CHAPTER - II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Over the last 25 years there has been a proliferation of research examining the intersection of work and family (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). Economical and social changes over the last 70-80 years have increased the number of women working outside the home, dual career families, divorce rates and prevalence of single mothers (Bond, Galinsky & Swanberg, 1998, Ferber, O'Farrell, & Allen, 1991). As a result more families have to juggle the demands of caring of dependents with the demands of work (Frone, 2003).

The influx of women in to the workplace began in the late 1960s (Henwood, Rimmer & Wicks, 1987). Subsequently, researchers began to explore issues facing dual career couples and gender roles (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1971). Societal concerns about the capacity of women to successfully fulfill dual roles seemed to shape the research agenda (Kanter, 1977, Pleck, 1977). Researchers sought to answer questions surrounding the consequences of women’s employment because working women were seen as deviating from their traditional gender roles. Consequently, research examined the effects of women working outside the home on their families well being and quality of life (Baruch & Barnett, 1986; Greenberger & O’Neil, 1993; Hoffman, 1979; Welch & Booth, 1977).

Traditionally work and family domains were considered separate and therefore analysed separately, but research has demonstrated that these domains are actually highly related. In the 1980s the stress and burnout literature emerged (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Lewis & Cooper, 1987). This represented a shift in the literature where studies not only examined the impact of multiple roles on women but acknowledged that men could also be affected by participating in multiple roles (e.g., Barling, 1986). Research
examined negative aspects of multiple roles and there was an emergence of literature on work family conflict.

As the number of dual career couples continues to rise, issues of work and family will increasingly take on importance in our economy and in our overall society. Nearly half of managers in fortune 500 companies are in dual career families (Kossek, Noe & DeMarr, 1999). In a recent nationwide studied, 83% of working mothers and 72% of working fathers reported experiencing conflict between their job demands and their desire to spend more time with their families (Galinsky, Bond & Friedman, 1993). Clearly, work-family balance is one of the major challenges facing employees in the 21st century (Grzywacz & Bass, 2003).

Several studies have found that dual career couples share more family work than traditional, male only "breadwinner" couples (DeMeis & Perkins, 1996; Fish, New, & Van Cleave, 1992; Greenstein, 2000; Presser, 1994; Starrells, 1994; Sullivan, 1997). However, wives in dual career marriages typically continue to perform substantially more husband labour as do their husbands in most dual career families (Blair, 1998; Blair & Johnson, 1992; Blair & Lichter, 1991; Hochschild, 1989; Shelton, 1991).

Burke and Weir (1976) reported that women in two career families were more satisfied and performed more effectively than women in one career families but men in the dual career families were less satisfied and productive than men in single career families. Silberstein (1992) concluded that most dual career couples have a work oriented lifestyle prior to the birth of children. Karambayya and Reilly (1992) also reported that more women than men accommodated their careers to fit their families.

Higgins, Duxbury and Lee (1994) did study on the impact of life cycle stage and gender on the ability to balance work and family responsibilities. They found that balancing work and family is clearly more problematic for mothers than for fathers.
Ayee and Luk (1996) examined the effect of work and non-work influences on the career satisfaction of dual career couples in Hong Kong. They used structure questionnaires and found that the work influences explained more of the variants in the career satisfaction of both wives and husband than non-work influences. They also found that satisfaction with child care arrangement, supervision support, skill utilization and organization-based self-esteem are common significant determinants of career-satisfaction.

With reference to the Indian context, the transition of gender inequality and gender roles away from traditional to modern gender role expectations has been observed to constitute cultural universals that affect the work-family interface (Watanabe, Takahashi & Minami 1997). The growing number of educated women in India who participate in the urban, organized, industrial sector in technical, professional and managerial positions has been accompanied by a steady growth in dual earner families (Komarraju, 1997; Sekaran, 1992). Bharat (2003) noted that working women and their spouses continue to regard bread winning as essentially a man's job and home management as a women's job (Bharat, 1995; Ramu, 1989). The emergence of new families, in India is distant reality. Hence, Indian women continue to bear the burden of household responsibilities regardless of their employment status.

**Work Family Linkage**

Frone (2003) fourfold taxonomy of work family balance provides a potential conceptual lens through which to examine work and family not only as mutually constraining but also as mutually reinforcing, a paucity of research has examined his fourfold taxonomy (Grzywacz, & Bass, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Wayne, et al., 2004). Given the emphasis on a balanced life, perhaps as a result of the career success personal failure syndrome (Evans & Bartholome, 1980; Kofodimos, 1993), it is important to understand how work and family roles can be integrate. A balanced life
concerns of work and family as mutually reinforcing with family experiences as part of what workers bring to enrich their contributions to work and organizations (Gallos, 1989) and vice versa.

Role theory has provided the theoretical framework for research on the work family interface. Through role enactment, roles provide not only form and structure to social relationships among individuals but also the means to achieve important internalized life goals (Aneshensel & Pearlin, 1987). The roles are the result of expectations of others about appropriate behaviour in a particular position (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal, 1964). Role conflict is described as the psychological tension that is aroused by conflicting role pressures and it occurs when individuals engage in multiple roles that are incompatible (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Two competing perspectives, scarcity and expansion enhancement, have been used to examine the process of participation in multiple role. Role theory postulates that conflict within a role (intra-role) can result in an undesirable state. In addition, multiple roles can lead to inter role conflict as it becomes difficult for an individual to succeed at performing various roles successfully due to possible “conflicting demands on time, lack of energy on incompatible behaviours among roles.” The study of inter role conflict was the beginning of research on the effects of multiple roles.

