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Chapter Overview

This chapter undertakes a review of the extant literature on concept and evolution of work-life balance. Various models of work-life balance have been discussed. After that measure, antecedents and outcomes of work-life balance has been discussed. Scenario of work-life balance globally and in Indian context has been discussed. Thereafter, literature focusing on work-life balance, job satisfaction and organizational commitment has been highlighted. Then, the research gaps were discussed in last after through literature review.

2.1 Work-life Balance: Evolution and Concept

The world is witnessing a fundamental shift taking place in the economic and social sphere. It is driven by globalization, knowledge, technology and innovation. All these developments are prompting changes in working patterns. The workforce is demanding greater flexibility at the workplace (Cole, 2006). It is changing the nature of work and of the workforce itself (Beynon, et al., 2002; Gilmore & Williams, 2009).

The pressures of work place and complexities of life have given a special place to the concept of work-life balance. As issues of work-life integration increasingly come to the fore, the debate is shifting and is concerned with seeing how organizations can help employees maintain a good balance between workplace issues and family as well as social commitments.

Work-life balance is the balance between the work and home regimes. The current explosion of attention in the work-family boundary has led to a number of concepts to clarify the relationship between these two spheres of life viz. work-family enrichment, work-family conflict, compensation, accommodation, segmentation, spillover and work-family integration (Barnett, 1998; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). One term widely cited in literature is work-life balance. Sometimes it is used as a noun (when one is encouraged to achieve balance), and other times as a verb (to balance work and family demands). Work-family balance repeatedly implies balancing work to spend quality
time with family. Moreover, it is thought to be in an individual’s best interest to live a balanced life (Kofodimos, 1993).

Work-life balance is about finding the right balance between work and life, about feeling comfortable with both work and family commitments. It’s about controlling when, where and how someone works. Work-life balance is essentially the balance between three components: paid work, unpaid work and personal time (Byrne, 2005). While there is no one accepted definition of what constitutes a work-life balance practice, the term usually refers to one of the following: organizational support for dependent care, flexible work options, and family or personal leave (Estes & Michael, 2005).

Competing demands between work and home have assumed increased relevance for employees in recent years, due in large part to demographic and workplace changes such as rising numbers of women in the labor force, an ageing population, longer working hours and more sophisticated communications technology enabling near constant contact with the workplace. In response to these changes and the conflict they generate among the multiple roles that individuals occupy, organizations are increasingly pressured to implement work practices intended to facilitate employees’ efforts to fulfill both their employment related and their personal responsibilities (Rapoport, Bailyn, Fletcher, & Pruitt, 2002). The relationship between family and work is best described as a zero-sum game- time and energy spent on the family cannot be invested in work and vice versa. Employees who have excess family demands will have less time and energy for work (Friedman, Christensen & DeGroot 1998).

The recent past is an observer of changes in workplace and work schedules. A large part of the corporate sector is moving from standard eight-hours of working to twenty four hours a day for the whole week (Bharat, 2008). Employees nowadays need to be on job on Saturdays and Sundays too. In addition to this, there is a changing pattern in the working hours which is quite different from the traditional 9 am to 5 pm schedule (Bharat, 2003). While some employees work at the traditional time, some others need to be available for work that normally starts early in the morning and continues well through the night. Sometimes they need to even work beyond the normal eight hours (Rai, 2009). There has also been a marked increase in the number of women in paid employment in the past 60 years (Hogarth et al., 2001). These changes in the work
scenario have led to problems related to work and life imbalance in turn leading to health problems and inefficiencies among employees (Hutcheson, 2012).

Pocock (2005) opines that in order to have positive impact on work and life boundaries, there should be reduction in the number of hours of work, positive benefits from unpaid leave, flexibility in work, reduction in commuting etc. Forsyth and Debruyne (2007) added that when more balance is there, then less will be the leaving intention of the employees, and there will be more job satisfaction.

It has been shown in researches that if the employer is of compassionate nature or if there are employee-friendly policies, it leads to enhancement in work-life leading to job satisfaction (Amah 2010; Fleetwood, 2007, Frone, 2003). A number of researchers have highlighted the problems faced by women employees as they get less time for family or child care and have to cope up with the pressures of work (Bacik & Drew, 2006; Fischlmayr & Kollingar, 2010). Johansson (2002) explained that due to increased work-life imbalance, the charge of long term sick leave was on hike.

While the majority of work-life balance research focuses on employees’ family responsibilities, there are also a number of studies that recognize commitments to friends and community groups, expanding the affected population to virtually all employees (e.g., Beauregard, 2006; Hamilton, Gordon, & Berry, 2006; Tausig & Fenwick, 2001). The implications for organizations are clear: work-life conflict can have negative repercussions for employee performance. Given a choice, most employees prefer a job that offers work-life balance in relation to a good salary (Pezzini, 2005).

Work-life balance when seen from the reverse perspective is termed as work-life conflict or work-family conflict (Breaugh & Frye, 2008). A number of scholars have addressed the negative aspects of work-life conflict (Balmforth & Gardner, 2006; Breaugh & Frye, 2008; Dixon & Sagas, 2007). When there is interference between family and work then there arises space for negative work-life balance which is also known as work-family conflict. Interference between work and non-work responsibilities has a number of negative outcomes. In terms of job attitudes, employees reporting high levels of both work-to-life and life-to-work conflict tend to exhibit lower levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Burke &
Greenglass, 1999; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Both work-to-life and life-to-work conflict have also been associated with increased stress and burnout (Anderson et al., 2002; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998), cognitive difficulties such as staying awake, lack of concentration, and low alertness (MacEwen & Barling, 1994), and reduced levels of general health and energy (Frone, Russell, & Barnes, 1996).

Studies have shown that higher levels of work-life conflict or imbalance relate to decreased levels of overall physical health (Allen et al., 2000; Frone et al., 1996). Experiences of conflict also relate to nervous tension and fatigue arising as a result of work-life balance problems (Anderson et al., 2002). Allen and Armstrong (2006) found strong links between work-life imbalance and overall health disorders. The strain imposed by work-family conflict has been linked to coronary heart disease (Haynes et al., 1984), decreased energy levels and appetite, increased anxiety, fatigue and nervous tension (Allen et al., 2000). Proper work-life balance helps to reduce psychological and physical complaints such as burnout and illness (Bianchi, 2000, Peeters et al., 2005).

Jansen et al. (2003) and Demerouti et al. (2001) concluded that work-family conflict was related to fatigue. Issues related to one’s physical health, mental health, or any disabilities may add to the complexity and dynamism with which the individual must cope (Stone & Colella, 1996). Issues related to scheduling and reaching work may also create uncertainty. Job requirements, such as mandatory overtime, shift work, on-call requirements, and evening/weekend/holiday coverage impose on one’s personal time (Bond et al., 1998; Voydanoff, 1988). Lengthy commutes and required travel commitments also reduce the time available for other activities. All these lead to work-life imbalance.

Amah (2010) found that the availability of work-family friendly policy has the potential to reduce the perception level for family-work conflict. The interaction between career outcome and availability of work-family friendly policies resulted in significant decrease in the level of family-work conflict. It was found that organizations that have work-family friendly policies and positive organizational culture create viable conditions for reducing family-work conflict. Siegel et al. (2005) examined whether the equality of procedures used by organizational authorities to plan and put into practice the decisions moderates the relationship between work-life
conflict and employees’ commitment towards their organization. It was found that greater work-life conflict will lead to lower organization commitment.

Interference between work and non-work responsibilities has a number of negative outcomes. In terms of job attitudes, employees reporting high levels of both work-to-life and life-to-work conflict tend to exhibit lower levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Behavioral outcomes of both directions of conflict include reduced work effort, reduced performance, and increased absenteeism and turnover (Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002). Both work-to-life and life-to-work conflict have also been associated with increased stress and burnout (Anderson et al., 2002; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998), cognitive difficulties such as staying awake, lack of concentration, and low alertness (MacEwen & Barling, 1994), and reduced levels of general health and energy (Frone, Russell, & Barnes, 1996).

2.2 Models and Theories of Work-life Balance

The area of life and work researches is usually challenged by a lack of generally established fundamental language and constructs. There is no single prevailing model or perspective that is universally established and accepted (Pitt-Catsouphes et al., 2006). The scholarly organization of information regarding work-life studies relies on a diversity of theoretical frameworks (Morris & Madsen, 2007), which includes compensation, spill-over, enrichment, resource drain, work-family conflict congruence, segmentation, integration, facilitation and ecology theories (Clark, 2000; Edwards and Rothbard, 2000; Frone, 2003; Frone, Russell and Cooper, 1992; Greenhaus and Powell, 2006; Zedeck and Mosier, 1990). Thus, different researchers proposed different models for work-life balance in different ways.

