INTRODUCTION

Work-life balance has emerged as a major theme during the last two decades, which witnessed a substantial intensification of work caused by economic uncertainty, organisational restructuring, and increase in business competition (Green, 2001; Millward et al., 2000). To respond to the new conditions, organisations demand higher performance and commitment from their employees, which is translated into expectations for working longer and for prioritising work over personal life (Perrons, 2003, Simpson, 2000; White et al., 2007). Indeed, recent survey data suggest that the pressure on employees to work longer hours under inflexible work schedules is ever increasing (Department of Trade and Industry, 2002c). The literature suggests that lack of balance between work and non-work activities is related to reduced psychological and physical well-being (Sparks et al., 1997; Frone et al., 1997; Thomas and Ganster, 1995; Martens et al., 1999; Felstead et al., 2002). Recent empirical research (Hyman et al., 2003) indicated that intrusion of work demands into personal life (e.g. working during the week-end) was related with reports of heightened stress and emotional exhaustion for employees. Furthermore, employees perceived that intrusion of work obligations into their personal lives negatively affected their health (Hyman et al., 2003).

In India, the demographic changes are seen in the forms of increasing number of women in the workforce (Census of India, 2001) and increasing number of nuclear as well as dual earner families (Bharat, 2003; Rajadhyaksha and Bhatnagar, 2000; Komarraju, 1997; Sekaran, 1992), which have put considerable pressure on both men and women to manage their work and family obligations. Environmental changes are evidenced in increasing number of firms in the services sector (NASSCOM Newsline, 2008a), which require employees to work longer, frequently interact with customers and work across varied time zones. As a result, the distinct boundary between work and family has diluted. According to Hewitt's Attrition and Retention Asia Pacific Study (Hewitt Associates, 2006), the need for a balance between work and personal life has become an integral element of employee expectations from employers. Indeed, it has been described as "the topic of the 21st century for families, employers and government."
According to William Shakespeare, "all the world's a stage." Organizational behaviour theory acknowledges that on life's stage, we play many social roles in a variety of contexts. For instance, all people aim to balance the demands and needs associated with their concurrent work and non-work roles.

Work-life balance (WLB) refers to the capacity of members of the labour market to participate in various domains and manage the multi-faceted demands associated with their social roles. Problems arise when "worlds collide"—that is, when there are conflicts associated with fulfilling one's concurrent roles. Social psychologists contend that since an individual has a fixed amount of psychological and physiological resources available to fulfil his/her role obligations, the involvement in multiple roles may exhaust these resources in many people. In order to adapt, a person makes trade-offs, such as devoting greater amounts of time to one role over another, and/or achieving life satisfaction in one domain at the expense of another. Moreover, since work is "the cornerstone around which other activities must be made to fit," the time, physiological and psychological resources required to fulfil one's work roles usually depletes the resources available for other roles and activities. For instance, according to Lewis Coser (1984), many people work for "greedy institutions" that "seek exclusive and undivided loyalty and they attempt to reduce the claims of competing roles and status positions on those they wish to encompass in their boundaries." The result is that many people suffer from a state of WLC, which according to Duxbury and Higgins occurs when "the cumulative demands of work and non-work roles are incompatible in some respect, so that participation in one role is made more difficult by participation in the other role."

The “scarcity hypothesis” (Goode, 1960) suggests that the individual has a fixed sum of energy to expend on her various roles; therefore, the time and energy expended in one domain reduces the amount of energy and time that can be used in another domain. Role theory has provided a useful framework to understand how men and women attempt to balance multiple roles. Within role theory, the scarcity hypothesis (Chapman et al., 1994; Marks, 1977) proposes that the amount of time and energy individuals have is constant. Thus, an increase in roles results in the increased likelihood of role conflict, overload and negative repercussions. Likewise, a scarcity of energy creates conflict that produces stress and anxiety.
There is evidence that multiple roles lead to perceptions of conflict and overload and have negative repercussions for the well-being and performance of employees (Alpert, and Culbertson, 1987; Burke, 1988; Frone, Russell, and Barnes 1986; Frone, Russell, and Cooper, 1992a; Googins, 1991).

**Work:** Work is defined as paid employment and it also includes the extra unpaid hours, the time taken to travel to and from work and the more intractable problems of academics, hoteliers, farmers and others who work from home and where the border between home and work is very porous.

**Life:** In simple terms, “work” is normally conceived of in this context as including paid employment while “life” includes activities outside work. Non-work notably encompasses the family, the community, friendships, personal development and life-long training projects, political, associative, spirituality and sports activities, and leisure (Thevenet, 2001).

Life outside work also includes free time. This is normally thought of as time when there are no commitments determined by others. It can be distinguished from leisure, which is normally considered to be the pursuit of specific activity. There is an extensive literature on the nature and consequences of leisure activity and the implications for mental health and well-being of filling free time with leisure activities rather than passive behaviour (Haworth, 1997).

