Chapter IV

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature is a study of previously undertaken researches, published information in journals and magazines pertaining to the study topic. It provides facts and figures about the previous studies conducted in the area of research. This helps the researcher to frame the objectives, find the variables, formulate the hypothesis, designing the research study and to take the research in the right direction.

For a clear understanding, this chapter has been organized under the following headings and arranged in ascending order of the year.

- Work Life Balance studies
- Individual related variables for Work Life Balance
- Family related variables for Work Life Balance
- Work related variables for Work Life Balance
- Outcomes of Work Life Balance
- Strategies for achieving Work Life Balance
4.1 WORK LIFE BALANCE STUDIES

1. Pleck et al. (1980)\(^1\) in a survey study of workers found that substantial minority of workers living in families experienced conflict between work and family life. Parents reported more conflict than other couples. Specific working conditions, such as excessive hours at work, scheduling and physically or psychologically demanding were associated with experiencing work family conflict, which in turn was related to diminished job satisfaction and contentment with life in general.

2. Frone et al. (1992)\(^2\) in his study found that work to family conflict is more prevalent than family to work conflict, suggesting that family boundaries are more permeable to work demands than are work boundaries to family demands.

3. Williams and Alliger (1994)\(^3\) also found that work interfered with family more than family interfered with work in a study of 41 full time working parents.

4. Eagle et al. (1997)\(^4\) found that work and family boundaries were asymmetrically permeable with work to family conflict being significantly more prevalent than family to work conflict.

5. Hammer et al. (1997)\(^5\) collected the data from 399 dual-earner couples and found that work family conflict had strong crossover effects for both males and females, indicating that individual’s level of work family conflict was a significant predictor of their partner’s level of work family conflict.
6. **Loscocco (1997)** found that there was gender asymmetry in the permeability of the boundaries between work and family lives. Family intruded more on work among women and work intruded more on family among men.

7. In a study of Taiwanese managers, **Hsieh et al. (2005)** found that very few Taiwanese managers had difficulty balancing work and personal lives and work interfered with personal life more frequently than personal life did with the work.

8. **Wesley and Muthuswamy (2005)** in a study of 230 teachers in an engineering college in Coimbatore, India, found that work to family conflict was more prevalent than family to work conflict, thus indicating that permeability of work into family was more than permeability of family into work.

9. **Kinnunen and Mauno (2007)** collected data from a sample of 501 employees working in four organizations, i.e., municipal and social healthcare, manufacturing for exports, a bank and a supermarket. The results indicated that interference from work to family was more prevalent than interference from family to work among both sexes. However, there were no gender differences in experiencing either work to family or family to work conflict.

10. **Baral (2010)** in a study of 485 employees working in varied organizations in India found that working men and women in India experience more work family enrichment than the work family conflict. It was also found that there were no gender differences in the employee perception of work family enrichment.
The findings of the studies reported above suggest that work to family conflict is more frequent than family to work conflict.

4.2 INDIVIDUAL RELATED VARIABLES FOR WORK LIFE BALANCE

11. Greenhaus et al. (1989)\textsuperscript{11} found work salience to be a strong predictor of work family conflict for the women, but found it to be unrelated in the case of men.

12. Gutek et al. (1991)\textsuperscript{12} indicated that women reported more work interference in family than men, despite spending about same number of hours in paid work as men. Although women spent more hours in family work than men, they reported the same level of family interference in work.

13. Frone et al. (1992)\textsuperscript{13} found no evidence of gender differences in the pattern of asymmetry, indicating that the dynamics of work and family boundaries may operate similarly among men and women.

14. Higgins et al. (1994)\textsuperscript{14} examined the impact of gender and life cycle stage on three components of work family conflict i.e. role overload, interference from work to family and interference from family to work. The results indicated significant differences for gender and life cycle. Women reported experiencing significantly greater role overload than men. Again women were found to experience greater work to family interference than men. Interference was highest when the children were young, and lowest in families with older children. Further, women reported significantly higher levels of family
interference with work than men in early years, but interferences levels were comparable to men’s in the third life cycle stage.