Breaugh and Frye (2008) concluded that family-friendly policies, work from home, supervisor’s support, lenient policies for leave leads to reduction in work-family conflict. They examined the relationship between the use of four family-friendly policies (viz. telecommuting, flexible work hours, ability to take work home and family leave) and work-family conflict. In addition to this, they examined that reporting to a family-supportive supervisor was related to the use of the four practices and to work-family conflict. It was found that the use of three of the four practices
was related to work-family conflict. In addition, results showed that reporting to a family-supportive supervisor was related to work-family balance. This model as suggested by Breaugh and Frye (2008) has also been used by other researchers such as McCarthy et al. (2010) and Kaur et al. (2013) to understand the ways to reduce work-family conflict. Exhibit 2.1 depicts the model by Breaugh and Frye (2008).

**Exhibit 2.1: Factors to reduce work-family conflict**

![Diagram showing factors to reduce work-family conflict]


Frone (2003) suggested a model for better understanding of components of work and family and concluded that it should include both components of conflict and balance/facilitation. It was suggested by Frone (2003) that a fourfold taxonomy defines work-family balance along with primary dimensions of 1) Direction of influence family role and work (work to family vs. family to work). 2) Type of effect (balance vs. conflict). This model as suggested by Frone (2003) has also been used by other researchers such as (Kalliath & Brough, 2008) to understand the components of work and family. Exhibit 2.2 depicts the model by Frone, (2003) showing components of work and life.
Ngah et al. (2009) tested a mediation model consisting of job satisfaction as the dependent variable, locus of control as the independent variable and work-family conflict as the mediator. Results revealed that locus of control was related to work-family conflict and job satisfaction and work-family conflict was related to job satisfaction. Results also indicated that work-family conflict partially mediates the relationship between locus of control and job satisfaction. This model as suggested by Ngah et al. (2009) has also been used by other researchers such as (Erickson et al. 2010; Ibrahim, 2015) to understand to understand the components of work and family. Exhibit 2.3 depicts the model by Ngah et al. (2009).
The model proposed by Budd and Mumford (2005) consists of three levels. In the first level, the manager implements the work-life balance practices that are presented to their employees. In the second level, employees identify ease of access of work-life balance practices at their organization. Values of availability of work-life balance practices will be close to workers’ perceived availability when no knowledge gap exists between managers and employees. Finally, the usage level is determined by the existence of perceived work-life balance availability. This model as suggested by Budd and Mumford (2005) has also been used by other researchers such as (kaur, 2012; McCarthy et al. 2010) to understand the level in the implication work life balance policies. Exhibit 2.4 depicts the model by Budd and Mumford (2006).

Exhibit 2.4: Levels of Work-family Balance

All the above models try explaining the concept of work-life balance and that the concept can be seen from different perspectives.

2.3 Work life Balance and Demographics

Studies conducted in the field of work-life balance have also explored the role of several demographic variables (Simpson, 1998) such as age, income, gender, marital status, working spouse and number of dependents (Aycan & Eskin, 2005; Bacik & Drew, 2006; Dean, 2007; Geurts et al., 2005; Hochschild, 1989; Mayo et al., 2011;
Phillipson, 1982; Robinson & Godbey, 1997; Vickerstaff & Cox, 2005). Hayman (2005) has used several variables like gender, age and education in the context of work-life balance.

2.3.1 Gender

There are several studies that have explored the role of gender in the context of work-life balance (Blau et al. 1993; Felstead et al., 2002; Watanabe, 2010; Williams, 2000). According Gurney (2010), the reason behind the entry of women in the workforce is the increase in cost of living and hike in the living standards. Several government and semi-government organizations stood up for girl education in early 1970s’ that led to emergence of career women who are capable enough to take charge of home and work. (Blau et al. 1993). In addition to this, woman also takes leads in business in order to earn higher income and gain greater autonomy (Sullivan & Lewis, 2001). Some of the women are forced into self-employment because they lack other alternatives and suffer from the loss of partner or divorce etc. (Tuttle & Garr, 2009).

Historically, the fields of work and family have been explored and analyzed by researchers in the area of psychology, sociology and industrial psychology. Traditionally, it was assumed that male members had the role of breadwinners and women members assumed the role of homemakers (Clark, 2000). It was not a usual practice for women to work outside home. However, in contemporary times it is common for women to work and pursue careers outside home (Hochschild, 1997; Macran, Joshi & Dex, 1996). This increased participation of women in the workforce has altered the traditional roles of men and women within the family. This has resulted in greater demands of work-life balance (Doherty & Manfredi, 2001).

Although women’s participation in the workforce is widely accepted now, women still continue to carry the major burden of family or caring responsibilities (Whitehouse & Zetlin, 1999). The issue of gender lies at the heart of work-life imbalance. The literature on women’s work-life balance reports that the total demands on employed women (paid work, housework, and child care) are higher than on employed men (Hochschild, 1997; Macran, Joshi & Dex, 1996). Evidences suggest
that there are differences between female and male employees in the factors that contribute to their experience of work-life imbalance (Whitehouse & Zetlin, 1999). According to the Expansionist Theory (Barnett, 2001), gender-roles are expanding and women are becoming more active in professional work life. As a consequence of this trend, maintaining a balance between work and family responsibilities has become a challenge for females. Although both men and women may experience work-family conflict, women report more conflict than men due to them spending more combined time on work and family activities (Frone et al, 1992; Hammer et al., 2005). Woodward (2007) found that women reported high workloads, requiring long working hours, which consumed time and energy otherwise available for other relationships and commitments and their own leisure.

Robinson and Godbey (1997) suggest that for those employed more than 20 hours per week, women spend 30.8 hours doing paid work per week, and men spend 39.7 hours. Women spend 25.6 hours and men spend 14.3 hours on family care, including core house-work, shopping, and caring for children. Thus, for employed women, the total time demands from unpaid and paid work exceed men’s total by 1/2 hours per week. Women have continued to perform ‘female’ tasks like cooking, cleaning, caring for children and shopping. In the same way, men report travelling to stores, shopping, cooking, and doing repairs (Robinson & Godbey, 1997). Bacik and Drew (2006) find out that women have complexity in achieving work-life balance because of stretched hour’s culture. They also hold unequal caring burden in the personal field. Changes are required in organizations to tackle this gender imbalance and thereby improve work-life dynamics.

A major part of literature on work-life balance focuses on studies conducted on women (Burke, 2000; Doherty, 2004; Moore, 2007; Straub, 2012 among others). Anne and Dulk (2012) examined how self employed women with children manage paid work and other domains of life. Autonomy at work appears as one of the important variables which allow them to combine their work more easily along with household duties, social life, childcare and personal life. Napholz (2000) found that the process of balancing different roles as expressed in the participants’ daily life experiences as worker, wife and mothers was a challenge for females. Since women have had to overcome more barriers to attain their positions in organization, they may place greater value on their organizations and jobs than do their male counterparts.
Consequently, work-life balance becomes even more relevant in the case of women (Hayman, 2005).

On the other hand, Buzzanell and Duckworth (2009) interviewed a sample of male respondents to locate how they constructed work-family balance and their role as a father within their life contexts. Using the constant comparative method, they found that these men framed and enlarged work-family balance as both work and life negotiations but considered family as primary. To them, fatherhood implied large amounts of responsibilities and community engagements with problem solving constituting their main activity. These re-conceptualizations of fatherhood and masculinities may indicate that there are ideological changes in the nature of fatherhood that have implications for understanding men’s current roles as well as for changing work-life policies and practices.

2.3.2 Marital Status

The concept of work-life balance is considered as significant in the context of married employees (Dex, 2003). Marriage often leads to sudden changes in nature of family and personal relationships, especially when both husband and wife are working (Crompton, 2002). Duxbury and Higgins (2008) conclude that the parental tasks of working couple leads to the incidence of work-family conflict. This is because they have more family related burden and less control over their work and time. Thus, parents encounter more difficulties in balancing work and non-work activities. Similar results are reported by Bond et al. (1998) who found that parent employees display higher levels of conflict between work-family domain and that spousal support can help in reduction of work-family conflict.

Marital status has even more relevance for work-life balance in the Indian context. In India, personal and family responsibilities change drastically for individuals post-marriage. Family structures, social pressures and traditions often mandate that working people who are married have increased responsibilities as compared to unmarried people (Bacik & Drew, 2006).

Findings have indicated that support from family members, especially from that of spouses, is an important variable which affects work-family balance (Stoner et al.,
Spousal support is the advice, help, understanding that spouses offer for each other (Aycan & Eskin, 2005). It was found that there are two forms of spousal support—instrumental and emotional (Adams, King, & King, 1996). Emotional support from family members, and specifically spouse, helps in reducing work-family conflict (Hollahan & Gilbert, 1979). Ford et al. (2007) too found that spouse support is an important element in minimizing work-family conflict.

Hamilton et al. (2006) added that spousal support is an important concept in helping balance the work and family demands which in turn results in greater well-being. In today’s society, a spouse or a partner can provide key support which is required by working people who are juggling family, home and community responsibilities. This is supported by Aryee et al. (1999) who revealed that spousal support was negatively related to work family conflict. Researchers have found that spousal support is vital in reducing work-family conflict. Peltzer et al. (2003) suggest that lack of spousal support contributed to increased level of stress. There is empirical evidence that work and family support helps an employee to balance work and family regime. Brough and Kelling (2002) reported that family support was negatively and significantly associated with conflicts in the work-family interface. Ford et al. (2007) found that family support alleviated family-work conflict.