**Balance:** In English language “balance” is a complex word with a variety of meanings. As a noun, balance is a set of scales, a weighing apparatus; it is also the regulating gear in clocks. If we use the scales, then balance occurs when there is “an equal distribution of weight or amount” (Oxford English Dictionary); but this presents problems for work-life balance since both sides may be very heavy or very light. And, the type of work-life balance sought by many may not imply equal weight on both sides. Balance also has a physical and psychological meaning as “stability of body or mind”, so that suicide is sometimes officially recorded as taking one’s life “while the balance of the mind was disturbed”. Thus the balance has both an objective and subjective meaning and measurement, that it will vary according to circumstances and that it will also vary across individuals.
In English language, balance is also a verb; as the Oxford English Dictionary put it, “to off-set or compare; to equal or neutralise, to bring or come into equilibrium”. The use of the verb implies human agency; we can take steps to manage balance. In all this there is an implicit normative assumption that balance is good.

Clark (2000) defines balance as “satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home with a minimum of role conflict”. Clarke, Koch and Hill (2004) and Comer and Stites-Doe (2006) defined balance as harmony or equilibrium between work and life domains.

Determinants: In English language “determinant” As a noun determinant is a factor which decisively affects the nature of outcome of something. As an adjective determinant is serving to determine or decide something. Synonyms of determinant are deciding, determinative, determining.

What is Work-Life Balance?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marks and MacDermid, 1996</th>
<th>Work-life balance reflects how an individual orients him/herself across various roles in life.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kirchmeyer, 2000</td>
<td>An even distribution of time, energy, and commitment across all life domains in order to attain satisfaction with these domains.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Clark, 2000</td>
<td>Defines work-life balance as “satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home with a minimum of role conflict”.</td>
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<td>Fisher, 2001</td>
<td>Developed a broader term called work-life balance, in which “imbalance” refers to an occupational stressor based on lost resources of time (e.g. amount of time spent at work relative to time spent in non-work activities), energy (e.g. not having energy available to pursue non-work activities after a full-day's work), and feelings toward work and personal life.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Author(s)</td>
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<td>Felstead et al., 2002</td>
<td>Work-life balance is the ability of individuals, regardless of age or gender, to find a rhythm that will allow them to combine their work with their non-work responsibilities, activities and aspirations.</td>
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<td>Crooker et al., 2002</td>
<td>Work and life further to include personal resources such as family, community, employer, profession, geography, information, economics, personality or values.</td>
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<td>Greenhaus et al., 2003</td>
<td>Defined work-family balance as, “the extent to which an individual is equally engaged in – and equally satisfied with – his or her work role and family role”.</td>
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<td>De Cieri et al., 2005 and Voydanoff, 2002</td>
<td>Work-family balance refers to having enough time to fulfil activities in both work and family contexts.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gurvis and Patterson, 2005</td>
<td>Work-life balance involves having sufficient time for all experiences: career, family, friends, community, and leisure pursuits.</td>
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<td>Moore, 2007</td>
<td>Defines a “good” work-life balance as a situation in which workers feel that they are capable of balancing their work and non-work commitments, and, for the most part, do so.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kalliath and Brough, 2008</td>
<td>WLB is the individual perception that work and non-work activities are compatible and promote growth in accordance with an individual’s current life priorities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Grzywacz et al., 2008</td>
<td>WLB is the core issue of human resource development.</td>
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Table: 1.1 Definitions of work-life balance

In work-life balance, balance is defined as harmony or equilibrium between work and life domains (Clarke, Koch and Hill 2004; Comer and Stites-Doe 2006). Imbalance is defined as a negative outcome of combining paid work and non-work. Imbalance can be interchangeably be used with conflict or interference.

Work-family conflict consists of two separate, though related, concepts: work conflict or interference with family, and family conflict or interference with work (Greenhaus and Powell 2006).

Work-life conflict has been an integral part of the overall work-life balance literature and several meta-analyses have explored the antecedents and consequences of this construct (Kossek and Ozeki 1999; Byron 2005).

Why Study Work-Life Balance Now?

- **Globalization and increased competition**: Since the 1980’s work has changed through globalization, and increasing competitive pressure on organizations to cut cost and find greater profit margins (Rapoport and Bailyn, 1996). Institutions all over the world are competing with each other to become known as the best employer in their industry or community. This rat race has put undue pressure over employees. Competitive and customer pressures have forced Institutions to rationalise and restructure, and as a consequence less people have to do
more work (Poelmans, Kalliath and Brough 2008). Moreover, the introduction of new technology is hastening the pace of change (Currie, 2001) and demanding the immediacy of response and dual earning families is now commonplace and viewed as an average family (Cox et al., 2005), creating problems of balance between work, family and life satisfaction (Cooper and Robertson, 2001; Guest, 2002).

- **Deterioration of boundaries between work and home**: Voice mail, e-mail, cell phones, laptops, and palm pilots have meant that the office is omnipresent. You can’t just get away. You are approachable when you are attending your kid’s parent-teacher meeting, or when you are in the market, or have taken your old parents for medical check-up, or out of town for a family outing, etc. You are always approachable. According to Cooper (1998) employees are taking work outside office, which has blurred the boundary between work and family. Although technology may facilitate coordination and emergency response efforts, buzzing cell all day on Sunday blurs the separation between one’s work life and personal life. Research indicates that having a computer at home significantly increases the total number of hours worked and the amount of overtime put in at home (Duxbury, Higgins and Mills, 1992). As a result, many faculties are taking work outside Institute, which has blurred the boundary between work and family (Cooper, 1998).