15. Williams and Alliger (1994)\textsuperscript{15} found that spillover of unpleasant moods occur both from work to family settings and from family to work though evidence for the spillover of pleasant moods was weak. Both family to work and work to family spillovers were stronger for women than men. Further, it was found that extent to which work interfered with family for a given day was found to be positively related to self reported job involvement for that day. Extent to which family interfered with work on a given day was found to be positively related to distress in family roles during the day, family intrusion into work during the day and self reported family involvement for that day.

16. Aryee and Luk (1996)\textsuperscript{16} in his study of dual earner couples in Hong Kong found that men significantly identified more with the work role, had more experience in the workforce, and perceived more spouse support. In contrast, women significantly, identified more with the family role, had main responsibility for childcare, spent more time per week with the children and perceived more need for family responsive policies. In addition, the results revealed that women balance their work and family identity by trading off one for the other. In contrast, men are able to simultaneously identify with work and family roles.

17. Eagle et al. (1997)\textsuperscript{17} also found there is no significant relation to gender and work-family conflicts. Males and females reported similar levels of family to work and work to family conflict. The plausible reason forwarded for the lack
of gender differences was greater mutual empathy that couple shares, which might be created from a decrease in time as a resource for each spouse to spend in their respective, traditionally occupied domains in the interest of gaining monetary resources.

18. Carlson (1999) determined how dispositional and situational factors differentially affect the three forms: time, strain and behaviour based of work family conflict, and also considered the impact of dispositional variables on work family conflict beyond situational factors. The results showed that dispositional variables do play a role above and beyond situational variables in determining the level of experienced work family conflict. Negative affectivity was found to be the most highly related variable with time based conflict. It was also significantly related to strain based conflict. From the work domain, the variable of role conflict was found to be related to strain based conflict.

19. Carlson and Kacmar (2000) found that work centrality did make a difference to the way work-family conflict was experienced. It was found that when work was highly central to the individual, antecedents from the family domain had a significant impact on family interference with work and when family was valued more, the work domain antecedents had a greater impact on work interference with family.

20. Carmeli (2003) examined the extent of which senior managers with high emotional intelligence, employed in public sector organizations, develop positive work attitudes, behaviour and outcomes. The results showed that senior managers who had high emotional intelligence were more likely to
effectively control work-family conflict than those who have low emotional intelligence.

21. **Hyman et al. (2003)** examined the evidence for extensions of work into household and family life in two growing employment sectors: call centres and software development. The study found that organizational pressures combined with lack of work centrality result in work intruding into non-work areas of employee lives, though intrusions manifest themselves in different ways according to the type of work, levels of the worker autonomy and organizational support. Work family conflict has also been studied in relation to personality type and situational factors.

22. **Hsieh et al. (2005)** investigated the perspective of Taiwan hotel managers regarding work-personal life balance and its relationship to various demographic variables, such as gender and marital status, and did not find any significant differences between male and female managers, nor there any significant differences between married and unmarried male/female managers.

23. **Wesley and Muthuswamy (2005)** also did not find any gender differences in the experience of work to family or family to work conflict and argued that it was because the financial resources were now being used to pay for the household activities which earlier women had to do and moreover, men had also started to share some work at home.

24. The purpose of the study undertaken by **Grzywacz et al. (2007)** was to expand the understanding of how culture contributes to the occurrence and consequences of work to family conflict. The study evaluated predictions
drawn from emerging models emphasizing the influence of cultural characteristics, such as collectivism and gender ideology on work family conflict. The findings were consistent with earlier research that individuals from more collectivist cultures experience fewer conflict between work and family, as in these cultures, work and family are viewed as more integrated. Results also indicated that the level of work to family conflict differed with gender.

25. Rajadhyaksha and Velgach (2009) also found that women experienced significantly higher family interference with work as compared to men. However there were no significant differences between men and women in the experience of work interference with family.