Social support that is provided outside the work, such as that provided by friends, family and spouse have a positive impact on work-family balance as it reduces work-family conflict (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1994). Adams, King and King (1996) found that spouse support has a negative relationship with work interfering with family. This finding is steady with the suggestion that families may find it difficult to supply social support to workers when there is conflict between the demands of the worker’s job with the demands of the worker’s family (Beehr, 1985).

Married employees have greater family obligations which constraints their opportunities and hence, increases their work and family demands (Taormina, 1999). The primary reason for this is that being married usually increases a person’s financial burden, thereby serving as a situational constraint. Camilleri (2002) too has suggested that married employees had more financial concerns, thereby, leading to greater work-life concerns. Married employees have a greater need to balance work and family commitments leading to a lack of time and energy to participate in family activities.
This often leads to inter-role conflicts between work and family which may influence turnover intention (Hom & Kinicki, 2001).

Thus, work-life balance issues in the context of married people warrants significant attention as indicated by Fuller et al. (2003), Haar and Spell (2004), Shore and Wayne (1993), in order to strengthen the commitment of married employees to their jobs and organizations, they need to be treated in a supportive manner (e.g. instituting family supportive policies, benefits etc.) that makes them feel valued and enables them to balance work and life domains.

2.3.3 Income/Financial Status

Financial satisfaction is considered as significant in managing work and life (Hsieh, 2000). High income changes the standard of living, and thus, people with good salary structure can take help of paid help in childcare and home care. This can help in the reduction of work-family conflict (Schneer & Reitman, 1993). This works well when both husband and wife are working (Auer, 2002; Crompton, 2001). Dean and Coulter (2006) report that people in the low income groups found it difficult to attain work-life balance especially when they have children. Bennett and Dornan (2006) concluded that proper child-care involves expenditure like medicine, education, basic facilities etc for children. Thus, employers should take initiatives to provide financial support to workers with children; this will enhance job satisfaction and commitment among such employees.

Liff and Ward (2001) conclude that those with high salary package are better able to balance their work and life domain as compared to their counterparts with low salary structure. Voydanoff (1988) has indicated that high-income people experience less shortage of time compared to low-income ones. Their presuming economic strength perhaps helps to satisfy their demands vis-à-vis time. Those professionals and managers who have superior salary package are better able to minimize work-life conflict by taking paid help such as servants and caretakers to enable work-life balance (Graves et al., 2007). There is a positive correlation between income and work-interference with family although the correlation between income and family-interference with work is not clear (Frone, 2000).
On the other hand, certain researchers were unable find any significant association between income and work-life balance (Frone et al, 1997).

### 2.4 Measures of Work Life Balance

Researchers have used diverse methods to measure work-life balance. Hobson et al. (2001) identified life events like health problems, financial crisis and death of loved ones. They studied how support from the employer and organization helps in dealing imbalance that emerge due to mishaps. Employers support and empathy helps in reducing work-family conflicts that may emerge due to such events. Items that were used to measure work-life balance among employees during calamities were ‘Leaves were provided amicably to tackle health issue of family members’ and ‘Psychological support from the employer was there when there is sudden death in the family’.

Dex and Bond (2005) developed an instrument in the form of work-life balance checklist in which they measured covariates of work-life balance. Items which they used were like ‘At the moment, because the job demands it, I usually work long hours’ and ‘I worry about the effect of work stress on my health’ etc. Findings indicated that work-life balance was worse in higher occupation group. The variables considered were age, occupation, sector, gender and family responsibilities. They concluded that work-life balance lack in the occupations where the employee had to work for long weekly hours, especially for women and middle aged employees.

Pichler (2009) researched on work-life balance with the help of a social survey instrument and has presented major insights into the problem of combining family aspirations with work in relation to policy relevant agendas. The instrument used the items like ‘It has been difficult for me to fulfill my family responsibility because of the amount of time I spend on my job’ to measure work load that leads to imbalance in personal life. To measure home related load, item used was ‘find it difficult to concentrate on work because of your family responsibilities’.

Guest (2002) measured work-life balance using organizational (demands at work and home) as well as individual factors (workload). It was concluded in the study that these organizational and individual factors can lead to work-life balance or work-family conflict depending upon the equilibrium between the above two factors.
Geurts et al. (2005) report on the stepwise development of a questionnaire for measuring work-home interaction. The constructs which were used to measure work-life balance were: positive work-home interaction, negative work home interaction, positive home-work interaction and negative home-work interaction. In addition to this, three external variables were considered viz. job characteristics, home characteristics and health as an indicator of well-being. The results of the study showed that the research instrument consistently measured four empirically diverse types of work-home interaction. Validity confirmation was also provided based on the relations with external variables. The results supported the hypothesized relationships of the external variables with negative work-home interaction. However, less support was found for the hypothesized relationships with positive work-home interaction. This contributes to existing literature as it employs a comparatively wide conceptualization of work-home interaction and thereby offers a robust tool that measures its manifold components across a wide range of workers.

Hayman (2005) measured work-life balance in a way that both positive and negative aspects were considered. Three constructs of work-life balance were considered viz. work interference with personal life, personal life interference with work and work-personal life enhancement. The three constructs were validated as indicators of work-life balance.

Mcmillan and Morris (2011) measured work life balance with a tool where they accommodated constructs like time-based family interference with work, time-based work interference with family, and likewise for strain based and behavior based interference. It was concluded that the work-family conflict is one of the most valid measures that can be used for work-family studies.

Casper, Weltman and Kwaresiga (2007) examined work-life balance from the perspective of single employees who are without children. Work-life balance was measured by developing a multi dimensional scale, where they assessed five dimensions which were considered ideal for single employees (without children). These dimensions were equal access to benefits, equal work expectations, social inclusion, equal work opportunities and equal respect for non work life. It was found that married employees with families perceived these dimensions positively than did singles.
Several other researchers have also made efforts to measure and understand the concept of work-life balance. Table 2.1 summarizes the type of constructs that have been considered by different researchers.

**Table 2.1: Constructs of Work-life Balance**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Researchers</th>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Ngo and Lau (1998)                               | Work-family interference       |  Hours of work  
 Family orientation  
 Family-work conflict |
 Affection towards work  
 Value towards work |
| George and Fletcher (2012)                        | Work-family balance            |  Time for work  
 Time for travelling  
 Time for family  
 Social interaction |
| Matthews, Farrel and Bulger (2010)                | Work-family domain             |  Work-flexibility ability  
 Work-flexibility willingness  
 Family-flexibility ability  
 Family-flexibility willingness |
| Kenny *et al.* (2013)                             | Work-family broadening         |  Work interference with life  
 Domain importance  
 Domain satisfaction |
| Burke, Weir and Duwors (1980)                     | Work-related time conflict     |  Hours of work  
 Commuting  
 Physical availability |
| Greenhaus and Beutell (1985)                      | Work-life conflict             |  Time based conflict  
 Behavior based conflict  
 Strain based conflict |
| Netemeyer *et al.* (1996)                         | Work-family conflict           |  Bi-directional time and strain components of conflicts |
 Enhancement  
 Enrichment |
 Family stress  
 Depression in employees |
| Pleck *et al.* (1980)                             | Work-family conflict           |  Strain based conflict  
 Fatigue  
 Irritability |

*Source: Prepared by the Researcher*

Researchers have treated work-life balance differently. While some have treated it as independent variable, a few others have treated it as dependent variable and some as mediator. Table 2.2 shows how work-life balance has been examined (e.g. independent, dependent and mediator) by different researchers.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESEARCHERS</th>
<th>INDEPENDENT VARIABLE</th>
<th>DEPENDENT VARIABLE</th>
<th>MEDIATING VARIABLE</th>
<th>CONTROL VARIABLE</th>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td> Enrichment</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td> Balance</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Pocock (2005)</td>
<td>Labor market change</td>
<td>Work life balance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Hayman (2005)</td>
<td>Work-life balance dimensions:</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td> Work interference with personal life.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td> Personal life interference with work</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td></td>
<td> Work/personal life enhancement</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allen &amp; Kiburz (2011)</td>
<td>Work-family balance</td>
<td>Trait mindfulness</td>
<td>Sleep quality and vitality</td>
<td>Work hours and marital status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fersugan, Carlson &amp; Zivnuska (2014)</td>
<td>Work-family balance practices</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Solomon (2011)</td>
<td>Tenure of job</td>
<td>Work-life management</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Source</td>
<td>Complexity and dynamism experienced as experienced by individuals</td>
<td>Work-life balance</td>
<td>Munificence of resources, accessibility of resources, personal value system and personality differences</td>
<td>Self efficacy, locus of control, positive/negative effect, personality hardness, self reliance, economics, information, geography, profession, family, community employer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Crooker, Smith &amp; Tabak (2002)</td>
<td>Perceived work-life balance support</td>
<td>Leaving intention, job satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>McCarthy, Cleveland, Hunter, Darcy &amp; Grady (2013)</td>
<td>Flexible work arrangement</td>
<td>Job satisfaction, Turnover intention</td>
<td>Perceived supervisory support, perceived organizational support</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McNall, Masuda &amp; Nicklin (2010)</td>
<td>Work life conflict</td>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>Work family enrichment</td>
<td>Gender, Age, Education, Marital status, number of children &amp; number of hours worked</td>
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<td>Nadeem &amp; Abbas (2009)</td>
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Source: Prepared by the Researcher
2.4.1: Antecedents of Work-life Balance

A numbers of factors have been found to affect work life balance. Ngo and Lau (1998) examined that there are two aspects of work and family boundary i.e. work inference with family and family interference with work. It has been found that there are large number of job related factors (e.g. hours of work, career salience and work involvement) that have direct bearing on the work life balance of both male and female executives.