- **Increased work pressure**: Work pressure is so much that you hardly get time to have your lunch. You always have deadlines to finish the work and the moment you finish one assignment another assignment is waiting for you. Even employees find difficult to sleep and their concern for their work has an adverse effect on their health. Employees are working under such pressure all through the day that even when they go back home they don’t feel like talking to anybody. According to World Health Organization, mental health problems due to work pressure are expected to become the second most common cause of disability and death by 2020 (Harnois and Gabriel, 2000).
• **Inadequate employer support**: Employers feel that WLB is employees issue and employers have nothing to do with it. Manager’s perception is that if the employee is asking for part-time option or wants to take leave office early for looking after his old parents or taking care of his or her child as their spouse also works out then that means the employee is not dedicated to his or her job and is not committed to the organization. Employers very smartly tell employees “it’s ok you if want to work part time but then you will have to look for some other organization”. The ‘ideal’ worker is one who devotes his or her entire life to a full-time job and does not allow family obligations to interfere with production. A number of academics question how many employers are actually doing to support the achievement of work-family balance (Burchell et al.,2002; De Bruin, and Dupuis, 2004; Fleetwood, 2007; Greenblatt, 2002; Watson et al., 2003). According to Bishop et al., (2000, p. 1116) “when an individual team members knows that other member know that other members of the team value his or her contribution to the team and care about his or her well-being, then that member is inclined to reciprocate by putting forth greater effort on behalf of the team”.

• **Lack of formalized policies**: Employees need WLB practices but employers do not give any priority to it. In India very few institutions/organizations have WLB practices that too are unwritten and are under the direct control of line managers, who are mostly untrained and lack awareness and understanding of work-life balance issues. Though a large number of women in India have entered the labour market but we still lack behind in providing them with WLB practices. Even to some employees management allows to come late or take off without prior permission, depending upon the relationship between that employee and his immediate boss. So those employees who enjoy good relation with their boss still have scope for a better work and life but then others are in big trouble. There are large numbers of institutions who have more number of women employees working but still they have no work-life balance practices. So is it an indirect way of conveying women force that we don’t offer work-life balance practices as we don’t want women in our labour market? There is evidence suggesting that once women return to work after the birth of a child, she may not access leave arrangements for childcare (De
Cieri et al., 2005; Pocock, 2005; Probert et al., 1999). Previous researches suggests that employees who perceive that their organization cares and support for balancing work and family report significantly improved outcomes, including: higher levels of organizational commitment (Scandura and Lankau, 1997); increased productivity (Cappelli, 2000); reduced burnout (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985); reduced intentions to leave (Simon et al., 2004) and higher job satisfaction.

- **Restricted employees voice**: Employees always want to have good work-life balance practices but management doesn’t want to invest in WLB practices. They perceive it as a huge cost rather than investment for their business and for the good of employees. Even if the employees talk to the management about WLB practices then management perceives such employees not loyal to the institution and their commitment to work is questioned. Moreover, family-friendly policies are seen as female issues and are gendered stereotypes. Increasing work-family conflict is related to higher stress (Kelloway et al., 1998; Parasurman and Simmers, 2001) increase in depression and anxiety (Frone, 2000; Grzywacz and Bass, 2003) physical health complaints and hypertension (Frone, Russell and Cooper, 1997), and fatty food consumption (Allen and Armstrong, 2006). Work-family conflict also increases the turnover intentions (Greenhaus et al., 2001; Kelloway and Julian 1999). Some organizations claim that there is no demand among their staff for WLB (Dex and Scheibl, 2001).

- **Hike in living expense**: Employees needs not only a good salary package but also good organizational culture with better work-life balance practices. Today employees are earning much more than what their ancestors earned but not only the earning capacity of employees has increased but also the living expenses are hiked and meet to the expenses employees have to work longer hours, take up extra assignments to earn more and pay their bills. Competition with friends and neighbours- what they are using, which car they have, which schools their kids go, etc. Everyone is in the race of “showing off”. And this unsustainable addiction to consumption is termed as “affluenza” by Hamilton and Denniss (2005). Caught in the cycle of excessive consumption, indebtedness and overwork. According to Cowlin (2005) workers who work
long hours do so to get quicker promotion, Isles states that people work long hours to make more money.

- **Downsizing:** Over the past decade, companies have downsized to be more competitive and to increase shareholder value. Downsizing has resulted in overworked staff with unreasonable workloads and low levels of job security. Just because a company downsizes does not mean that the work has gone away: it is there to be spread around the remaining employees, and they often do not say no to more work because they are insecure about their jobs. The result: less personal and family time, and more conflict between the domains.

- **Changing demographics:** Thirty years ago, men worked while women tended the home and children. Now both parents work, and there is less time for home chores and childcare responsibilities. Women especially are burdened with greater challenges at home. While women have now assumed greater responsibility for the financial health of the family, men do not appear to have assumed a concomitant shared responsibility for the care of children. This is important, because research shows that responsibility for a role has a stronger correlation with stress than has time spent in role-related activities.

- **Lack of supervisory support:** The dearth of supportive managers is a fourth root cause of our problems. Our research has found that the presence of a supportive manager is critical to employees' perceptions of their ability to balance work and family demands.