4.3 FAMILY RELATED VARIABLES FOR WORK LIFE BALANCE

26. Suchet and Barling (1986) in a study of inter role conflict, spouse support and marital functioning found that support from one’s husband may assist employed mothers cope with their own inter role conflict, as husbands’ supportive behaviour and attitude might help in reducing the opposing role demands on, and unrealistic role expectations of employed mothers.

27. Loerch et al. (1989) examined the relationships among family domain variables and work family conflict for both men and women. The results indicated that the time based antecedents (number of children, spouse work
hours, couple’s employment status) were not significantly related to any form of work family conflict for men or women. Strain based antecedent, conflict within family, was found to have a positive relationship with work family conflict. The behaviour based antecedent, role congruity, was not significantly related to any form of work family conflict. The variable of role involvement significantly predicted only the time based conflict for men.

28. **Higgins et al. (1994)** along with the finding that women experience greater work to family interference than men also found that interference was highest when the children were young, and lowest in families with older children. Further, women reported significantly higher levels of family interference with work than men in early years, but interference levels were comparable to men’s in the third life cycle stage (i.e. children 10 to 18 years).

29. **Adams et al. (1996)** developed and tested a model of the relationship between work and family. The results suggested that higher levels of family emotional and instrumental support were associated with lower levels of family interfering with work.

30. **Frone et al. (1997)** reported that family related support (spouse & other family members) may reduce family to work conflict by reducing family distress and parental overload.

31. **Aryee et al. (1999)** examined the relationship between role stressors, inter role conflict, and well-being and the moderating influences of spouse support and coping behaviours among a sample of Hong Kong Chinese employed parents in dual-earner families and found that role stressors, work overload and
parental overload and spouse support set significantly explained the variance in both work family conflict (WFC) and family work conflict (FWC). Spouse support was found to be a negative predictor of WFC while parental overload was a positive predictor.

32. *Frye and Breaugh (2004)* found that having child care responsibility was predictive of family-work conflict and showed a positive relation to such conflict. From the studies reported above, it can be concluded that higher the parental demands higher is the work family conflict and higher the spouse support, lower is the work family conflict.

4.4 WORK RELATED VARIABLES FOR WORK LIFE BALANCE

33. *Greenhaus et al. (1989)* examined different types of work domain pressures as sources of work family conflict among two career couples. The results showed that work role stressors accounted for a significant portion of the variance in time based and strain based conflict for both men and women. The task characteristics were found to be associated with work family conflict and were somewhat stronger for women than for men. Work schedule characteristics were found to be generally unrelated to work family conflict. Among women, it did not explain significant portion of variance in either time based or strain based conflict and among men, it was related to only strain based conflict.
34. **Hammer et al. (1997)** reported that higher levels of perceived work schedule flexibility were related to lower levels of work family conflict.

35. **Loscocco (1997)** examined how people with considerable control over their work lives construct and experience work family connections. The results showed that self-employed people had considerable control over their work lives and this helped them to curb the intrusion of work into family life. However, women emphasized the importance of flexibility more than men.

36. **Hill et al. (2001)** examined the perceived influence of job flexibility in the timing and location of work on work family balance. The results indicated that paid work hours were strongly and negatively correlated and perceived flexibility was strongly and positively correlated with work family balance. It was also found that employees with perceived flexibility in timing and location of work could work longer hours before work family balance became difficult.

37. **Frye and Breaugh (2004)** found that the number of work hours, the use of family-friendly policies, and reporting to a supportive supervisor were predictive of work-family conflict. Family friendly policies and reporting to a supportive supervisor were found to have negative correlation with work-family conflict whereas hours worked was positively related. With regard to family-work conflict, reporting to a supportive supervisor was predictive of such conflict and was negatively related to such conflict.

38. **Crosbie and Moore (2004)** studied working from home and work life balance. The study concluded that home working was not panacea for modern
working life. Personality skills and aspirations should be given careful consideration by those who are thinking of working from home. Those who have tendency to work long hours outside the home might find that home life is even further marginalized by work life.