Lauzun et al. (2010) examined how supervisors act in response to the work-life balance requirements of their employees through qualitative research. Findings reveal that flexibility and schedule changes were the most frequently requested work-life accommodation and that such type of requests were accommodated 58% of the time. Supervisors responded to desires for modification and work resources to daily work. The most common barrier to obliging employees’ request was deficiency authority. Results provide significant insight into the ways that work organizations can hold and authorize supervisors to provide employees’ with work life balance.

Warner and Hausdorf (2009) suggested that organization and supervisor support helps in attaining work-life balance. McPherson (2007) stated that there cannot be work-life balance in any organization without top management support as they are the one who are policy makers. Lockwood (2003) discovered different tactics that should be employed by the top management to achieve balance in work-life. Frone et al. (1997) suggested that organizational as well as supervisory support lead to work-life balance. Lauzun et al (2010) showed that flexibility and schedule changes were the most frequently requested work-life factors. Family friendly policies provide benefits to an employee’s family. Nowadays, these are being used by e top management as a strategy to provide work-life balance in the organization (Dizaho & Othman, 2013). Policies such as child and spouse support helps an employee to meet demands from the family which help reduce work-family conflict (Amah, 2010). Similarly, policies like working from home help employees in maintaining work-life balance (Tipping et al., 2012).

Valcour and Hunter (2005) suggest that working from home provides flexibility and helps achieve work-life balance especially in women employees. One of the other employee friendly policy is teleworking which provide employees with a chance to
manage work and life issues amicably (Byrne, 2005). A policy related to child care assistance is also one of the important aspects vis-à-vis work-life balance. Pre-school and school going children are in need of their parents and this is the matter of concern for all working parents. Thus, children-supportive policies also lead to work-life equilibrium among employees (Beauregard et al. 2009). Hooker et al. (2007) suggested that policies related to emergency leave, maternity leave and study leave also act as antecedents to Work-life Balance.

It has been shown that non-standard hours of work have a negative bearing on work-life balance (Byrne, 2005). In India, Factories Act (1948) states that an employee should not be allowed to work for more than five consecutive hours without a period of rest. Williams (2008) stated that if an employee works 46 hours or more in a week then that employee will be dissatisfied and stressed. Tipping et al. (2012) stated that an employee has to work 1900 hours per year and that it is based on the number of working hours/week minus holidays. Beyond this, it leads to work-life imbalance. Compressed working weeks or compressed hours of work can help an employee to work few days in which they have to achieve their targets and then they can manage their family responsibilities during other days. Flexi time enables employee to maintain proper work-life balance (Tipping et al., 2012). Flexi time bears positive impact on an employee’s productivity (Kossek et al., 2011). In the same way, flexi time enables women employees to achieve greater balance between family and work roles (Scandura & Lankau 1997).

### 2.4.2 Outcomes of Work-life Balance

Work-life balance policies affect the well-being of workers (Hayward et al., 2007). According to Allen (2001), WLB is often seen in terms of organization commitment. It is expected that work life balance enhances an employee’s commitment towards the organization. Organizational commitment is the individual’s emotional attachment to the organization. The basis behind many studies has been to find ways to improve how workers feel about their jobs so that these workers would become more committed to their organizations. Organizational commitment predicts work variables such as organization citizenship behavior, turnover, and job performance.
Eaton (2003) found that WLB practices improved employees’ organizational commitment, but only to the extent that employees felt free to use the practices without negative consequences to their work lives such as damaged career prospects. According to Liff and Cameron (1997), use of work-life leave provisions is low among staff with career aspirations due to the belief that taking such leave will be interpreted as a lack of commitment to the organization. Interference between work and non-work responsibilities has a number of negative outcomes. In terms of job attitudes, employees reporting high levels of both work-to-life and life-to-work conflict tend to exhibit lower levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Spector (1997) concluded that employee who is better able to balance work and family issues will have lower level of stress and will be more committed and satisfied. Further, Forsyth and Polzer-Debruyne (2007) suggested that effective WLB policies help in reducing turnover intentions and increases job performance. If there are policies that are employee friendly then that will lead to increased job satisfaction, affective commitment and reduced intention to quit (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). It was also found that organizational commitment is associated with turnover intentions of employee (Meyer & Allen, 1997). There is inverse relationship between organizational commitment and leaving intentions, which means that if there is high Organizational commitment then there will be lower intentions to quit and vice-versa (Elangovan, 2001).

Loyalty is also a type of commitment. Aityan (2011) defined employee loyalty as being committed to the success of the organization and an employee’s feeling that working for this organization is the best option that they have. Moen, Roehling and Roehling (2001) suggested that flexi time policies, support of supervisor and all related things have direct bearing on employee loyalty. Supervisor’s support reduces work-family role conflict and enhances loyalty among employees (Bond et al., 1998). Wayne, Shore and Liden (1997) suggested that supervisor’s support involves the type of social exchange that creates obligation among employees and finally leads to loyalty. WLB has a positive impact on employee loyalty (Dizaho & Othman 2013).

It has been found that WLB has a positive impact on organization citizenship behavior too (Lambert, 2000). Osterman (1995) suggested that WLB programs enhance commitment and loyalty in employees and then that leads to organization citizenship behavior. Organ (1988) defined organization citizenship behavior as the
behavior which is discretionary and beneficial to the organization and is shown by an employee without any greed of reward and such behavior promotes organization effectiveness.

Job satisfaction is also seen as one of the positive outcomes of WLB. Spector (1997) defined job satisfaction as how people feel about their job. It depends on the extent to which people are satisfied or dissatisfied with their job. Serrano and Vieira (2005) discovered that job satisfaction is an important predictor of overall well-being and employee’s intentions to quit. There is a relationship between job satisfaction and employee retention (Arthur, 2001). Rose et al. (2007) suggested that supervisor’s support and employee friendly policies etc. that help in attaining WLB enhance job satisfaction as well. Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2000) too concluded that job satisfaction is a positive outcome of WLB. Forsyth and Polzer-Debruyne (2007) suggested that when an employee perceives that his employer is supportive and is helpful in integrating family and work related issues, it results in higher level of job satisfaction and organization commitment. Hughes and Bozionelos (2007) find out that there is impact of work obligations on personal life and that there is a linkage between the WLB and job satisfaction. Babakus et al. (1996) found out that if there is fairness in policies the workers are likely to be more satisfied.

It has been found that nature of job, workplace environment; employee friendly policies and organizational culture have positive impact on work-life balance (Berg et al., 2003). All employee friendly policies that are beneficial to employees increases job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Berg et al., 2003). In addition to this, Grover and Crooker (1995), used 1991 General Social Survey and examined that family responsive policies, flexible work schedule and dependent care, as part of WLB policies, have positive impact on turnover intentions and organizational commitment. Batt and Valcour (2003) suggested that if employee friendly policies are induced in the organization then there will be reduced turnover among employees.

Work-life balance in an organization leads to more committed and satisfied employees and such outcomes will lead to financial benefits to organization. Thompson et al. (1999) found that various renowned companies made measurable financial benefits after including flexible working patterns and other work-life balance policies. Beauregard and Henry (2009) suggested that work-life practices rest on
attracting better applicants and reducing work-life conflict, hence it enhances organizational performance.

Fleetwood (2007) suggested that policies and practices related to work-life balance reap such benefits to the organization that can be measured financially. These benefits are:

- Increase productivity
- Improved recruitment and retention
- Lower absenteeism
- Reduced overhead
- Improved customer experience
- Motivated and satisfied workforce

Thus, it can be inferred that policies related to work-life balance lead to increased productivity, improved recruitment and retention, improved customer experience and lower level of absenteeism and overhead etc.

2.5 Work Life Balance in Academics

Work-life balance has been talked about from the last two decades. Due to globalization, there is increase in the dual earning couples in the workforce, shift from joint to nuclear family system, corrosion of the boundaries between family and work and, increased work pressure, and so on (De Cieri et al. 2005). Like in other professions, faculty members of higher education Institutions also reported work-life imbalance (Kalimo & Hakanen, 2000). Work-life imbalance among the faculty members of higher education institutes usually arises out of a lack of adequate time to manage their work and family responsibilities.