- **Dual working couples:** In India, the demographic changes are seen in the form of increasing number of women in the workforce (Census of India, 2010) and increasing number of nuclear as well as dual earner families (Bharat, 2003; Rajadhyaksh and Bhatnagar, 2000; Komaraju, 1997; Sekaran, 1992), which put pressure on both men and women to manage their work and family obligations. There is a 40% increase in women in paid labour force (Dutta and Singh, 2003; Jain, 1992; Nath, 2000). This movement from the private to the public domain and their increased presence in the world’s workforces have challenged traditional notions of the locus of responsibility for childcare and for the care of members of families and communities (Calas and Smircich, 1989; Chhachhi and Pittin, 1996). As women—the traditional providers of care—spend more time outside the home, and are less available to provide
time for caring, the question of who can or should contribute to the provision of care for children and other individuals in need. International research shows that the structure of work is primarily suited to the needs of men rather than women (Thesing, 1998; International Labour Organization, 1998).

- **Persistence second shift:** Though there is an increase in the number of working women in India, but they have to perform the household activities even after having a tiring day at office. Studies on domestic work and caregiving consistently show that women spend more time on such activities than men (Moen and Wethington, 1992; Bullock, 1994; Fagenson, 1993). Regardless of the number of working hours and the place where work is carried out through either home, labour market or both, women are left with less time for sleep or rest. As a result, many health problems may occur such as malnutrition, chronic fatigue, stress and premature aging (Smyke, 1991; Marshal, 1995). Complexity and pressures begin in the home and extended family environment (Blegen et al., 1988); as the number of people in a household increases, the number of schedules that must be coordinated also increases. The number and ages of children affect the attention necessary and activities preferred (Scellenbarger, 1998b; Voydanoff, 1998). Employees tend to undertake domestic responsibilities irrespective of their employment status; the so-called second shift remains stubbornly intact. Previous research suggests that the movement of women into the workforce, longer working hours and work intensification have resulted in less time for family, recreation and community (Pocock, 2003, 2005). Better work-life balance might be attained not with flexible working for women but persuading men to finally shoulder equitable domestic responsibilities. Pocock’s (2006, p. 143) research also revealed that 40 percent of young Australian males to be “open minimisers”, who plan for their future wives to do all the housework and less than two-thirds of young females expect to share this housework equitably. “Few people would deny that the unequal division of labour in the home continues to be a major obstacle to equal achievement outside the home” (Young, 2004, p. 15).

- **Childcare responsibility:** Childcare responsibility is usually measured by number of children in a family. According to Theory of Resource
Conservation, the more children a family has, the less time and energy will be involved into work. Besides the number of children, age of children is another factor that needs to be focused on. The younger a child is, the more he or she is dependent on parents. Pre-school children need their parents to pay much more time and efforts. Infants and pre-school children have the highest requirements of time and energy of their parents (Bedeian et al, 1988). Age of children has significant forecasting effect on WFC, more on mother's WFC, as compared to father's. So a mother with children in the age group of 0-12 has highest WIF and FIW. And as the children grow the WFC reduces considerably. However, in recent years, more and more studies demonstrate that WFC interfere not only females' but also males' (Eagle et al, 1997). Studies have demonstrated that husbands of employed women engaged more in family roles than husbands of non-employed women (Barnett and Baruch, 1987; Pleck and Marshal 1985).

- **Changes in family patterns:** In India extended families are disappearing now (Patel, 2005). Families prefer small nuclear families where both the spouses go for paid work and also there is been rise in divorce rate in India and so the increase in number of single parent household (Amato et al., 2003). Although the number of women in the labour market has increased but there is little change in the patterns of household activities, i.e. still household chores are seen as the responsibility of women (Singh, 2004).

- **Longer hours worked:** Pocock et al., (2007) in his recent book “Work, Life and Time: The Australian Work and Life Index” argued that “longer hours worked are consistently associated with worse work-life outcomes on all our work-life measures”. The culture of “hours” and “money” is more prominent these days the longer you work the better chance you have to earn more.

Work/life balance (WLB) is an important area of human resource management that is receiving increasing attention from government, researchers, management and employee representatives and the popular media (Nord et al, 2002; Pocock et al., 2001; Russell and Bowman, 2000).
Indian Higher Education:

India has a matchless history of education starting from “Takzhashila” which was an early center of learning dating back to at least the 5th Century BCE (Hartmut Scharfe, 2002). Takzhashila was a seat of Vedic learning, best known for the reason that of the association of the strategist “Chanakya” who later helped to consolidate the Emperor Chandragupta Maurya of ancient India. He was considered as a senior teacher there. It became a noted center of learning at least several centuries before Christ and continued to draw students from around the world of that era until the destruction of the city in the 5th Century. The well-known treatise “Arthashastra” (Sanskirt for “The Knowledge of Economics”) by Chanakya, is said to have been composed in Takzhashila itself. Generally a student entered Takzhashila at the age of sixteen. The curriculum included Vedas and the Eighteen Arts, comprising skills such as archery, hunting and elephant lore were trained in addition to its law school, medical school and school of military science (Radha Kumud Mookerji, 1989).