39. **Voydanoff (2004)** used a differential salience-comparable salience approach to examine the effects of work demands and resources on work to family conflict and facilitation. The results showed that time based demands are positively associated with work to family conflict. It was found that enabling resources and psychological rewards were positively related to work to family facilitation. These resources showed negative relation with work to family conflict. Time based family support policies and work family organizational support showed negative association with conflict, and positive relationship to work to family facilitation.

40. **Butler et al. (2005)** studied about parents employed in non-professional occupations for their job characteristics and work family conflict. Results showed that there was significant daily variation in work to family conflict (WFC) and work to family facilitation (WFF) that was predictable from daily job characteristics. Work schedule flexibility has been found to be negatively associated / related with work life balance / work family conflict. Higher the flexibility lower is the work family conflict. In other words, higher the work schedule flexibility, higher is the work life balance.
41. **Drew and Murtagh (2005)** examined the experience and attitude of female and male senior managers towards work life balance. The study was undertaken in a major Irish organization, for which work life balance was a strategic corporate objective. The finding of the study was that greatest obstacle to achieving work life balance was the “long hours” culture, in which availing oneself of flexible options is incompatible with holding a senior management post. Hence men sought work life balance to resolve, commuting/work time issues. Both men and women in senior management recognized that their own careers would be seriously jeopardized by taking up work life balance arrangements.

42. **Fub et al. (2008)** investigated predictors for work interfering with family (WIF) which are located within the psychological work environment or work organization of hospital physicians. The results indicated that the positive predictors of WIF conflicts were the scales of quantitative demands, number of days gone to work despite own illness and the frequency of postponing planned vacations and due to changes on the duty roster. The results also indicated that high values of WIF were significantly correlated with high value of intention to leave, personal burnout and behavioural and cognitive stress symptoms. Negative relationships were found between WIF and life satisfaction, general health status and work ability.

43. **Macky and Boxall (2008)** reported that employees working longer hours are slightly more likely to report a greater imbalance in the work life relationship. The five high involvement variables were found to be negatively correlated to work life imbalance. It was also found that increasing the availability of work
life balance policies for employees did not improve the relationships when pressure to work longer hours was higher, and employees felt greater work life imbalance.

44. **Mayo et al. (2008)** focused on the effects of three forms of managerial work demands – time spent at work, travel and number of subordinates, on the involvement of both partners in household labour activities. They also tested the interactive effects of two organizational practices, time flexibility and task autonomy, with three forms of managerial workloads, to predict the division of household labour between spouses. It was found that as time demands increased, managers with low time flexibility contributed less than their spouses in household work than managers with high time flexibility. Further it was also found that as travel demands increased, managers with low task autonomy were less engaged than their spouses in household work than managers with high task autonomy. Thus, it appeared that high control over time and tasks can help achieve a good work family balance among managers. A number of studies reported negative correlation between the work hours and work family conflict.

45. **Schieman and Glavin (2008)** examined the effects of schedule control and job autonomy on two forms of work home role blurring: receiving work related contact outside of normal work hours and bringing work home. It was found that schedule control and job autonomy were associated more positively with work home role blurring in the form receiving work related contact, and these patterns were much stronger for men. Schedule control was associated positively with bringing work home among men only, whereas job autonomy
was associated positively with bringing work home, similarly for men and women. It was also found that schedule control and job autonomy are negatively associated with work to home conflict. Further, bringing work home was associated positively with work to home conflict among individuals who reported more schedule control.

46. Alam et al. (2009) explored the correlation between working hours and work family imbalance, for three focused groups, namely, teaching professionals and two groups from corporate houses. It was found that respondents working for 5-7 hours a day did not consider working hours as a factor to affect work and family balance. On the other hand, women managers in corporate sector, having long working hours agreed that time was a crucial factor for work family imbalance. The study approved the association between working hour and work family conflict. 99 per cent of women managers reported to have work family conflict because of 9 -10 hours work every day.