Teachers are pivot of higher educational system in any country and in the country like India where economic development entirely depends upon the well-informed, experienced and skilled human resources. It is very important that both the employees and the employer realize the benefits of enhancing work life balance of the employee’s of educational institutes. Work-life balance policies not only work for good of the institutions, but also for the teachers and have a larger impact on the society as a whole (Punia & Kamboj, 2013). Unless and until the top management understands the importance of work-life balance in an individual’s personal and
professional life then they will never like to put any effort towards the achievement of work-life balance among the faculty members of their Institution. Teachers need good job environment, recognition, security, independence, new experience and so on. When these needs are not fulfilled they become tense. A Dissatisfied teacher will not be able to make any positive contribution towards the growth of students. So the factors which affect their stay in their profession need to be highlighted. Work-life balance emerged as one of the most important factors affecting the satisfaction of teachers. If they experience a high work life balance then they will be willing to stay with an organization (Darling & Mclaughlin, 2003).

Teaching is seen as a stressful profession and hence, the need for work-life balance arises (Rosser, 2004). Another important reason for conducting studies on work-life balance in the context of academicians is because this profession has overwhelmingly large number of females in comparison to other professions (Acker, 1992). Clark (2001) concluded that it is the only profession that has a diverse magnitude of work related variables such as authority; pattern of work; career identification and these dimensions differ with different respect to nature of institute and subjects. Thus, the concept of work-family balance is significant for teachers.

Near and Sorcinelli (1989) studied the ways in which work and personal life are connected in the context of university faculty members. This study identifies differences on the basis of rank and gender and also suggests implication of family-friendly policies for institutions of higher education. Jacobs and Winslow (2004) explored the relationship between faculty workload and their dissatisfaction. They found that professors were dissatisfied because of their workload. In addition, dissatisfaction increases among those working the longest hours. They also point out that extensive hours on the job really contribute to research efficiency. The extended hours demanded by faculty jobs therefore pose a problem for those parents (professors) who want to spend time with their families and their children.

Punia and Kamboj (2013) suggested that work-life balance is vital to teacher satisfaction and efficiency in the context of student learning. They proved that work-life balance results in the wellness of the faculty and also enhances student performance and behavior. Thus, college authorities need to focus on the above aspects of work-life balance and job satisfaction in order to enhance teaching quality and student performance.
Solomon (2011) showed that academician’s tenure of the service is important. It was found that male and female assistant professors handled their tasks better in relation to work and private life. It was also found that female faculty members who tend to become mothers at some stage in pre-tenure are termed as less dedicated towards their job. It has been found that academicians who accomplish their work by balancing their private life are safer economically.

Heijstra and Rafnsdottir (2010) analyze whether the Internet and other communication technologies affect work-family balance amongst academicians. The study challenges the idea that the internet makes it easier for academicians to establish work-family balance. The spread of communication technologies has increased the expectations and demands on teachers to be available around the clock for work. It was found that the use of Internet increases the work demands on academicians and thus, increases work-family conflict.

Hohm and Shore (1998) examined the personal and institutional challenges women face from the time they enter the academic job until the time they achieve tenure. Light has also been thrown on the different problems that are faced by female academicians. These include the challenges of being a single parent, having a child with a disability, having a dependent (old parent etc.) and lack of domestic help.

Rosser (2004) opined that there is little understanding of how demographic variables, institutional and professional work-life issues, and satisfaction interact to explain faculty intentions to leave. Findings indicate that the perceptions of faculty members towards their work-life have a direct and influential impact on their satisfaction and organization commitment. Jacobs (1998) explored the time demands on academic life and concluded that the expectations of academic life in dual-career couples are hard to reconcile with the demands of parenting.

Garrett and Ssesanga (2005) examined job satisfaction of academicians in higher education and found that the stimuli that create academic dissatisfaction are largely extrinsic (contextual) factors with respect to facets of remuneration, governance, research, promotion, and working environment.

Ward and Wolf-Wendel (2006) explored the interface between work and family at different types of institutions from the perspective of women faculty who are on the tenure track and who are mothers of young children. Such a perspective provides
insight into institutional variation on academic life in general, and for new faculty as 
mothers in particular. A macro view of the findings points to two major concerns: 
time (and lack thereof) and its impact on the ‘ideal worker’ norms that shape what it 
means to be a good mother and good professor at different time.

Erskine and Spalter-Roth (2005) found that making use of at least one work/family 
policy does help academic mothers increase their productivity (without increasing 
their hours of work). But it also appears that this help is not treated as a needs-based 
entitlement. Lease (1999) found that presence of work-related stress and strain is 
viewed as a serious concern for faculty, particularly newer and female faculty. The 
study examined differences in levels of occupational stress and personal strain 
experienced by new and experienced female and male faculty. Factors affecting the 
stress-strain relationship were also examined. There were no significant differences 
on measures of stress or strain between male and female faculty or between new and 
more experienced faculty members.

Waltman and August (2004) find out that the retention of female faculty is an 
important issue for institutions offering higher education aiming for excellence and 
diversity. However, an essential step in understanding retention is to examine what 
contributes to career satisfaction for academic women.

2.6 Work-life Balance Practices: Global Scenario

Work-life balance practices vary from country to country as work and life patterns are 
different across countries. Work-life issues differ according to the differences in the 
organization, the society, the market and the family (Brough et al., 2008). Hence, a 
cross-country comparison on work life balance points out difference in the perception, 
usage and implication among different countries, and how good work-life balance 
policies lead to higher GDP and thus, helps in the development of an economy (Punia 

Most studies on work-life balance have been conducted in Western countries ( Geurts 
et al., 2005; Forsyth & Polzer-Deburyne, 2007; Wallace, 1999; Kim, 2014). This is 
primarily because the concept of work-life balance has emerged in the Western world 
(Kofodimos, 1993). It is the Western countries that led the world in the emergence of 
phenomena like advanced modern technology, telecommuting, corporate culture,
availability of workers round the clock, dual earner couples and entry of independent women in work-place. As a result, the concept of work-life balance emerged from the Western countries (Crooker, Smith & Tabak, 2002; Johansson, 2002).

To cope up with the problem of work-life policies were framed by the governments of different countries. Focus was given on child-care a program that was a direct result of the growing number of women entering the workforce between 1970s and 1980s. Further, various types of employee assistance programs were also introduced by many governments and corporations in the 1970s (Pocock 2003; Probert 2002; Reed et al. 2003). All these initiatives showed the importance given to human resource and their work-life balance (Whittle, 2008).

The establishment of OECD (Organization of Economic and Co-operation Development) in 1961 was an initiative to kindle world trade and economic progress by introducing polices which were helpful for human resources. An important initiative of OECD in this direction was the introduction of internationally comparable well-being indicators viz. work-life balance, health, income and wealth, housing, jobs and earnings, education, societal connections, personal security, environmental quality, civic engagement and governance and subjective well being through which it was seen how countries stand up with employees vis-à-vis work-life related issues (OECD, 2014). According to OECD rankings of 2015, it has been found that all developed countries have good work-life balance practices as a result of which they are able to reap financial profits. As per the rankings the top ten countries are from the West. Most of the studies on work-life balance have also been conducted in these OECD countries like. Some of these are Australia, UK, USA, New Zealand, Sweden and Ireland (Bacik & Drew, 2006; Bekkengen, 2002; Brough et al., 2008; Gunnigle et al., 1998; Holt & Grainger, 2005; Schuman, 2010).

Work-life balance policies in the US have focused mainly on freedom and flexibility at work. Organizations are providing a complete set of solutions to work-life problems including access to telework, expected schedules and compressed workweeks (Tregaskis et al., 1998). Research on work-life balance dates back to the early 60s when they had started the policies to help employees in achieving their work-life balance (Hodson, 1997).
In the US there are several statutory provisions which help employees attain work-life balance. For instance, Family and Medical Leave (1993) Act provides working families the right to avail unpaid leave with no risk of losing the job. According to the Accrued Sick & Safe Leave Act (2008) workers in businesses can earn compensated sick leaves every year. This paid time off can be used to recover from illnesses and care for sick family member.

The Balancing Act (2009) was introduced by the Department of Labor in USA to tackle issues such as childcare and medical need assistance. This bill includes a child care incentive program. Another family-friendly act is Family and Medical Leave Enhancement Act (1993) which allow employees to take time off from their work to participate in their children’s school activities. Childcare assistance is the most prevalent work-life program in US where 97% of employers provide the assistance to their workers. Tuition fee reimbursement is also given to those employees who are pursuing higher or part time studies and opportunities for personal development are also common in USA (Schuman, 2010).

Employees of US companies feel that they have a work culture to work in teams and they have strong and amicable relationship with their team-members which is key to their work-life balance (Cohen & Bailey, 1997; Hodson, 2001). It was also found that enhanced technology and work from home culture in US based companies has also helped employees in balancing their work and life (Ehrhart et al., 2011).