“Nalanda” was another most famous University of ancient India. It was one of the world’s first residential universities located in the State of Bihar and was a Buddhist center of learning from 427 to 1197, partially under the Pala Empire (Atlekar et. al, 1965 and Garten et al., 2006). It accommodated around 10,000 students and 2000 teachers at a time. Nalanda had eight separate compounds and ten temples along with many other meditation halls and class rooms. On the grounds there were lakes and parks. The Library was located in a nine-storied building where meticulous copies of texts were created. The topics taught at Nalanda University covered every field of learning and it fascinated pupils and scholars from Korea, Japan, China, Tibet, Indonesia, Persia and Turkey (Garten et al., 2006). On December 9, 2006, the New York Times comprehensive a plan in the works to spend US $ 1billion to revive Nalanda University near the ancient site. A consortium led by Singapore and including China, India, Japan and other nations will attempt to raise US $500 billion to build a new university and another US $5 billion to develop required infrastructure. Thus it is quite evident that India had a flourishing heritage in the field of Higher Education and has added a lot to the knowledge development. The modern scientific accountable management practices have appeared from the roots “Arthashatra” and such other notable contributions in the developments of law; science and medicines
were from these immense institutions. Thus India was ever been the reservoir of knowledge dissemination based on values in the good old days.

Since Independence India has made modest progress in improving access to higher education by diverse socio-economic groups. India currently has around 18,000 tertiary institutions and annual enrolments is about 10.5 million (CRISIL 2007). India hosts almost half of the world’s institutions of higher education, almost four times more than in the US and Europe and over seven times the number of institutions in China (Agarwal 2007). India’s competitive advantage in supplying knowledge services shall be short-lived, unless backed by a substantial improvement in the quality of higher education. Quality of education can be enhanced if the faculty are happy. India has a long tradition of private higher education dating back to the Gurukul system 700 to 500 years before Christ. Under this system, the select few, chiefly from the Brahmin (the learned) and the Kshatriya (the warrior), attained all-round knowledge by staying with the guru at his private dwelling or a monastery over a extended period of time.

At the gurukuls, the teachers gave knowledge of religion, scriptures, philosophy, metaphysics, ethics, logic, history, economics, politics, law, literature, grammar, medicine, astronomy, astrology, statecraft and warfare, etc. The idea was to endorse all round and holistic development of an individual – physical, mental and spiritual. The learners did not have to pay any fee but after the completion of their education-cum-training, the guru could ask for his/her dakshina, a return that could be anything, materialistic or non-materialistic, depending on the ability of the learners.

Imparting education was seen as a gracious deed and the community took care of the basic needs of both the gurus and the disciples.

At the time of independence in 1947, India inherited 20 universities and 496 colleges with 237,546 students (Basu, 2001) and the private sector and the households played a substantial role in supporting higher education. During 1950-1951, the share of Indian government in higher education was just 49.4 per cent. It rose to approximately 80 per cent in early 1980s (Tilak, 1999). The private sector comprised 57 per cent of the total higher education system by the 1980s and up to 75 per cent by 1990s (Patrinos, 2002). A private university could be established through a central or a state act by a
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sponsoring body, such as, a society registered under the Societies Registration Act of 1860, or a public trust or a company under section 25 of the Company's Act of 1956. Though there were many private colleges before independence, there was not a single private university per se. Even today only 350 universities have the power to accord degrees and the rest are affiliated to them (Agarwal, 2006).

**Why study Faculty Members in Higher Education Institution?**

Research suggest that faculty members generally perceive their jobs have become increasingly more challenging as a result of expanded student numbers, restructuring and mergers, increased commercialisation, superior external scrutiny and reductions in funding (Kinman and Jones, 2003, Kinman et al., 2006).

Heavy workload and time and resource constraints are often highlighted as the most stressful aspects of academic and academic-related work, but other more precise demands include: long working hours; too much administrative paperwork; lack of support; obtaining research funding and finding time for research; frequent interruptions; rapid change; poor leadership and management; and poor salary and lack of promotion prospects (Blix et al., 1994; Thorsen, 1996; Hogan et al., 2002; Fisher, 1994; Abouserie, 1996; Doyle and Hind, 1998; Kinman, 2001; Kinman and Jones, 2003; Tytherleigh et al., 2005).

The increased emphasis on teaching has been accompanied by growing expectations for research productivity. Both the form and the content of the tenure review system formerly most developed in the elite schools have been accepted by colleges and universities at all levels of higher education. Technological changes associated with the information economy have paradoxically amplified the time demands and intensity of faculty jobs. Ruth (1983) has explained how labour-saving technologies often result in a dramatic increase in the quality and quantity of a product that is produced but do not really save time. More time is spent reading and responding to e-mail messages than was previously spent in hard copy correspondence. Academics reported an increase in workloads from 1977 to 1997 and that the time allocated to research in comparison to teaching had amplified significantly. Nearly 30 years ago, Kerr (1975) noted that “Society hopes that [university] teachers will not neglect their teaching responsibilities but rewards them almost entirely for research and
publications. Consequently it is rational for university teachers to concentrate on research, even to the detriment of teaching and at the expense of their students’” (Kerr, 1975, 773). Burke and Greenglass (1999) and Voydanoff (1988) found that job stressors and work demands are the strongest predictors of work-life conflict. Role demands play an important role in aggravating work-life imbalance. Work role characteristics related with work demands refer primarily to pressures arising from excessive workload and time pressures.

