CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Review of related literature is an important step in undertaking research. It helps in clarifying and defining the problem, stating objectives, formulating hypotheses, selecting appropriate design and methodology of research as well as interpreting the results in the light of the research work already undertaken. In this chapter, an endeavour has been made to provide an overview of various aspects of this study through the review of existing literature. The sources referred include various journals, books, doctoral theses, working papers, reports, magazines related to human resource, internet sites, newspapers etc.

Bardoel et al. (2008) identified the major themes and research methods that have dominated work life research in Australia and New Zealand between the period 2004-07. The identified themes were grouped in eight categories, i.e., organization approaches to work life and work family issues, work characteristics, occupations/industries, government policy and legislation, health outcome issues related to work life, family structure and children, gender and other additional themes. With regard to the research methods, out of the total 86 papers examined, 73% of the papers were empirical while 27% were conceptual. Majority of the empirical papers used quantitative methodology. As many as 51% used survey method for data collection while the remaining 49% were fairly split among case studies, focus group and interviews. Out of 63 empirical papers, 20 were classified priori with variables
identified and relationships proposed before any theory was apparent. The remaining 43 articles were classified as post hoc as there were no specific relationships proposed before data collection and analysis.

In order to have a justified and in-depth review of the literature, the studies have been classified under the following headings:

- Work family conflict/work life balance studies
- Individual related variables and Work life balance/work family conflict
- Family related variables and Work life balance/work family conflict
- Work related variables and Work life balance/work family conflict
- Family and Work related variables and Work life balance / work family conflict
- Outcomes of work family conflict/work life balance
- Individuals’ strategies for work life balance
- Organizations’ strategies for work life balance
- Organizations’ initiatives and programmes for work life balance

2.2 WORK FAMILY CONFLICT / WORK LIFE BALANCE STUDIES

al. (2005), Wesley and Muthuswamy (2005), Kinnunen and Mauno (2007) and Rajadhyaksha and Ramadoss (2010) have focused on assessing work family conflict/work life balance among employees in various settings and also identified the direction of spillovers. Gutek et al. (1991) conducted a study using two separate samples of employed people with families, a systematically selected sample of psychologists and a volunteer sample of managers. The findings indicated that the two types of perceived work family conflict (work interference with family and family interference with work) were clearly separable and relatively independent of each other. The people perceived less family interference with work than work interference with family. However, when Frone et al. (1997) developed and tested an integrative model of work family interface using a sample of 372 employed adults who were married and/or parents, the findings supported the indirect reciprocal relation between work to family and family to work conflict. Family to work conflict was found to have indirect influence on work to family conflict via work distress and work overload. Work to family conflict had indirect impact on family to work conflict via increased parental overload. Rajadhyaksha and Ramadoss (2010) tested the model given by Frone et al. (1997) on a sample of 405 women in India and found that Indian data moderately supported within and cross domain relationship hypothesized in the model.

Hammer et al. (1997) 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.
Frone et al. (1992a) in a study of randomly drawn sample of 631 employed adults (278 men and 353 women) also 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. Williams and Alliger (1994) also found that work interfered with family more than family interfered with work in a study of 41 full time working parents (13 men and 28 women). Eagle et al. (1997) found that work and family boundaries were asymmetrically permeable with work to family conflict being significantly more prevalent than family to work conflict. 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.

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. 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.

The findings of the studies reported above suggest that work to family conflict is more frequent than family to work conflict. However, 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.

2.3 INDIVIDUAL RELATED VARIABLES AND WORK LIFE BALANCE/WORK FAMILY CONFLICT

A number of individual variables, viz. gender, age, marital status, emotional intelligence, etc. affecting/related to work life balance/work family conflict have been studied.

Studies by Gutek et al. (1991), Williams and Alliger (1994), Higgins et al. (1994), Loscocco (1997), Aryee et al. (1999b), Grzywacz et al. (2007), Rajadhyaksha and Velgach (2009) reported gender differences with respect to work family conflict. Gutek et al. (1991) 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. Williams and Alliger (1994) 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.