47. Steiber (2009) found that time-based work demands were strongly associated with the experience of work-family conflict both among women and men. Long working hours, working non-day schedules or at weekends and having to work overtime at short notice showed an aggravating effect on conflict, with long and unsocial hours being more strongly related to time based conflict than to strain based conflict. Strain-based work demands were also found to be instrumental in the creation of conflict. Further, a higher level of job skill was found to increase women’s and men’s feeling that their job prevented them from giving more time to their partners and families, and was also related to
strain based conflict, i.e., the feeling that one is often too tired after work to engage in non-work activities.

4.5 OUTCOMES OF WORK LIFE BALANCE

48. Adams et al. (1996) found that relationships between work and family can have an important effect on job and life satisfaction and the level of involvement the worker assigns to work and family roles is associated with this relationship.

49. Duxbury and Higgins (2001) examined the effects of three types of work family conflict - role overload, work to family interference and family to work interference on the organizational performance and quality of life of employees. It was found that work-life conflict had a negative impact on organizational performance and on employees. Employees who are overloaded or whose work interfered with family and vice-versa were highly stressed, experienced burnout, expressed dissatisfaction with life, and were in poor mental/physical health.

50. Ezzedeen and Swiercz (2002) found that cognitive intrusion of work results in lower job satisfaction, less happiness, a greater incidence of work/life conflict, and more frequent burnout. It was also found that the experience of intrusion transcends demographics and personality, and is rooted instead in the design of the job and the organization culture of the employer.
51. **Martins et al. (2002)** examined the moderating effects of individual differences like gender, age, marital status, parental status and support from coworkers, community, financial resources on the negative relationship between work-family conflict and career satisfaction. The results indicated that career satisfaction of women and that of elder individuals of both genders was most adversely affected by work-family conflict. Whereas women’s career satisfaction was negatively affected by work-family conflict throughout their lives, men showed such adverse effects only later in career. It was also found that relationship was stronger for individuals who were in the minority gender in their work groups, but it was weaker for those who had strong community ties.

52. **Fisher-McAuley et al. (2003)** examined the relation between employees’ beliefs about having a balance between work and personal life, and the feeling of job stress, job satisfaction, and reasons why one might quit his/her job. The data was collected from two independent, heterogeneous samples of employees. The findings indicated that having a lack of work/life balance was an occupational stressor that leads to strains, including feeling of overall work strain, job dissatisfaction, non work related reasons for leaving and turnover intentions.

53. **Grzywacz and Bass (2003)** studied the effects of work family conflict and work family facilitation on mental health among working adults. The higher levels of both work to family and family to work conflict were found to be associated with poor mental health. The results also showed the repeated protective effects of work family facilitation, particularly family to work
facilitation. The work family facilitation contributed to “work family fit” by eliminating or offsetting the negative potential of work family conflict. Hence it was suggested that work family fit is more than the absence of conflict.

54. Sandhu and Mehta (2006) in their study found that gender role attitude and spillover between work and family roles was the most important factor that affected the career of these women. It was also found that nature of organization and education had a significant impact on work family conflict.

55. Bagger et al. (2008) examined the interactive effects of family identity salience, family interference with work and gender on two outcome variables—job satisfaction and job distress. The results suggested that family identity salience acts as a buffer between family interference with work and job satisfaction and job distress. It was found that increase in family interference with work was related to more job distress and less job satisfaction, but only for those who were low on family identity salience. It was further seen that the buffering effect of family identity salience on the negative aspect of family interference with work on job satisfaction was stronger for women than for men.

56. Haar and Bardoel (2008) found work family positive spillover was negatively associated with psychological distress and turnover intentions, while family work positive spillover was negatively associated with psychological distress, and positively associated with family satisfaction. The domain specific positive spillover was found to have the strongest effects on outcomes associated with the same domain.
57. **Pal and Saksvik (2008)** found that predictors of job stress were different for doctors and nurses in India and Norway. In the case of Norwegian nurses, work family conflict was one of the predictors of job stress while in the case of Indian nurses high family work conflict was one of the predictors of job stress.