A considerable amount of research showed that work demands such as number of hours worked, workload and shift work were positively and strongly associated with work-life conflict (Burke, 2002; Higgins et al., 2000; Higgins and Duxbury, 1992; Saltzstein et al., 2001; Voydanoff, 1988). Working long hours, evenings and weekends limits the time that employees are available for family activities. In the academic profession the “ideal worker” is one who, in essence, is “married” to his work leaving little time for bearing and raising children (Williams, 2000).

As the report of their work-life balance audit at Oxford Brookes University puts it: “There is a moral and ethical dimension to work-life balance as it seeks to promote a sustainable life-style for individuals as well as for society as a whole.

The university, and likewise other HE institutions, has an important role to play in promoting positive values as well as a healthy work ethic. A business case can be added to this, as work-life balance should be seen as an opportunity to improve organizational performance” (Manfredi and Holliday, 2004, p. 53). Women faculty also report that they are assigned heavier teaching loads (Park, 2000; Parson et al., 1991; Sandler and Hall, 1986; Xie and Shauman, 1998).

While the work of faculty has traditionally been described in broad terms of teaching, research and service, the literature is rather sketchy regarding details of that work. Yet, it appears that those day-to-day work-life experiences (e.g. administrative and technical support, opportunities for professional development) are the ones that contribute to faculty satisfaction, ultimately leading to decisions to stay or leave (Rosser, 2004).
Work-family culture in academia:

Thompson et al., (1999, p. 394) define work-family culture as the “shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees work and family lives and suggest three components of work-family culture as (1) organizational time demands and expectations that employees prioritize work above family reflected in the number of hours employees are expected to devote to the organization and the use of long hours as an indicator of commitment, (2) perceived negative career consequences associated with the use of benefits available and time devoted to the family and (3) perceived organizational support and sensitivity to employees family responsibilities”.

Shortage of qualified Faculty:

Williams says there is a “growing global shortage of doctor ally qualified faculty” (2004, 45) and “continued decline in the production of business PhD’s threatens the future of scholarship and research” (p. 46).

Fairbank et al., (2005) state that “most schools want to hire professors with PhD’s and a research orientation- and there simply aren’t enough of them to go around” (p.50). Pfeffer and Fong (2002) summarize by saying “shortage of business school faculty is severe and growing (2002, 90) while Wyer and Blood (2006, 102) have “grave concerns over the availability of qualified business faculty”.

Johnsrud (2002) found in their system wide study that the mixture of demographic variables, the perceptions of faculty work-life (i.e., professional workload and rewards, administrative relations and support, quality of benefits and services, support services, and standard of living) and three interrelated dimensions of morale (i.e., engagement of work, institutional regard, sense of well-being) subsequently explained faculty members’ intentions to leave their career, position, and institution. He suggests that the campus leaders who want to enhance the performance and retention of faculty members must identify and address the particular issues that matter to those employed on their campuses.
Johnsrud (2002) states that “most studies begin by describing the dimensions of work-life. It is not assumed that work-life can be captured in a single measure but rather an array of dimensions must be considered”.

Rosser, 2004 found that a combination of work-life perceptions of faculty member’s professional and institutional issues and satisfaction initiates individual’s behavioural intentions and the wish to leave for another position or career alternative.
Number of Vacant Positions of Professors, Associate Professors and Assistant Professors in India (2007-2008).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Posts</th>
<th>Total Sanctioned Strength</th>
<th>Total Filled</th>
<th>Total Vacant</th>
<th>% Vacancy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>2469</td>
<td>1367</td>
<td>1102</td>
<td>44.63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
<td>4506</td>
<td>2194</td>
<td>2312</td>
<td>51.31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Professor</td>
<td>9604</td>
<td>4503</td>
<td>5101</td>
<td>53.11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>16579</td>
<td>8064</td>
<td>8515</td>
<td>51.36%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 1.2 Faculty vacant positions.

The above table shows that the total sanctioned strength for professor's is 2469 and filled positions are 1367 while vacant positions are 1102; while for Associate Professor's total sanctioned strength is 4506 and filled positions are 2194 while vacant positions are 2312 and total sanctioned strength for Assistant Professor is 9604 and filled positions are 4503 while vacant positions are 5101.

So in total the sanctioned strength is 16579 out of which only 8064 positions are filled and remaining 8515 are vacant positions.
Shortage of PhD’s and Master’s Faculty in India (2007 – 2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>PhD Faculty Required</th>
<th>Existing PhD Faculty</th>
<th>Shortage of PhD faculty</th>
<th>Master Faculty Required</th>
<th>Existing Master Faculty</th>
<th>Shortage of Master’s Faculty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>07-08</td>
<td>58493</td>
<td>10807</td>
<td>47686</td>
<td>116986</td>
<td>78694</td>
<td>38292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08-09</td>
<td>67267</td>
<td>12428</td>
<td>54839</td>
<td>134534</td>
<td>90498</td>
<td>44036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>09-10</td>
<td>77357</td>
<td>14292</td>
<td>63065</td>
<td>154714</td>
<td>104072</td>
<td>50642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-11</td>
<td>88960</td>
<td>16436</td>
<td>72524</td>
<td>177921</td>
<td>119683</td>
<td>58238</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 1.3 Source: Lok Sabha Unstarred Question No. 4471, dated 08.05.2007.