Higgins et al. (1994) 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 (i.e. children 10 to 18 years). This finding is supported by the findings of studies by Loscocoo (1997) and Aryee et al. (1999b). Loscocoo (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. Aryee et al. (1999b) found that gender was negatively related to family work conflict, suggesting that men did not experience as much family work conflict as women.

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.

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. It was found that immigrant Latinos reported infrequent work and 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.

Frone et al. (1992a), Eagle et al. (1997), Milkie and Peltola (1999), Hill et al. (2001), and Wesley and Muthuswamy (2005) however, did not find any gender differences. Frone et al. (1992a) 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. Gender main effect was also not found to be significant by Eagle et al. (1997). 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. Milkie and Peltola (1999) found that women and men report similar levels of success in balancing work and family and kinds of work family tradeoffs.

Hill et al. (2001) too reported that gender was not significantly correlated to work family balance indicating that men and women report similar levels of work family balance. 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.

Hsieh et al. (2005) and Fuß et al. (2008) studied the variables of marital status and age. 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. Fuß et al. (2008) found that socio-demographic factor of age group was a significant predictor of work interference in family. The younger was the participant, the higher was the perceived work interference in family.

Relationship between work life balance and emotional intelligence has also been studied and significant correlation has been found between the two variables. 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. Data was collected by sending questionnaires to 262 senior managers. 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. Sjöberg (2008) in a study of 153 respondents (94 men and 59 women) hypothesized emotional intelligence to be a factor in successful life adjustment, including the successful achievement of a well balanced life. It was found that both the dimensions of balance, i.e., family/leisure interference with work and
work interference with family/leisure were strongly negatively correlated to emotional intelligence. Results, thus, showed that high emotional intelligence was associated with a better balance of life and work.

A number of studies reported relationship between work centrality/ work salience / job involvement and work life balance/work family conflict. Greenhaus et al. (1989) 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. Williams and Alliger (1994) in a study of 41 full time working parents (13 men and 28 women) also 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.

Aryee and Luk (1996) in a study of 207 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. Hammer et al. (1997) found that higher levels of work involvement were related to higher levels of work family conflict (WFC).

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. 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. Sample consisted of 1131 respondents. Extensions were identified as tangible, such as unpaid overtime, or intangible, such as exhaustion and stress. 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. 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 sample consisted of 225 individuals who were employed full time and worked for a variety of organizations. 142 (63%) were females and 83 (37%) were males. 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. Further, work and family role conflict, Type A, and negative affectivity were found to be significantly related to behaviour based conflict.
2.4 FAMILY RELATED VARIABLES AND WORK LIFE BALANCE/ WORK FAMILY CONFLICT

Family related variables such as spouse support, spouse work hours, couple’s employment status, number of children, parental responsibilities, home responsibilities have been studied in relation to work life balance/conflict. Suchet and Barling (1986) in a study of interrole conflict, spouse support and marital functioning found that support from one’s husband may assist employed mothers cope with their own interrole conflict, as husbands’ supportive behaviour and attitude might help in reducing the opposing role demands on, and unrealistic role expectations of employed mothers.

Loerch et al. (1989) examined the relationships among family domain variables and three sources of work family conflict (time, strain and behaviour based) for both men and women. Family domain variables examined included time based (number of children, spouse work hours per week, couple’s employment status) strain based (conflict within family, spouse support, quality of experience in spouse or parent role) and behaviour based antecedents, family intrusions (parental, marital, home responsibilities) and role involvement. 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. However, the negative relationship of other strain based antecedents (spouse support, quality of spouse and parental experiences) and work family conflict was not supported. 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.

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. 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.

Aryee et al. (1999b) examined the relationship between role stressors, interrole conflict, and well-being and the moderating influences of spousal support and coping behaviours among a sample of Hong Kong Chinese employed parents in dual-earner families (N=243) and found that role stressors (work overload and parental overload) and spousal support set significantly explained the variance in both work family conflict (WFC) and family work conflict (FWC). Spousal support was found to be a negative predictor of WFC while parental overload was a positive predictor. Spousal support was found to moderate the effect of parental overload on FWC. FWC was negatively related to job and life satisfaction, but neither WFC nor FWC was related to family satisfaction.