58. **Bhargava and Baral (2009)** examined the antecedents and outcomes of work family enrichment. It was found that core self evaluations, family support and supervisor support were positively related to family-to-work enrichment whereas job characteristics like autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance were positively related to work-to-family enrichment. Further, both family-to-work enrichment and work-to-family enrichment were found to be positively related to job satisfaction, affective commitment and organizational citizenship behaviour. However, only family-to-work enrichment was found to be related to family satisfaction.

### 4.6 STRATEGIES FOR ACHIEVING WORK LIFE BALANCE

59. **Singh (2001)** in his qualitative study used ‘work/life border theory’ to explore how British and Swedish managers dealt with competing commitments. Findings suggested that four kinds of strategies were used by the managers for maintaining work life balance. These included accommodating family terms, negotiating with the family, accommodating the organization and staggering commitments. The study showed that managers enact their work life balance strategies with both their employer and their family, particularly their partner,
who also enacts boundaries between home and employer, so there are four parties to the negotiation or accommodation of needs. Some managers use their own views as reference points for dealing with subordinates’ need for work life balance.

60. **Powell and Greenhaus (2006)** examined how individuals manage incidents of work-family conflict that pose difficult choices for them. The study examines two interrelated processes: a) the actions that individuals take to avoid conflict in such incidents; and b) the choices they make when the conflict cannot be avoided. They may try to mobilize tangible support from a role sender in either the work or family domain to reschedule one of the activities. It was found that individuals use multiple cues in deciding how to respond to situations of potential work family conflict. Organizations adopt strategies such as ‘separation’ and ‘integration’ as responses to non-work.

61. **Kirchmeyer (1995)** identified three types of organizational responses to non-work - separation, integration, and respect. “Separation” was a response where employers were concerned mainly with workers’ fulfilling their work responsibilities, and viewed workers’ non-work lives as solely the concern of workers themselves. In the case of “integration” response, employers treated work and non work as related worlds that affected one another, and acted to reduce the gap between them in an effort to help workers manage their multiple domains. “Respect” referred to the employer acknowledging and valuing the non work participation of workers, and committing to support it.
62. Maxwell and McDougall (2004), studied and identified different work life arrangements. These included: parental leave, paternity leave, maternity leave, adoption leave, sabbaticals, flexible work timings, job sharing, job splitting, flexi time, compressed working week, annual hours system, banking of hours, telecommuting, supervisory training in work family sensitivity, onsite day care, emergency child care, elder care arrangements.

63. Kossek et al. (1994) forwarded three reasons for provision of employer sponsored child care. It was argued that child care problems interfering with work efficiency could be eliminated by provision of child care programmes and it enhanced management’s control over the workforce. Another reason was to follow the actions of other successful organizations and give a signal that the organization is progressive and cares about employees’ needs. Yet another reason was the coercive pressures from the government or society.

64. Osterman (1995) explained variation across firms in the implementation of work/family programmes by examining how these are related to the employment strategy of organizations. The data was collected from an original survey of American private sector establishments and its labour force. The survey collected data on the presence or absence of a variety of work/family programmes, as well as on a broad range of characteristics of the establishment and its labour force. It was found that organizations whose core employees were professional or technical workers were significantly more likely to provide work/family programmes than the organizations with service
workers or blue collar employees. The results also showed that the firms that wanted to implement high performance or high commitment work systems were more likely to adopt work/family programmes.

65. **Milliken et al. (1998)** explored why organizations vary in the degree to which they adopt policies designed to help employees manage their work and family lives. The data was collected from 175 human resources executives of companies throughout United States. It was found that organizations were more likely to offer benefits when work and family issues were salient to senior human resource staff and were thought to impact the organizations performance. It was further found that the percentage of women in an organization’s workforce did not explain the variance in work-family responsiveness. Again, the presence of women or people having experience with elder care or dual career families, in the top management was also found not to have any significant effects on the company’s work-family responsiveness.