The above table shows the shortage of PhD faculty and also Master’s faculty.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Universities</th>
<th>Professor</th>
<th>Associate Professor</th>
<th>Assistant Professor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IGNOU</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jawaharlal Nehru University</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Delhi</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamia Millia Islamia</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>131</strong></td>
<td><strong>218</strong></td>
<td><strong>365</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Table: 1.4 Positions Vacant in Major Delhi Universities as August’ 2008**

With the shortage of qualified faculty members in higher education Institutions in Delhi, it is very crucial for the management to provide better work-life balance to the
faculty and reduce the losses associated with work-life imbalance among faculty members. Furthermore, attracting and retaining a core group of talented professionals can be a significant issue for firms, because many of a professional’s skills are generalizable and valued by other employers. Scholars have argued that generalizable skills are the most difficult to protect, since employees can more easily sell these skills outside the firm and competitors may be tempted to bid the best of these employees away (Coff, 1997). Retaining high-quality professionals has become a more critical issue because the demand for professionals is increasing relative to other workers. And also higher education system is labour intensive where the effectiveness is largely dependent on quality of faculty members. Nonetheless, institutions of higher education are not known for their attention to human resource concerns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Central University</th>
<th>State University</th>
<th>Deemed University</th>
<th>Institution of National Importance</th>
<th>Research Institutions</th>
<th>Arts, Science &amp; Commerce Colleges</th>
<th>Engg., Tech., &amp; Arch., Colleges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Educational Statistics 2005-06, MHRD 2010

**Table: 1.5 Number of Higher Education Institutions in Delhi**

Institutions of higher education hold a unique position in society. Institutions of higher education are critically important places of knowledge production, knowledge perpetuation, and knowledge dissemination. In addition to these conventional associations of universities and knowledge, institutions of higher education have
unique potential to encourage synthesis and integration of different types of knowledge and to enhance the application of knowledge to social change.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutions/ Universities</th>
<th>01-02</th>
<th>02-03</th>
<th>03-04</th>
<th>04-05</th>
<th>05-06</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Universities</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deemed to be Universities</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institute of National Importance</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Institutes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleges for General Education</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engg., Tech., &amp; Arch., Colleges</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical Colleges</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Educational Statistics 2001-06, MHRD 2010

**Table: 1.6 Growth of Higher Education Institutions in Delhi from 2001-06**

Historically members of the academy have assumed that “knowing a subject well is sufficient training to teach it”. However, with increased pressure from students, parents and politicians, colleges and universities are being held more accountable than ever for quality teaching and student learning; as a result, more emphasis has been
placed on quality teaching than ever before, which is a prestige for researcher and institution both. Faculties are expected to be expert teachers as well as expert researchers, which is only possible through faculty development.

**Work-Life Imbalance is more among professionals:**

Freidson (1987) describes “professions” as occupations especially distinguished by their orientation to serving the needs of the public through the schooled application of their unusually esoteric knowledge and complex skill. (p. 19).

This description undermines the fact that professionals are characterized as holding expertise in a specific field (Nordenflycht, 2010). Traditionally members of long established professions are called professionals such as judges, jurists, faculty members, clergymen, physicians, etc. but also dentists, architects, engineers, and in recent decades also accountants (Burger, 2005). Lowendahl (2005) has given a list of qualitative attributes which characterize professionals in a broader sense (p. 28):

- Members of a highly professionalized occupational group
- Higher education
- Emphasis on application and improvement of knowledge
- Respect for professional norms of behaviour, including altruistic problem solving for the client, affective neutrality and the limitations of professional expertise and respect for and willingness to participate in peer reviews and sanctions.

Professionals have been defined as an organized body of experts who apply some form of specialized, theory-based knowledge to a set of complex problems (Webster, 1999). Indicators of professionalism include education in an academic setting to degree level, existence of professional organizations, the development of a professional literature, and research activity supplying the discipline with new theoretical frameworks (Webster, 1999). Greiner and Ennfellner (2010) describe the professional as “an employee engaged in work predominantly intellectual and varied in character as opposed to routine mental, manual, mechanical or physical work; involving the consistent exercise of discretion and judgement in its performance;
requiring knowledge of an advanced type, customarily acquired by a course of specialized intellectual instruction and study in an institution of higher learning” (p. 73). Professionals are a critical resource because of their tacit knowledge, their expense, their recent scarcity (Cappelli, 1997), and the transferability of their skills. The specialized knowledge base commanded by professionals is difficult and costly to develop and allows them to reduce uncertainty for the firm by handling complex non-routine problems (Friedson, 1970; Raelin, 1986). Also the ways in which faculty members perceive the quality of their work life have a significant impact on their satisfaction or morale (Johnsrud and Rosser, 2002). Johnsrud and Heck (1998) proposed a workload model that categorized aspects of work-life into three constructs: professional priorities and rewards, administrative relations and support and quality of benefits and services.