Higgins et al. (1994) and Frye and Breauagh (2004) also studied work family conflict in relation to parental demands. 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). 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.

2.5 WORK RELATED VARIABLES AND WORK LIFE BALANCE /WORK FAMILY CONFLICT

Relationship between work related variables, viz. task variety, task autonomy, task complexity, role conflict, work schedule flexibility, number of hours worked and work life balance/work family conflict have been studied.

The studies by Greenhaus et al. (1989), Voydanoff (2004), Butler et al. (2005) found task autonomy to be associated with work family conflict. 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 (role conflict and role ambiguity) accounted for a significant portion of the variance in time based and strain based conflict for both men and women. The task characteristics (autonomy and complexity) 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.

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 data was obtained from the 1997 National Study of Changing Workforce (NSCW) and consisted of 1,938 employed adults living with a family member. The model includes within domain work demands and resources and boundary spanning resources as sources of work to family conflict and facilitation. The results showed that time based demands (work hours and extra work without notice) and strain based demands (job insecurity and time pressure) are positively associated with work to family conflict. It was found that enabling resources (autonomy and learning opportunities) and psychological rewards (respect and meaningful work) were positively related to work to family facilitation. These resources (except learning opportunities) showed negative relation with work to family conflict. Time based family support policies (parental leave and time off for family) and work family organizational support (supportive work family culture and supervisor work family support) showed negative association with conflict, and positive relationship to work to family facilitation.

Butler et al. (2005) surveyed 91 parents employed in non-professional occupations for 14 days about 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. Greater daily demands were associated with increase in daily levels of WFC and higher
levels of daily control at work were associated with decrease in daily levels of WFC. Daily skill levels used at work were not related to daily WFC. It was further seen that greater demands at work were associated with decrease in daily levels of WFF and greater daily control and skill level at work were associated with increase in daily levels of WFF.

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. Loscocoo (1997) examined how people with considerable control over their work lives construct and experience work family connections. The data was collected through in-depth interviews of 30 self employed people. 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. Hammer et al. (1997) reported that higher levels of perceived work schedule flexibility were related to lower levels of work family conflict.

Hill et al. (2001) examined the perceived influence of job flexibility in the timing (flex time) and location of work (flexplace) on work family balance. Data was taken from a 1996 International Business Machines (IBM) work and life issues survey in United States (n= 6,451). The results indicated that paid work hours was 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.

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 (e.g. flextime/working from home) is incompatible with holding a senior management post. Many of senior men could delegate family/caring activities to their wives, which was not possible for majority of women in senior positions. 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.

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. However, the negative effects of schedule control and job autonomy were slightly correlated by their positive
associations with work home role blurring. In analysis of interaction effects, it was observed that positive association between receiving work related contact and work to home conflict was positive and significant among workers who had lower levels of job autonomy. Further, bringing work home was associated positively with work to home conflict among individuals who reported more schedule control.

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. White et al. (2003) analyzed the effect of selected high-performance practices (appraisal systems, group-working practices, performance related pay) and working hours on work-life balance. The data was collected from two representative surveys of the employed and self employed in Great Britain, aged between 20-60 years. The samples were 2132 in Working in Britain (WIB) 2000 Survey and 3458 in Employment in Britain (EIB) 1992 Survey. The results showed
that negative job-to-home spillover increased with additional hours worked and to a similar degree for both men and women. High performance practices were also found to be a source of negative spillover. It was further found that taking part in a flexible hour system significantly reduced negative spillover for women but not for men. Working from financial necessity was found to be significantly linked to negative spillover for women. Dual earners reported less negative spillover than those in single earner situations.

Frye and Breaugh (2004) found that the number of work hours, the use of family-friendly policies, and reporting to a supportive supervisors 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.

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 (i.e. power to make decision and act autonomously, information provision, rewards, knowledge of the job and team working) 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. 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 (‘unpredictable work hours’) 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. The more people felt that they have to work hard in their jobs (‘work pressure’), the higher was their perceived level of conflict. It was also found that a high degree of control over how one’s daily work is organised (‘job autonomy’) helped people to better co-ordinate the time demands of their work and family roles, though such an effect was found only for women. 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 (time based conflict), 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.