In UK, the government believes in providing work-life balance to its human resources so that they can reap better benefits. The government has introduced laws giving working parents with children below six years (or 18 years if child is disabled) the right to ask employers to consider desires for flexible working (DTI, 2003). It has been found that flexible work is when an employee is employed for not more than 30 hours a week (Hannabuss, 1998). The European Employment Strategy is to produce a more adjustable and flexible labor force. Further developments in the UK legislation contribute to the decline of full-time working standards. Men are not expected to request a reduction in working hours but they are more likely to seek flexi-time options, while retaining full-time work (Holt & Grainger, 2005). Results from the second Flexible Working Survey in UK, report that 73 per cent of women and 63 per cent of men had requests which are fully approved by their employer (Holt & Grainger, 2005).
In spite of the legal provisions that were adopted by the UK Government, there are several initiatives that were taken by the employers of the private organizations in UK to help their employees in reducing work-family conflict (Mayne et al., 1996). It was found that service sector and some large organizations in UK have significantly more flexibility than other organizations (Persaud, 2001). In the UK, equality and valuing employees’ agenda are considered most important for work-life balance (Maxwell & McDougall, 2004). The type of work-life policies that are appreciated by employees of UK are flexible work arrangements, reduced work hours, personal leave and policies designed to ‘work-place social support’ to parents (Eaton, 2003; Glass & Finley, 2002; Hogarth et al., 2000; Perrons, 2003).

The impact of inclusion of work-life balance policies in Ireland has led to increase in numbers of part-time workers from 15 per cent of the total workforce to over 20 per cent, 70 per cent of whom are females (Central Statistics Office Ireland, 1993). Job sharing is a very common form of work that has many productive aspects and is also observed as a part of work-life balance practice. It is an employee driven movement and is broadly used in reaction to the need for family-friendly policies or as a means to tackle the unemployment crisis in some countries (Gunnigle, 1998). It is widely used in Ireland especially in the education sector. Other successful initiatives of the Irish Government include Work-Life Balance Day, which is celebrated on March 1 each year. The government has introduced several initiatives which include work-life balance related information, resources, ideas as well as consultancy services, toolkits, checklists and guidelines for employers, employees and union.

There are equal opportunities to avail work-life balance policies for both males and females in Sweden. The policies thus, adopted have encouraged availability for work of a large number of female employees on the same conditions as men. These policies have also attempted to increase men’s availability for the family through better paternal leave policies (Bekkengen, 2002).

The Swedish welfare state has been identified to inculcate such policies as it wants for both male and female employees to provide care and financial support for their children and the home (Esping-Andersen, 1990). In practice, there are still gendered patterns, particularly in relation to the family. In Sweden, a very high percentage of women work part-time (65 %) when compared to men (11 %). Parents with children aged below eight years have a legal right to reduce their working hours up to 25 per
cent; though take-up is far more usual amongst women than men. However, a woman’s unpaid work hours decreased between 1990 and 2015, while the time spent by men on unpaid work was constant (central bureau of statistics, Sweden, 2006). It is interesting to note that even in a gender-egalitarian country such as Sweden, women still have the main liability for family (Duncan et al., 2003).

New Zealand has promoted the significance of work-life balance among employees. The New Zealand government lists a number of legislation that provides provisions for work life balance. Even an integrated policy expansion program was planned to promote family-friendly policies. The New Zealand Department of Labor’s Future (2004) provided a wide choice of information on best work life balance practices and the new government policies and laws. An important initiative in New Zealand is a policy known as ‘equal employment opportunities trust’ where recognition is given every year to the organization with the best work-life balance practices and policies. The organizations have to supply evidence whether the work-life balance policies are benefitting the organization and the employees or not (Government of New Zealand, Dept of Labor).

There are number of statutory benefits in New Zealand that apply to work-life balance. For instance, under the Parental Leave and Employment Protection Act (2002) in New Zealand, pregnant women are permitted to avail ten days of special leave to attend medical engagements. Any employee whose spouse or partner has recently had a child is allowed to avail two weeks of paternity or partner leave and 52 weeks of extensive unpaid leave can be shared between partners after the adoption or birth of a child.

Australia is more closely related to New Zealand and U.K. as far as work-family balance practices are concerned. In Australia there is a provision of National Work and Family award that was implemented by the Australian government to give reward to the organizations that have inculcated work-life policies. In Australia, according to Workplace Relations Act 1996, employees are allowed to avail unpaid parental and maternity leave up to 52 weeks. This leave is also accessible to parents who adopt a child.
2.7 Work-life Balance in India

Research on work-life balance (WLB) has increased in recent years in India. Academicians and practitioners affirm that the implementation of work-life balance practices helps in achieving better organizational results and it has improved employee outcomes such as higher satisfaction and commitment and reduced turnover intentions (Amah, 2010). However, some authors have argued that there are differences between the availability of work-life balance practices in companies and employees’ perceptions of access to such practices in India (Bharat, 2008; Rai, 2010).

The rumble in the Indian economy has made a stronger case for work-life balance in India. The Indian labor force is in bigger stress than their counterparts in developing nations (Regus, 2011). Increase in percentage of working women has also contributed to the complexity. In India, there are several legal provisions in India which are believed to help employees in achieving their work-life balance. For instance, according to Maternity Benefit Act (1961) paid leave should be given to women workers for maternity period. It entitles every woman to payment of maternity benefit at the rate of average daily wage for the period of her actual absence and the period following the date of delivery.

The Factories Act (1948) requires employers to have provisions related to working hours, workplace safety, health, facilities related to welfare like a crèche etc. The Sixth Pay Commission (2008) introduced child care leave for female government employees. It would facilitate women employees to take care of their children at the time of need. Likewise, there are many other legal provisions in India that seek to provide various benefits to employees to enable them to manage their work and life better. However, there are no major statutory provisions aimed directly at providing work-life balance. The existing labor laws and social security provisions only partially fulfill the need for employee’s work-life balance. Further, most of these legislations are old and have not kept pace with the times and changing corporate scenario.

Various studies have been carried out in the Indian context on work-life balance. However, despite certain initiatives taken by the Government of India, Work-life balance policies are not still taken seriously from the perspective of Indian employees (Punia and Sharma, 2008). Most policies exist only on paper. This is the reason why India figures at the bottom in the rankings on work-life balance by OECD in 2015.
Agarwal (2012) concludes that work-life balance initiatives impact employee’s personal and professional performance. It aims to develop employees’ attitude towards work-life balance initiatives and that supervisor’s support and inclusion of work-life balance policies are essential for employees to achieve balance between their work and life. Mathew and Panchanathan (2010) examined the association between different dimensions of work-life balance with organization commitment. It was found that employees in India are in need of work-life balance policies in their organizations and that monotony is identified as the worst factor that decreases efficiency of employees.

Ramachandra and Babu (2007) found that flexi-time can reduce employee’s stress when included in an organizational policy as a part of a work life balance practice. When flexi-time is being provided to employees, it helps in reducing stress. The study found a significant association between flexi-time and employee’s stress reduction. The findings of the study shows that most of the managerial personnel are able to shrink their employees stress levels with the help of flexi-time as one of the vital work-life balance practice. Irfan and Azmi (2015) concluded that that if in an organization there are flexible work schedule, supervisor’s support and family friendly policies then there will be outcomes like more committed and satisfied employees and they will also have reduced intention to quit the organization and such positive outcomes will reap positive financial benefits to the organization.

Talking about the work-life balance problems of the Indian teachers, Irfan and Azmi (2015) suggested that in Indian scenario there is lack of communication between the teachers and universities authority. Thus, Interaction between teacher and higher authorities should be enhanced so that teachers can share their problems. Interaction between authorities and teachers should be enhanced to understand WLB issues confronted by teachers. Balance should be established between workload distributions, leisure time and extra-curricular activities so as to engender academic excellence.

2.8 Work-life Balance, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

Research studies found link between work-life balance, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. It has been found that work-life balance relates to
positive outcomes like job satisfaction, organizational commitment, employee retention and loyalty etc (Atkinson, 2011; Azeem & Akhtar, 2014; Azeem & Altalhi, 2015; Irfan & Azmi, 2015).

Kossek (2005) suggests that work-life support is positively related to behavioral and affective outcomes at work (i.e. work-life balance, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviors and retention) According to Kossek (2005), there has been a sturdy boost in dual-earner couples, single parent families and employees who have responsibilities for elder. These pressures have negative effects on employees and organizational outcomes (Anderson, Coffey & Byerly, 2002). Furthermore, Bragger et al. (2005) added that these types of increased pressure can have a negative impact on organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior.

To compensate these negative impacts, it is vital to be aware of the value of social support at work, along with flexi-time policies and lenient leave procedures. Employees’ peers as well as supervisors may also help in reducing these negative impacts (Chan et al., 2015). Coworkers have the capability to ease an employee temporarily from his job duties in order to help him. For example, if an employee wants to leave early from work to take care of a sick child, a coworker can show his supportiveness through staying up late for that employee. This can help reduce work-life (Brummelhuis et al., 2012). Thus, the support received and reduction in pressure helps in achieving work-life balance. This further enhances employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Lauren, 2013).

