves coping with trauma of being superannuated, physiological changes, issues of health and mortality, and one's place in the changing structure of family roles.

Kalliath and Brough (2008)\textsuperscript{[93]} stated that work-life balance reflects an individual's orientation across different life roles, it is the extent to which an individual is engaged in – and equally satisfied with – his or her work role and family role, achieving satisfying experiences in all life domains and to do so requires personal resources such as energy, time and commitment to be well distributed across domains, the extent to which an individual's effectiveness and satisfaction in work and family roles are compatible with the individual's life role priorities at a given point in time, low levels of inter-role conflict and high levels of inter-role facilitation contribute to higher levels of perceived work-family balance, and work-life balance is about people having a measure of control over when, where and how they work. The definition of work-life balance that Kalliath and Brough proposed was “work-life balance is the individual perception that work and non-work activities are compatible and promote growth in accordance with an individual's current life priorities”. From this definition it is important to note that work-life balance is about individuals' perception as they fulfill multiple and often competing roles.

Potgieter, S. & Barnard, A. (2010).\textsuperscript{[94]} stated that most of the major reviews of work-life balance articles either do not mention work-life balance or when it is mentioned it is not explicitly defined. Furthermore, in studies where work-life balance or related constructs are
explored, researchers seem to have used several different approaches to operationally define and measure the construct.

2.8. Benefits of Work-Life Balance to the Organisation

The Professional outcomes can both be personal in nature or from the organizational level. 

Ashforth, Kreiner & Fugate (2000) stated that blurring the line between work and personal life by bringing day care, recreation facilities and other aspects of personal life to work it makes it more difficult for employees to make transition between roles and may compromise the integrity of home, work and third places. **In trying to find a solution to a major problem that employees are facing, it is possible that it has created another problem.**

Allen, (2001) stated that employees experience many positive outcomes when they feel that they have attained work-life balance. **Employers are often motivated to implement family-friendly policies based on the premise that economic gains will be realized from increased employee productivity and reduced turnover as a result of such policies.**

Rothbard, (2001) quoted that all positive emotions that employees experience by reducing their stress levels are associated with an outward focus of attention, such that **when people are happy, they report increased liking for others and are more willing to initiate conversations and offer help.**

Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer & King, (2002) in their studies found that involvement in multiple individual roles can result in benefits both to **the individual and the organization,**
therefore, it is important for employers to recognize these benefits and support employees' commitments outside of the job by being flexible and providing them the opportunity to engage in these activities.

Maxwell & McDougall, (2004) stated that work-life balance programs contribute to creating a culture of honesty and trust where staff can admit to home problems and get support skills to succeed in rapidly changing markets. It has been found that work-life balance programs allowed supervisors the option to help staff and made the management role less difficult.

Cinamon & Rich, (2010) found in their studies that when an individual leads a balanced life, they are likely to experience vigor as a component of work engagement. Vigor has been characterized as comprising high levels of effort, energy, resilience and persistence.

Haar & Roche (2010) stated that the benefits with work life balance programs at the organizational level include: lower recruitment, lower training costs, improved productivity, decreased job burnout easier service delivery, enhanced quality service, enhanced employee capability, less absence, lower turnover, employee flexibility, increased organizational commitment, and increased levels of participation within the organization and initiative.

Major & Lauzun, (2010) found in their research that many consequences associated with lack of work-life balance. Issues with work-life balance have been linked to diminished organizational commitment, job satisfaction, life satisfaction and increased stress and
turnover intentions. Research has demonstrated that work interference with family is more prevalent than family interference with work and is more likely to be influenced by workplace factors and supportive supervisor behaviours.

Porter & Alman, 2010[^1] reported that the lure of work life balance programs may not be in the utilization, but in the access to them. Porter and Alman found that employees who believe that they have sufficient flexibility in when, what, and where work is completed, regardless of if they participate in alternative work schedules, are those most greatly affected.

**Personal Benefits**

Jex & Gudanowski, 1992[^2] stated that Attaining work-life balance can lead to increased feelings of self efficacy, which is a person’s belief about whether they can successfully perform a task.

Maxwell & McDougall, 2004[^3] found that other benefits which the employee and employer both may experience include: improved productivity, motivation and commitment to the organization. It remains to be fully understood if and how the efficacy facilitators (flexibility, access to resources and social support) influence an employee’s perception of their work-life. The fact that employees in swanky buildings of prospering Indian firms take home hefty pay packets every month can paint a rosy picture of their lives in anyone’s mind. The reality that their lives are marked by pressures, hectic schedules and long working hours which takes a toll not only on their health, but also relationships at home and social engagements.
Porter & Alman, (2010) stated that if an employee can better manage their time in one domain, the spillover of demands to another domain is decreased, thus increasing total efficiency. This may suggest that when people are happier with their work role and family life, they will be more likely to help others and to be more enjoyable to work with. Baral & Bhargava (2010) said that supportive work-family culture enhances the psychological resource base for employees by increasing a sense of self-acceptance and flexibility which can aid individuals develop positive affect towards work. Work-family enrichment is the extent to which experience in one role improves the quality of life namely performance or affect, in the other role. The need for a balance between work and personal life has become an integral element of employee expectations from employers.

A broad review of existing literature on barriers to women’s career advancement suggests that one of the most important reasons inhibiting women’s rise to the top positions in management is the work-life conflict that women professionals experience because of their strong commitment to family responsibilities. The primary objective of this study is to understand the impact of family responsibilities on the career decisions of women professionals and also to find out the type of work-life support they would require from their employers to balance their work and life in a better manner. The study is conducted with 250 women executives working in IT sector across different levels. The perceptions of women professionals regarding their work life balance and its impact on their performance, barriers against their career advancement, and in advancement to senior managerial positions are studied. Also their expectations from the IT Companies are found. The impact of demographic factors like managerial level, marital status, and family structure on all the above-mentioned issues are also analyzed.
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