Fuß et al. (2008) investigated predictors for work interfering with family conflict (WIF) which are located within the psychological work environment or work organization of hospital physicians (N= 296). The results indicated that the positive predictors of WIF conflicts were the scales of quantitative demands (p<.01), number of days gone to work despite own illness (p<.01) and the frequency of postponing planned vacations and due to changes on the duty roster (p<.01). 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.
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 (9-10 hours a day) 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 everyday. While only 20 per cent involved in teaching reported so.

Further, Crosbie and Moore (2004) studied working from home and work life balance. Data was collected through interviews and focus group discussions. 70% of those who took part were females. All of them carried out paid work at home for 20 hours or more per week. 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.

2.6 FAMILY AND WORK RELATED VARIABLES AND WORK LIFE BALANCE / WORK FAMILY CONFLICT

Pleck et al. (1980) 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.

Aryee (1992) examined the impact of five antecedent sets of work and family domain variables on three types of work-family conflict (job-spouse, job-parent and job-homemaker) and the impact of these types of work family conflict on well being and work outcome measures. Antecedents studied included life role salience, family stressors (parental demands, responsibility for household chores, lack of spouse support), work stressors (task variety, task complexity, task autonomy, role conflict, role overload, role ambiguity) and work schedule stressors (hours worked per week, work schedule inflexibility). Results indicated that married professional women in the study experienced moderate amounts of each type of work-family conflict. It was found that number of hours worked per week rather than work schedule flexibility affects work family conflict. Role stressors explained the most variance in job spouse and job-homemaker conflicts while task characteristics explained the most variance in job-parent conflict. Task autonomy emerged as a negative and significant predictor of all three types of conflict. Task variety was positively and significantly related to job-parent and job-homemaker conflicts. Spouse support showed a significant negative relation with job-spouse conflict and parental demands were significantly positively related to job parent conflict. However, household responsibility was not found to be
related to any type of conflict. The three types of work-family conflict explained only
modest amount of the variance in the well-being and work outcome measures.

Grzywacz and Marks (2000) developed an expanded conceptualization of the
work family interface and identified significant correlates of multiple dimensions of
work family spillover. The study used the data from employed adults participating in
the National Survey of Midlife Development in the United States (N = 1,986). The
findings showed that work and family factors that facilitated development (decision
latitude, family support) were associated with less negative and more positive spillover
between work and family. On the other hand, work and family barriers (job pressure,
family disagreements) were associated with more negative spillover and less positive
spillover between work and family. Negative spillover between work and family (work
to family and family to work) shared some correlates, such as pressure at work, and
spouse disagreement. However, spouse affectual support was an important correlate of
negative spillover from family to work but not negative spillover from work to family.
Similarly, decision latitude was strongly associated with both positive spillover from
work to family and family to work, whereas spouse affectual support was a strong
correlate of positive spillover from family to work but unassociated with positive
spillover from work to family.

Saltzstein et al. (2001) used 1991 surveys of Federal Government Employees to
test a theoretical framework regarding the relationships between work and family
demands, family friendly policies, satisfaction with work family balance and job
satisfaction for diverse groups of employees with different personal and family needs.
The findings indicated that a variety of family friendly policies and practices were used
to varying degrees by these diverse groups of employees. Further, the job related factors (job demands, job involvement) were found to be the most significant determinants of satisfaction with work family balance and job satisfaction. In addition, it was found that organizational understanding had more impact on both satisfaction with work family balance and job satisfaction than all family friendly policies. Reliance on flexible scheduling was found to have no significant impact on work family balance or job satisfaction for most of sub population groups.

Kim and Ling (2001) studied the sources and types of work family conflict among 102 married Singapore women entrepreneurs. The antecedents studied included work hours, work schedule inflexibility, work stressors, number and age of children and family support. The outcomes studied included job satisfaction, life satisfaction and marital satisfaction. Results indicated that number of hours worked, work stressors (role conflict and worries about financial health of business) and work schedule inflexibility were positively related to work-family conflict. Spouse emotional and attitude support was found to have a significant negative relation with work family conflict. The outcome variables job satisfaction, marital satisfaction and life satisfaction were found to be negatively correlated to work-family conflict.