Much of the previous research on faculty work-life have included such issues as faculty members' motivation, productivity, and behaviour (Blackburn and Lawrence, 1995), rewards and salary (Boyer, 1990; Hagedorn, 1996; Matier, 1990; McKeachie, 1979), gender and minority issues (Aquirre, 2000; Johnsrud and Sadao, 1998; Turner and Myers, 2000), instructional and learning technologies (Groves and Zemel, 2000;
Privateer, 1999; Rice and Miller, 2001), and satisfaction (Boyer, et al., 1994; Olsen, et al., 1995; Tack and Patitu, 1992). These important work-life issues have also been perceived as relevant to the retention and turnover of faculty members (Barnes, et al., 1998; Johnsrud and Heck, 1994; Johnsrud and Rosser, 2002; Manger and Eikeland, 1990; Smart, 1990; Weiler, 1985).

Faculty perceptions of the nature of their work and work issues should be a matter of importance to leaders and administrators in educational institutions (Johnsrud, 2002; Peterson and Provo, 1998; Peterson and Wiesenberg, 2004). According to Johnsrud (2002), the quality of work life on college and university campuses has turned down. Understanding the work of faculty is significant considering that faculty perceptions of their work life have a direct effect on their satisfaction and ultimately on their intentions to stay or leave (Barnes et al., 1998; Rosser, 2005).

**WFC is a Cultural Context:**

The preceding literature review on work and life issues is largely based on studies conducted in the developed Western nationals. As Spector et al., (2004) pointed out, Western countries share a number of important characteristics in terms of economic development, family structure, and cultural values such as individualism (I) as opposed to collectivism (C), and small PD as opposed to large PD. Spector et al. (2004) attempted an extensive review of the limited number of work-life studies outside individualist countries, mostly in Asia, noting that most of these studies focused on a rather small range of variables with potentially biased small and convenient samples. For instance, in Hong Kong, Japan, and Singapore, researchers have generally found a non significant relationship between WFC and signs of strain within an individual (Aryee et al., 1999). Although a few more studies have since been conducted in Taiwan since the Spector et al. (2004) study was published (Lu et al., 2010, 2008), they focused mostly on the nexus of work-life demands and its effect on work life interference. The negative effects of WLC on individual wellbeing (decreased job satisfaction and life satisfaction) and organizational performance (decreased organizational commitment) have been confirmed. But the potential beneficial effects of work resources such as supervisory support and family resources such as family help still need to be tested systematically in non-Western, developing countries. In particular, the issue of culture-specificity or culture-universality needs to
be addressed. Systematic studies on work-life imbalance outside the developed West are few (Lu et al., 2006; Spector et al., 2004, 2007; Yang et al., 2000).

Life in Delhi:

Figure: 1.4 Map of Delhi

Delhi, the capital of India, is situated in northern India and stands on the west bank of Yamuna River bounded by Uttar Pradesh and on the north, west and south by Haryana. The people of Delhi proudly call themselves as "Delhi-ites". A lot of pride is associated with this word. Delhi is the fifth most populated urban area in world with satellite towns like Faridabad, Gurgaon and Noida making it a NCR, called the National Capital Region.

Our late Prime Minister, Jawahar Lal Nehru, proudly said, "Delhi is the symbol of old India and new. Even the stones here whisper to our ears of the ages of long ago and the air we breathe is full of the dust and fragrances of the past, as also of the fresh and
piercing winds of the present”. Many ethnic groups and cultures are represented in Delhi, making it a cosmopolitan city. Being the political and economic hub of northern India, the city attracts workers – both blue collar and white collar – from all parts of India, further enhancing its diverse character. A diplomatic hub, home to the embassies of 160 countries, Delhi has a large expatriate population as well. Delhi and NCR accounted for maximum software export from India. IT and ITES have found their place in Delhi and NCR, where the infrastructure provides conducive environment to make the industry flourish like never before.

Figure: 1.5 Metro train view

All major multinationals like IBM, Microsoft, Google, Sony, etc have their offices in Delhi and NCR. Urbanization and modernisation are taking their toll on the health of people with hefty shift in food habits of working couples with most of the households going in for instant food. Dual incomes where both husband and wife are earning, a general rise in income levels and standard of living, convenience and the fast catching up of western culture. Socioeconomic conditions have led to a shift from extended to nuclear families and have increased education and employment opportunities for women. Working couples don’t want to go for having babies, as they are living in nuclear family set up and there is nobody to look after the kids when they go for work. Many of them feel is either not to have children at all or to have children later in life when the career is stable.
People from different cities and towns from all over India come to work in Delhi. And Delhi being the capital of the country has its own challenges like very high living cost, low social interaction (even neighbours hesitate to talk to each other whereas in smaller cities neighbours live like families), high crime rate, very high house rent, and difficulty travelling from one place to another. For a newcomer the challenge is the biggest as one just gets tired to move from one place to another is such traffic and the work of metro going here and there. Not all can afford to have their own vehicle so many of the Delhi people prefer travelling by metro as it is convenient and cheaper but the problem is that metro is not available at all places. Not many of the organizations/institution provide pick and drop facility for their employees. So the challenge of working in Delhi in itself is not easy. And as said earlier people have come here from across the country so there is cultural diversity also and people do not tend to mix-up with each other. Travelling in Delhi is actually scary, I remember when I came to Delhi I used to feel so bad when I had to travel for 2 to 3 hours to reach my office. Even going out with family or friends was so frustrating as the travelling was too long and the charm of going out is lost in travelling only. I just
wonder how people manage spend 3-4 hours in travelling and still manage to work at their offices/institution for 8-9 hours and then go back home on their own (without being provided with the benefit of conveyance).