### 2.8.1 Job Satisfaction: Conceptual Overview

Job satisfaction is seen as one of the positive outcomes of work-life balance. Spector (1997) defined job satisfaction in terms of how employees feel about their job. It depends on the degree to which employee are satisfied or dissatisfied with their job. Serrano and Vieira (2005) found that job satisfaction is an important predictor of overall well-being and employees’ intentions to quit. Thus, there exists a relationship between job satisfaction and employee retention (Arthur, 2001).

Locke (1969) defined the concept of job satisfaction as the enjoyable emotional state which results from the evaluation of one’s job as achieving what one wants to. Job
satisfaction is also considered as a strong predictor of individual well-being (Serrano & Vieira, 2005), as well as a good indicator of intentions of employees to leave a job (Gazioglu & Tansel, 2002). An alternative approach is proposed by Sousa-Poza and Sousa-Poza (2000) based on the postulation that there are fundamental human needs and that, if an individual’s needs are satisfied in their existing situation, then that individual will be content. This framework assumes that job satisfaction depends upon the balance between work related inputs and outputs. These inputs include efforts, education, working time and work-role. The outputs may include status, wages, working conditions, fringe benefits and intrinsic aspects of the job. If work-role output is proportional to work-role inputs then job satisfaction will be achieved (Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza, 2000).

The theory of job satisfaction is being studied for more than 50 years (Dresen, 2003). It is one of the most investigated concepts within the human resources area (Oshagbemi, 1999). A large numbers of instruments are there to measure the concept of job satisfaction. The instruments most commonly used to measure job satisfaction are the Job Descriptive Index (Boswell & Boudreau, 2000; Stanton et al., 2002); the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Kaplan et al., 2012; Weiss et al., 1967); The Job Diagnostic Survey. (Kumar et al., 2011; Hackman & Oldham, 1975), and the Warr’s Job Satisfaction Scale (Warr, Cook & Wall, 1979). In the education sector, the Teaching Satisfaction Scale (Ho & Au, 2006), and the scale developed by Nicolescu et al. (2009) have been used. There are numerous instruments that have been developed to evaluate employees’ satisfaction in other sectors as well, (Ssesanga & Garrett, 2005; Yang, 2010).

Lots of researches has been done to measure the work-life balance among the employees of government as well as private organizations including IT, banks and insurance sectors (Agarwal, 2012; Matthew Panchnathan, 2010), but there is still paucity of research conducted on teachers of higher educational institutes. Education is potentially the utmost social equalizer and higher education plays a vital role and provides a very deep impact in creating culture, society and economic wellbeing of new generation (Badat, 2001). Thus, the teacher’s work-life is a necessary and indeed, the key ingredient for improving the nation. Faculty members have to do an enormous task of preparing the future citizens of the country and if teachers themselves are struggling in managing their work-life balance then how will they be able to give their
best to the students and in the end, not only the teachers but the students will also suffer (Punia & Kamboj, 2013).

Lacy and Sheehan (1997) examined the aspects of teachers’ satisfaction with their occupation across the eight different nations (Australia, Germany, Hong Kong, Israel, Mexico, Sweden, UK, and USA). The study explored patterns of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction more closely, and examined the impact of working climate and atmosphere on general levels of job satisfaction. Exciting patterns emerged across different countries reflecting differences in the academic climate at international level. Results indicated that factors were associated to the environment in which academician’s work, which includes atmosphere of the workplace, sense of belongingness, morale and interaction with colleagues.

Academicians spend large amount on their time working at home (Gerstyl, 1971; Harry & Goldner, 1972). They fix vacations to their work by scheduling them to overlap with conferences or leaves (Gerstyl, 1971). Academicians, especially those who are growth oriented, voraciously read within and outside their discipline (Wilson & Gaff, 1975), and tend to mingle with other academicians of their interest and working styles (Bayer, 1973; Finkelstein, 1984). In this way, academicians have to work hard, and have to maintain balance between work and family (Wilensky, 1960).

In the same line of thought, Punia and Kamboj (2013) suggested that work-life balance is vital to teacher satisfaction and efficiency in the context of student learning. They proved that a good quality work-life balance results in the wellness of the faculty and also enhanced student behavior. Thus, college authorities need to focus on the above aspects of job satisfaction in order to enhance teaching quality and student performance.

2.8.2 Organizational Commitment: Conceptual Overview

Organizational commitment has captured the mind and hearts of researchers for many years. Practitioner have been equally captivated because of the attractive consequences endorsed to high levels of organizational commitment such as higher job satisfaction, increased effort, more retention and decreased absenteeism (Morrow, 1993). Commitment is the psychological attachment that an employee has for his or her organization. Work life balance is often seen in relation with organization
commitment. It is projected that work life balance enhances an employee’s organizational commitment (Loy & Wharton, 2004).

Meyer and Allen (1997) defined organizational commitment as a psychological link between the employee and his organization that makes it less likely that the employee will willingly leave the organization. They explained organizational commitment through attitudes and orientations that link individual identity with an organization, through having congruent goals, through involvement of that individual with the organization, through rewards associated with continuous participation, through costs associated with leaving the job, and through the willingness to work in accordance with organizational goals. Mowday et al. (1982) defined organizational commitment as a strong identification of an employee with a particular organization or company; when positive, it inculcates a feeling of proud.

Allen and Meyer (1990) proposed a three-component model of organizational commitment on the basis of the idea that organizational commitment comes in three distinct forms: affective attachment to the organization, perceived costs of leaving it, and a felt obligation to stay. These three forms are affective, continuance, and normative commitment, respectively, are referred to as components of organizational commitment. The affective component is defined as employees’ emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. The continuance component is defined as the perception of costs associated with leaving the organization. Finally, the normative component refers to employees’ feeling of obligation to remain with the organization. As such, the three-component model of organizational commitment ties together three separate streams of earlier commitment research (Becker, 1960; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Wiener, 1982).

Organizational commitment can be described as an attachment and loyalty towards the organization. Employees can display this attachment and loyalty at different levels: supervisor, seniors, their job, profession and the department (Osterman, 1996). Organization commitment can be seen by the level of employee absenteeism, leave and turnover etc. More frequently these factors exist; less is the level of organization commitment (Verona, 1996). More specifically, organizational commitment has been defined by Mowday et al. (1982) as containing three components viz. identification.
with the goals and values of the organisation, a desire to belong to the organisation and a willingness to display effort on behalf of the organizations.

Guest (1987) concluded that human resource management policies are designed to capitalize on flexibility, organizational integration, employee commitment, and quality of work. Bailyn (1997) suggested that when an employee is visible at work, often for long hours, it is seen as a sign of organization commitment, loyalty, capability and high potential. Organization commitment has continued to receive considerable attention both from academics and practitioners.

Among all forms of work commitment, organization commitment enjoys the most popularity (Morrow 1983). One reason for this is confirmation showing that organization whose members have high commitment show high performance and productivity as well as lower turnover and absenteeism and they attain competitive advantage over other organizations (Porter et al. 1974; Wiener & Vardi, 1980).

According to Liff and Cameron (1997), use of leave provisions is low among staff with career aspirations due to the belief that taking leave will be interpreted as a lack of commitment to the organization. Interference between work and non-work responsibilities has a number of negative outcomes. In terms of job attitudes, employees reporting high levels of both work-to-life and life-to-work conflict tend to exhibit lower levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998).

Meyer and Allen (1991) distinguished three forms of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative. Affective commitment refers to the emotional attachment of individuals to organizations. Continuance commitment is associated with the intention to remain with the organization due to the costs of leaving or the rewards for staying. Finally, normative commitment reflects a felt obligation to remain a member of an organization.

Measures of organizational commitment are as diverse as the definitions. For example, Grusky’s (1966) scale used four items, consisting of company seniority, identification with the company, attitudes toward company administrators, and general attitudes toward the company. Hrebinjak and Alutto (1972) used a four-item scale which asked in essence what it would take for the employee to leave the organization. Similar procedures were employed by (Lee, 1971; Sheldon, 1971;
Brown, 1969; Hall et al., 1970). Wiener and Gechman (1977) asked employees to keep diaries of voluntary work-related activities on personal time, using a decoding procedure to estimate commitment.

Despite the existence of alternative conceptualizations and measures of organization commitment, the organization commitment questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Porter et al. (1974) has dominated the literature over last twenty years. In several studies, a nine-item short-form of the instrument using only positively worded items was administered. The samples used in the validation of the OCQ are briefly described here. Another famous scale widely used is career commitment scale measured by eight items and was developed by Blau (1985).

2.8.3 Relationship between Work-life balance, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

Researchers have studied work-life balance in relation with job satisfaction and organization commitment. It has been highlighted in a number of researches (Atkinson, 2011; Davis & Hauston, 2006; Wallace, 2006). Findings have suggested a positive relationship between work-life balance, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Wayne et al., 2004; Kim, 2014). This implies that employees’ experience of work-life balance increases their job satisfaction and this leads to commitment towards the organization they work for. Adam et al. (1996) concluded that if an individual is overburdened by his job, the probability of work-family conflict definitely increases and leads to high level of burnout, low satisfaction and low commitment.