Frye and Breaugh (2004) tested a model of antecedents (use of family friendly policies, supervisors support, number of hours worked, having child care responsibility) and consequences (job and family satisfaction) of work-family conflict and family-work conflict. It was 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, having child care responsibility and reporting to a supportive supervisor were predictive of such conflict. Child care responsibility showed a positive relation, while reporting to a supportive supervisor was negatively related to such conflict. The study also found that work family conflict was predictive of job satisfaction and family satisfaction. However, family work conflict predicted neither job satisfaction nor family satisfaction.

Luk and Shaffer (2005) developed and tested an expanded model of the work family interface that considered both within and across domain influences on conflict emanating from the work and family domains. The results of the study on 248 couples with children showed that work domain stressors, i.e., time commitment to work and work role expectations were significant positive predictors of work interference with family (WIF). Work role expectations were found to be a significant negative predictor of family interference with work (FIW) whereas no significant effects were found for work time commitment. Family domain stressor, i.e., family role expectation, was found to be a negative predictor of WIF whereas parental demand was found to be a positive predictor of both WIF and FIW. No significant effects were found for family time commitment on WIF or FIW and for family role expectation on FIW. The direct effects of work domain support, such as family-friendly policies and supervisor support, and family domain support, such as domestic helper support, on WIF and FIW were not substantiated. Rather family friendly policies were found to be positive predictor of FIW.
Kinnunen and Mauno (2007) examined the prevalence, antecedents and consequences of work family conflict. Family domain variables (presence of children and employment status of spouse) mainly explained the family to work conflict and explained 9% of variance for men and 22% for women. Work domain variables (full time job, poor leadership relations and low levels of job security) were found to be the best predictors of work to family conflict, but only for women. Family to work conflict was found to have negative consequences on family well being, and work to family conflict on the well being at home as well as at work.

Studies by Higgins and Duxbury (1992), Aryee et al. (1999a), Milkie and Peltola (1999), Keene and Quadagno (2004) and Grzywacz et al. (2007) found that antecedents may differ with spouse employment status, culture or gender. Higgins and Duxbury (1992) examined the differences in the antecedents and consequences of work family conflict - for two groups of career oriented men: those with a homemaker wife (137, traditional career men) and those with a spouse in a career oriented job (136, dual career men). It was found that maternal career employment status had a significant effect on the antecedents of work-family conflict. Dual career men experienced greater work-family conflict due to conflict within the work domain as compared to traditional career men. As the work environment did not provide the increased flexibility needed by dual career men to balance the increased role demands, these men were less able to cope up with work conflict as compared to traditional career men. However, the maternal career employment status was not found to have any impact on the extent to which work family conflict lowered quality of work life or quality of family life.
Aryee et al. (1999a) examined the cross cultural generalizability of model of work family interface given by Frone et al. (1992b). The sample comprised of 320 respondents (91 women, 229 men) from six organizations in Hong Kong. The results showed a positive reciprocal relationship and a negative covariation between work-family and family-work conflict in both the samples. However, it was found that as compared to US employees, work-family conflict more strongly influenced family-work conflict in the case of Hong Kong employees. Again, in the case of US sample, employee’s family involvement significantly influenced family-work conflict, while this relationship was not significant in the case of Hong Kong sample.

Milkie and Peltola (1999) found that women and men report similar levels of success in balancing work and family and kinds of work family tradeoffs. However, the tradeoffs reported by respondents were gendered. Longer working hours – negatively affected men’s sense of balance, but did so only marginally for women. For women who worked full time, work hours did not affect balance. It was also found that young children in the household had a negative impact on success in balancing paid work and family life for employed women but not for employed men. Again, sacrifices made at work affected men more than women whereas sacrifices made in the family affected women more than men.