66. **Galinsky and Johnson (1998)** found that having a larger proportion of top executive positions filled by women was associated with greater provision of work life balance policies. They also found that companies with a larger proportion of women in them workforce were more likely to invest in policies such as job sharing, part time work, flexible time off policies and child care. It was further observed that companies employing greater proportion of hourly workers, people who are generally concentrated in lower paid jobs, were least likely to offer work life balance policies.
67. **Dex and Scheibl (2001)** in a study of ten small and medium-sized enterprises and four large organizations reported the reasons/motives for introducing flexible working arrangements. These included the need to keep abreast of legislation, business benefits and considerations of employee well being. It was found that the motives varied by the type of arrangements as well as by the size of the organization and the way employee relations were structured.

68. **Maxwell and McDougall (2004)** conducted seven case studies (five in public sector and two in voluntary sector) and found that parental leave, study leave, flexitime, part time working, job sharing, emergency leave, and extra maternity leave were the most frequently accruing forms of flexibility offered by these case study organizations. Further, two rationales for introducing work life balance were found to be consistent across all the case studies. First was to improve the recruitment of the best people and second was to improve retention of staff. A number of studies have reported the benefits that accrue to the organizations that provide work life programmes/policies.

69. **Thomas and Ganster (1995)** examined the direct and indirect effects of organizational policies and practices that are supportive of family responsibilities on work family conflict and psychological, physical and behavioural measures of strain. Data was collected from 398 health care professionals who represented all acute health care facilities. The results of the study suggested that family supportive work policies and practices produce significant benefits in terms of employees attitudes and well being. Supportive practices, flexible scheduling and supportive supervisors, were found to have direct positive effects on employee perception of control over work and family
matters. Control perceptions in turn, were associated with lower levels of work family conflict, job dissatisfaction, depression, somatic complaints and blood cholesterol.

70. Konrad and Mangel (2000) examined the adoption of work life programmes and the impact of work life programmes on firm productivity. The findings suggested that the productivity impact of work life programmes depended on the type of workers employed by the firm. It was found that firms employing higher percentage of professionals and higher percentage of women showed a stronger relationship between the provision of extensive work life benefits and productivity.

71. Perry-Smith and Blum (2000) undertook a study of 527 US firms and found that organizations with more extensive work family policies had higher firm-level performance. It was further found that the relationship between work family policies and firm performance was stronger for older firms and for the firms employing greater proportions of women. Maxwell and McDougall (2004) found that work life balance initiatives helped in the management of stress and also improved performance. The results indicated that individuals who accessed work life balance policies were more motivated at work, more loyal to the organization and repaid through increased commitment and improved performance.

72. Forsyth and Polzer-Debruyne (2007) conducted a survey of 1187 employees of organizations in New Zealand and found that employees perception that employers were providing support for work life balance, improved their job
satisfaction and reduced work pressures. This, in turn, reduced their intentions to leave. The study provided evidence that initiatives which staff interprets as supporting their work life balance can have consequences for the organization, staff turnover is likely to reduce as a consequence of reduced intention to leave.

73. Dyne et al. (2009) developed a cross level model specifying facilitating work practices that enhance group processes and effectiveness. The model proposed that work practices that support work life flexibility: collaborative time management, redefinition of work contributions, proactive availability and strategic self presentation enhance overall awareness of others need in the group and overall caring about group goals, reduce process losses and enhance group level organization citizenship behaviour (OCB).

4.7 RESEARCH GAP

Most of the studies were based on international context. Only few studies were based on Indian context. None of the study was focused on Chennai city. So there is a lot of research space for Work Life Balance in Indian context. The IT sector has also not been studied predominantly. The researcher has taken the present study accordingly in an effort to fill up this gap.
REFERENCES


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74. Dyne, L.V., Kossek, E., & Lobel, S. (2009) “Less needs to be there: cross level effects of work practices that support work life flexibility and enhance group processes and group level OCB.” Human Relations, 60(8), 1123-1154.