Table 2.3 shows various studies linking work-life balance, job satisfaction and organizational commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Researchers</th>
<th>Aim of the Research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Azeem &amp; Altalhi (2015)</td>
<td>Study aimed at exploring the role of work-life balance and job satisfaction, so as to develop commitment among employees. In addition to that, gender was taken as a moderator to draw the results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atkinson (2011)</td>
<td>Examined differences between Baby Boomers and Gen-Xers in the work attitude variables viz. work-life balance, job satisfaction, work centrality, organizational commitment, and learning goal orientation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Author(s) (Year)</td>
<td>Summary</td>
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<td>--------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lauren (2013)</td>
<td>Examined the impact of coworker and supervisor’s support on employee work-life balance, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. It was concluded that coworker and supervisor support is positively related to work-life balance, job satisfaction and organizational commitment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Azeem &amp; Akhtar (2014)</td>
<td>The study examined the effects of work-life balance and job satisfaction on organizational commitment among employees of healthcare sector. It was concluded that work-life balance fosters job satisfaction which leads to the organizational commitment among employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benligiray &amp; Sonmez (2012)</td>
<td>Investigates the relationship between organizational commitment and work–family conflict for medical doctors and nurses. Using canonical analysis on questionnaire, this relation has been tested distinctively through three sub-dimensions of organizational commitment listed: affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jasmine, Desa &amp; Aasari (2016)</td>
<td>Examined the relationship between flexible-work arrangements, organizational commitment and work-family conflict. The results discovered that flexible working was positively and significantly related to organizational commitment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verona (1996)</td>
<td>This study examined the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment in organizations. An explicit positive relationship was found between job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Redmond et al. (2006)</td>
<td>This study support and informs top management and employers who try to introduce work-life policies to make the workplace more supportive of their workers need to balance employment commitments with family life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kadam (2012)</td>
<td>The purpose of the study is to identify the general opinion of the women workers towards their personal and work life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elizabeth et al. (2005)</td>
<td>This study investigated the influence of gender and tenure status in balancing career and parenthood.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyman and Summers (2004)</td>
<td>Classified seven major problems related with work and life components which are associated with practices over work-life balance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Googins and Burden (1987)</td>
<td>This study was on problems faced by working parents in balancing work and family roles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lewis and Cooper (1987)</td>
<td>This study focuses on the work-life issues that were faced by the dual-earner family.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samuel and Vivienne (1996)</td>
<td>This study attempts to explore the work-life issues that were faced by working women and how they make balance between different roles that they have to play.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moen and Yu (2000)</td>
<td>This study focuses on effective work and life strategies that working couples can adopt for better work-life balance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doherty (2004)</td>
<td>This study examined work-life balance issues among women in hospitality industry and exposed principal deterrents to these women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bergman et al. (2008)</td>
<td>This study focuses on gender differences in workload among professionals and work-life problems that are gender specific.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shamir (1985)</td>
<td>This study examined work-from-home option and that how it affects work-life of employees.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Prepared by Researcher
2.9 Research Gaps

Attempts are made to identify research gaps in the existing literature. These gaps in the literature are expected to provide a direction to the existing work. These gaps relate to both theory and practice of work-life balance and are expected to be applicable to the study area.

2.9.1 Lack of Testable Theoretical Models

The area of life and work researches is usually challenged by a lack of generally established fundamental language and constructs. There is no single prevailing model or perspective that is universally established and accepted (Pitt-Catsouphes et al., 2006). The scholarly organization of information regarding work-life studies relies on a diversity of theoretical frameworks (Morris & Madsen, 2007), which includes compensation, spill-over, enrichment, resource drain, work-family conflict congruence, segmentation, integration, facilitation and ecology theories (Clark, 2000; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Frone, 2003; Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1992; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). At the same time, researchers have looked at work-life balance from differing perspectives. A number of concepts exist to clarify the relationship between these two spheres of life viz. work-life enhancement, work-family enrichment, work-family conflict, work-life accommodation, work-life spillover and work-family integration (Barnett, 1998; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). Work-life balance when seen from the reverse perspective is termed as work-life conflict or work-family conflict (Breaugh & Frye, 2008). A number of scholars have addressed the negative aspects of work-life conflict (Balmforth & Gardner, 2006; Breaugh & Frye, 2008; Dixon & Sagas, 2007). While the notion of ‘balance’ has been emphasized by researchers as a variable that enhances work and personal or family life, the idea of ‘imbalance’ is emphasized as some as having a more severe impact on work-life conflict. Thus, different researchers have proposed different models for work-life balance, many of which have talked of widely varying ideas. Frone (2003) suggested a model for better understanding of components of work and family and concluded that it should include both components of conflict and balance/ facilitation.
2.9.2 Lack of Study in Developing Nations

There is a paucity of work-life balance researches in developing countries. Work-life balance researches are mainly concentrated in the advanced nations. Thus, the findings have poor applicability in developing nations. Such researches cannot be applicable in developing nations as the samples will not be functionally equivalent (Lewis et al. 2007). Research on work-life balance suffers from imbalance created by homogenous samples. To examine a wide array of population, a heterogeneous sample is needed. This will enable understanding of the factors of work-life balance in an unambiguous way (Casper et al., 2007). It is important to carry out studies in the context of developing nations so as to unearth the unique dynamics prevailing in these countries.

2.9.3 Paucity of Studies in the Indian Context

There is a paucity of work-life studies in the Indian context (Mathew & Panchnathan, 2011). Most of the prominent studies on work-life balance have been done in the Western context (Bacik & Drew, 2006; Geurts et al., 2005; Hayman, 2005; Smithson & Stokoe, 2005). In the OECD (2015) rankings of the countries for implementing work-life policies and practices in their organizations, all top ten countries are from the West. Most of the studies have been conducted in the OECD countries like Australia, UK, USA, New Zealand, Sweden, Ireland (Bacik & Drew, 2006; Bekkengen, 2002; Brough et al., 2008; Holt & Grainger, 2005). Thus, there is a need to study dimensions of work-life balance and its outcomes in the Indian context.

2.9.4 Lack of Studies in Academics

There is lack of work-life studies in the teaching context. Focus of work-life balance studies has mainly been on the corporate sector employees. The corporate world, to a large extent, has already taken initiatives towards formulating work-life balance policies and practices (Sok et al., 2014). The teaching fraternity, both governments as well as private institutions, has not been treated as a frequent subject of inquiry in the area of work-life balance. Academic institutions have not done much in terms of scheming and implementing work-life balance practices and policies for teachers (Lam & Yan, 2011). Since teachers are an important cornerstone of any society, their well-being and work-life balance is extremely crucial for the holistic development of
the society. Hence, researchers need to explore facets of work-life balance of teachers in order to suggest strategies to education policy makers and administrators of these institutes.

2.9.5 Paucity of Qualitative Study

It has been observed that most studies on work-life balance are quantitative in nature. There is a lack of qualitative research in the area. In the absence of qualitative analysis, researches lack richness, broad ideas, in-depth interpretations and experiences (Aronson, 1994; Roulston, 2001). Thus, it is suggested that quantitative data analysis should be supplemented with qualitative analysis in order to break the monotony that researchers are practicing (Boyatzis, 1998; Roulston, 2001). Thus, it is suggested that quantitative data analysis should be supplemented with qualitative analysis in order to examine the phenomenon more closely.

2.9.6 Problems in Measurement

Pichler (2009) suggested that work-life balance is a concept that includes both work and life components and therefore, work experiences and home experiences should not be neglected (Geurts, Rutte & Peters, 1999). Most of the researchers lay emphasis on work related aspects that impact personal or family life. The role of personal and home related factors that could possibly impact work has mainly been neglected in these studies. It is thus, important to examine the role of experiences both at work and home in achieving work-life balance (Geurts et al. 2005).

2.9.7 Compromise on Methodological Rigour

Although numerous studies have been conducted on work-life balance, various methodological issues have remained unaddressed. Reliability and validity of most studies has been questionable. There is dearth of studies in work-life balance which use reliable and validated research instruments except a few notable pieces of research. Most of the studies have used questionnaires and other instruments designed by the researcher, which have not been established as reliable and valid. The relevance and objectivity of such scales is a significant gap in the literature relating to scale development and validation. Further, even though many of the scales have been
found valid in the western world countries (e.g. De Cieri et al., 2005; Hayman, 2005), their usage in countries like India has no meaning unless they are validated through appropriate techniques. Researches in the area also suffer from small sample size related problems that makes the studies less generalisable.

Therefore, it is important to note that there is a big gap in the existing literature on work-life balance in terms of various aspects like definition of constructs, validation of scales, methodology and focus on Indian context. The present study seeks to address some of these gaps. Further, restricted approach of research in terms of higher education sector is also a research gap that the present study seeks to address.