Keene and Quadagno (2004) examined two issues, the relationships of work characteristics, family characteristics, and work family spillover to perception of work family balance and models of ‘gender difference’ vs. ‘gender similarity’ using 1996 General Social Survey (GSS), and 1992 National Study of the Changing Work Force (NSCW). The GSS analysis demonstrated that work demands such as the number of
hours worked per week and work spillover into family life were the most salient predictors of feelings of imbalance for women and men, lending support to gender similarity model. The NSCW results supported gender difference model and indicated that when family demands reduced work quality, there was a decreased likelihood of perceived balance. However, men and women balance in gendered ways. Women reported more balance when they gave priority to family, men reported less balance when they had no personal time for themselves due to work and more balance when they made scheduling changes due to family.

Grzywacz et al. (2007) found that both the level and the antecedents of work to family conflict differed by gender. Greater physical workload as well as more frequent awkward postures and repetitive movements were correlated with greater work to family conflict among women. For men, greater skill variety and greater psychological demands were correlated with more work to family conflict.

2.7 OUTCOMES OF WORK FAMILY CONFLICT/ WORK LIFE BALANCE

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. Duxbury and Higgins (2001) examined the effects of three types of work family conflict - role overload (having too much to do), 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 (vice-versa) were highly stressed, experienced burnout, expressed dissatisfaction with life, and were in poor mental/ physical health.

Martins et al. (2002) examined the moderating effects of individual differences (gender, age, marital status, parental status) and sources of support (coworkers, community, financial resources) on the negative relationship between work-family conflict and career satisfaction. Data was collected from 975 managers and professionals from over 100 companies in over 26 industries and from various functional backgrounds. 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.
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 first sample comprised of 603 fitness professionals while the second consisted of 545 managers employed in a variety of organizations spanning many industries and functional departments. 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.

Schieman et al. (2003) undertook a study with three aims: (a) to test if home to work conflict is associated with symptoms of anxiety and depression among women and men (b) to determine if those effects are moderated by work qualities such as autonomy, routinization and nxeousness; and (c) to explore variation among those patterns by gender. The data was collected through face to face interviews of 1393 adult residents of metropolitan Toronto. The results showed that positive relationship between home to work conflict and both anxiety and depression were stronger when job autonomy was higher, although the effects were somewhat stronger for men. It was further found that positive relationship between home to work conflict and anxiety was significantly stronger when women occupied jobs with greater routinization. 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.
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.

Sandhu and Mehta (2006) in a study of 271 women working in service sector in Punjab 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. Pal and Saksvik (2008) in a cross cultural study of 27 doctors and 328 nurses from Norway and 111 doctors and 136 nurses from India, 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.

Haar and Bardoel (2008) used structural equation modelling to test positive spillover on 420 Australian public and private sector employees. They 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 (e.g. work family spillover to turnover intentions and family work spillover to family satisfaction). 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. Data was obtained from 160 employees at a small national architectural firm. 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.

The mediating role of negative work home interference (NWI) was examined by Janssen et al. (2004) in a study of 115 US and 260 Dutch nurses and nurse assistants to test a theoretically derived model of specific relationships between work characteristics and two outcomes (i.e. emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction). The results in the Dutch sample showed that emotional exhaustion was only related to psychological job demands and workplace social support. Job satisfaction was found to be associated with job control and with workplace social support. In the US sample, similar associations were found. The results also revealed that the association between psychological job demands and emotional exhaustion was partially mediated by NWI. NWI was more clearly associated with the ‘negative’ outcome emotional exhaustion.

Bhargava and Baral (2009) examined the antecedents and outcomes of work family enrichment. The sample comprised of 245 employees from manufacturing and
information technology sector in India. It was found that core self evaluations, family support and supervisor support were positively related to family-to-work enrichment whereas job characteristics (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.

### 2.8 INDIVIDUALS’ STRATEGIES FOR WORK LIFE BALANCE

Individuals adopt strategies such as accommodation, negotiation to enhance their work life balance or reduce work family conflict. Singh (2001) in his qualitative study used ‘work/life border theory’ to explore how British and Swedish managers dealt with competing commitments. A sample of 35 managers (18 Swedish, 17 British; 18 males and 17 females) ranging from directors to project managers, aged between 28 to 59 years, was taken and semi-structured interviews were held on site in UK and Sweden. The study showed a tension between managers’ own needs for more balanced work lives and corporate attitudes to balance - seekers and career choices. 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.

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. First, they may try to mobilize tangible support from a role sender in either the work or family domain to reschedule one of the activities. If successful, this strategy avoids work–family conflict by enabling individuals to participate fully in both activities. If support mobilization is unsuccessful or not attempted, individuals decide whether to participate partially in some combination of both activities or to participate solely in either the work or family activity. It was found that individuals use multiple cues in deciding how to respond to situations of potential work family conflict.

2.9 ORGANIZATIONS’ STRATEGIES FOR WORK LIFE BALANCE

Organizations adopt strategies such as ‘separation’ and ‘integration’ as responses to non-work. Kirchmeyer (1995) identified three types of organizational responses to non work (separation, integration, respect) and used the data collected from 221 managers, active in multiple domains, to assess the effectiveness of these organizational responses. “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. The effectiveness of these responses was assessed in terms of their ability to reduce the negative spillover from non-work, and to enhance both organizational commitment and the positive side of spillover. Integration and respect responses revealed positive correlations with organizational commitment, whereas separation response showed a negative correlation. It was found that the type that enhanced the flexibility of the work- non work boundary and involved the employer in providing resources for workers to fulfill non-work responsibilities themselves proved most effective.

2.10 ORGANIZATIONS’ INITIATIVES AND PROGRAMMES FOR WORK LIFE BALANCE

A number of work life balance initiatives/ programmes have been undertaken by the organizations and various researchers like Kossek et al., 1994; Osterman, 1995; Thomas and Ganster, 1995; Milliken et al., 1998; Newman and Mathews, 1999; Maxwell and McDougall, 2004; and Doherty, 2004 have attempted, to identify these programmes and to study reasons for provision of these programmes, benefits accruing to employees and organizations as a result of these programmes and barriers in implementation of these programmes.

Maxwell and McDougall (2004), Coughlan (2005), and Cieri et al. (2005) 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, on site day care, emergency child care, elder care arrangements.

A number of studies have highlighted the reasons for the provision of work life balance programmes by various organizations. 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.

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.

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. However, 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.

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.

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. 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. 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.

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.

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.

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).

Some researchers have studied the barriers that limit the use of work family policies / programmes. Newman and Mathews (1999) in a survey of 14 government departments examined the utilization of family friendly workplace policies within the US federal government and concluded that a number of barriers affected the overall implementation of such policies. The findings indicated that policies such as part time work, flexible work schedules and compressed work hours remain underutilized due to mistrust by management, workaholic culture, limited communication and training, stretching scarce resources and an incompatibility with the job design. Lacy (2002) conducted a job market survey of 300 job seekers in the New York area and found that 75% of the respondents reported that work stress had an impact on their decision to look for a new job. It was also found that there was a general presumption among employees that working long hours is important for career advancement. This notion, and the pay and promotion policies that supported it, undermined the attempts to promote work life balance.

Doherty (2004) used evidence from a piece of action research conducted in the UK hospitality industry to explore the effectiveness of work life balance initiatives in helping women progress to senior management. She explored the main barriers to women progression. Results highlighted the long hours associated with managerial roles as a major problem. It was found that the business case which underpins diversity
management and a voluntary approach to work life balance may only deliver positive benefits to women when the labour market is tight, and even then, the benefits to women in management are far from demonstrated. Hyman and Summers (2004) examined major problems with work life policies in UK and found that policies were unevenly distributed and small organizations were less likely to have these work life policies. Another problem was that the policies were informal and unwritten and were under the direct control of line managers who were untrained and did not understand work life balance issues. Yet another problem was that employees had no say in establishment or implementation of the policies. Lastly, the policies were introduced primarily to meet business needs rather than the needs of the employees and there was no evidence of reduction in working hours.

Cieri et al. (2005) explored the range and usage of work life balance strategies in Australian organizations and identified the barriers to those strategies. The study was based on three surveys conducted in 1997, 1998 and 2000. The most frequently cited work life balance strategies across all the three surveys were part time work, study leave, flexible starting and finishing times, working from home on ad hoc basis and job sharing. The results showed that 50% of the organizations had less than 20% of their employees using work life balance strategies that were available and only 6% of organizations had more than 80% of their employees using work life balance strategies. The factors which created major difficulties for development and implementation of work life balance strategies were found to be increased work demand that overshadowed personal needs, focus on programmes rather than on culture change, insufficient involvement of and communication with senior management, not getting the line managers involved in effective implementation and lack of communication to
staff. Waters and Bardoel (2006) used qualitative data gathered from focused group interviews from 76 participants (56 women, 20 men) to investigate the factors that influenced employees decision to use or not to use work family policies in an Australian University. A number of barriers that limited the use of work family policies were identified and included, lack of communication about the policies, high work loads, management attitude, career repercussions, influence of peer and administrative processes. The study highlighted that organizational commitment to an environment that supports work and family is not merely about providing policies but about creating a work place culture that supports and encourages the use of policies.

In addition to the above discussed studies, two studies – one meta-analytical and another, a review of work family research in India were undertaken. Kossek and Ozeki (1998) in their meta-analytical study examined the relationship among work-family (w-f) conflict, policies, and job and life satisfaction. The results showed that there was a negative relationship between all types of w-f conflict and job and life satisfaction. This relationship was stronger for work to family conflict as compared to family to work conflict. Slight gender differences were found, with the relationship appearing to be stronger for women. Review further showed that research on w-f policies had been disconnected from studies on individuals’ experiences with w-f conflict and future research needed to be aimed at studying w-f policy variables that affect work to family and family to work conflict and other job and non job outcomes. Rajadhyaksha and Smita (2004) examined work and family research in the Indian context from independence till mid 2000. According to them, work and family research in India appeared to have followed two separate and disconnected paths. Women study centres focused on rural and underprivileged women while the other psychosocial researchers
examined work and family relations within urban setting and there has been little cross pollination between the two streams. Major conclusions drawn included: After independence, the government and/or organizational policies appeared to be in favour of working men rather than working women and were more in nature of welfare measures for the worker and his family. During mid 1970s to mid 1980s, plight of working women (especially underprivileged) was deteriorating and nature of family organization was contributing to their deprivation, and at the same time, the picture of urban educated women was emerging. During mid 1980s to mid 1990s gender differences in work and family research were examined. Working status was not a guarantee of equitable relationships within the family. In the mid 1990s to 2000 liberalization impacted the work family research. Organizations in the new economy sectors (e.g. IT and ITES industry) started family friendly measures, more as an imitation of western organizational practices than as a felt need to help employees balance their work and life.

2.11 CONCLUSION

On the basis of literature reviewed above, the following major conclusions can be drawn:

- Work to family conflict is more prevalent as compared to family to work conflict.

- No definite conclusions can be drawn with respect to the gender differences in work life balance. However, on the basis of the studies which reported gender
differences, it can be concluded that women experience more work family conflict.

- Emotional intelligence has been found to be positively related to work life balance.

- The higher the importance accorded to work in life, the higher is the work family conflict.

- Spouse support has been found to be negatively related to family to work conflict.

- Higher the parental demands, higher is the work family conflict.

- Job related variables (task autonomy and work schedule flexibility) have been found to be positively related to work life balance.

Since the approach of work life balance was initially conceived in terms of work family conflict / work family balance, and work life balance concept has come to the fore recently, hence much research is focused on work family conflict rather than work life balance which is a broader term and includes work and rest of the life (including family).

Secondly, much emphasis has been laid on studying the outcomes of work family conflict or work life balance as compared to the antecedents especially in the context of work life balance. Again, the researchers who studied the antecedents, focused mainly on the work or family related variables; and have not taken individual related variables into account. There are hardly any studies to be found in the Indian
context, and hence the issue of work life balance is wide open for research in India. Moreover, IT and ITES industry has not been studied specifically; and this industry has peculiar work demands which make it imperative to study the issue of work life balance in the context of this industry. Hence, the present research is an effort to fill some of these gaps.

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