In Indian society most individual occupy multiple roles. The scarcity theory postulates that individuals have a limited amount of time, energy and attention. Therefore multiple roles could easily and quickly deplete an individual’s resources if not allocated appropriately. The scarcity perspective draws on research on resource drain (Edwards & Rotbard, 2000) and conflict theory. Underlying the notion that work and family domains have distinct norms and requirements such that satisfaction or success in one domain entails sacrifices in the other (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990).
In contrast, the expansion enhancement perspective focuses on the net positive gains to be obtained from involvement in multiple roles (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). In essence, this perspective posits that instead of depleting an individual’s psychological and physiological resources, involvement in multiple roles provides a number of benefits that may outweigh the costs, leading to net gratification rather than strains. In a study of the benefits of multiple roles for managerial women, Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer and King (2002) reported that managerial women found juggling multiple personal responsibilities to promote efficiency, focus and organization at work. This suggests that resources, learning opportunities and support gained in the work (family) domain can be used to enhance one's psychological functioning in the family (work) domain. The effects of one role on the other will not always be negative.

Since the conflict and enhancement involved inherent by multiple roles, hence, a better understanding of the work family interface requires an integration of both the scarcity and the expansion enhancement perspectives (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Rothbard, 2001). Barnett and Hyde (2001) advocate a similar perspective and encourage researchers to look beyond the quantity of roles occupied and consider how particular roles, role combinations and role quality produce role strains. Thus, it is not simply holding multiple roles that can lead to positive or negative outcomes but the relationships and characteristics of the multiple roles.

One of the initial studies to examine work family conflict was the Michigan Quality of Employment Survey (Quinn & Stains, 1979). Quinn and Stains (1979) reported that 38% of the working men and 43% of working women that are married with children reported that job and family conflicted "somewhat" or "a lot". Bond, Galinsky and Swanberg (1998) conducted the National Study of the changing workplace and found that 30% of the employees reported experiencing a conflict between work responsibilities and
family obligations. Work family conflict was originally seen as a one dimensional construct. Researchers have suggested that conflict, between work and family can originate in either domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, Gutek, Searle, & Klipa, 1991). Now the reciprocal nature of the work family conflict has been recognized. Therefore, conflict can arise from work interfering with family (work to family conflict) or family interfering with work (family to work conflict). Various studies have noted that work to family conflict and family to work conflict are two distinct constructs (Frone, Russell, and Cooper, 1992a, 1992b; Frone, Yardley & Markel, 1997). It has been demonstrated that work to family conflicts is more likely to occur than family to work conflict (Frone, Russell & Cooper 1992b; Gutek, Searle and Klepa; 1991; Netemeyer et al., 1996).

The majority of research examining the intersection of work and family has focused on work family conflict (Barnett, 1998) for which different terms have been assigned such as negative work family spillover, work family interference and work family tension (Frone, 2003). A large amount of research in the area of work and family has explored the antecedents to work family conflict including personal characteristics (age, gender, race, income etc.) and various stressors Job stressors, family stressors and psychological involvement at work and home.

The research examining age as an antecedent to work family conflict has been mixed. Frone et al. (1997 a) did not find any significant associations between age and work to family conflict or family to work conflict. They further reported in their longitudinal study non significant relationships between education and income with work to family conflict and family to work conflict. Grzywacz and Marks (2000) reported that younger men reported more work to family conflict and family to work conflict than older man. They also reported that younger women reported more family to work conflict than older women. While studying race in relation to work - to -
family conflict, they found that African-American women reported less family to work conflict than other women. However, Frone et al. (1997 a) did not find a long term significant relationship between race and work to family conflict or family to work conflict.

Pleck (1977) asserted that men may adhere to the socially defined role of a “provider” and therefore may be more likely to experience work to family conflict. Conversely, women may be more likely to juggle the primary responsibilities of home and family responsibilities along with work responsibilities. Therefore, women may be more likely to experience family to work conflict. However, Pleck’s assertions have not been confirmed with the research literature (Eagle, Miles & Icenogle, 1997; Frone Russell & Cooper, 1992 b; Gutek, Searle & Klepa, 1991, Burke 1988; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kirchmeyer, 1993).

The quality of one’s relationship with a spouse has been found to be related to work family conflict. Burke (1988) found that marriage difficulties were associated with work to family conflict. Parasuraman et al. (1996) found that entrepreneurs benefited from spousal support. More specifically, spousal support was negatively associated with family to work conflict. Similarly, a low level of spousal disagreement was associated with less work to family conflict (Grzywacz and Marks, 2000).

Parental stressors have also been found to be related to family conflict. The number of children living at home is positively related to work to family conflict and family to work conflict. The time spent on family activities has also been found to be positively related to family to work conflict (Frone et al., 1997b; Gutek et al., 1991). Specifically, hours used to family and chores is positively related to family to work conflict and hours spent at one’s place of employment is positively related to work to family conflict. Carlson and Perrewe (1999) found that family support was negatively associated with
work family conflict. Conversely, Liter and Durup (1996) found conflict with family members to be a predictor of work to family conflict over time.

Numerous studies have examined the relationship between the amount of time present at work and work to family conflict. Specifically, it has been hypothesized that the more required hours at work, the more likely work to family conflict will occur. Several studies have found that long work hours are associated with work to family conflict (Burke, Weir, & Duwors, 1980; Frone et al., 1997b; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Gutek et al., 1991; Pleck, Stain & Lang 1980; Wallace, 1997).

Job stressors or job demands have also been studied in relation to work family conflict. Job stressors have been defined as role pressures that affect the amount of time that an individual devotes to work (Aryee, 1992). Work overload has been found to predict, work to family conflict (Frone et al.; 1997b; Geurts, Ruttee & Peeters, 1999; Wallace, 1997). However, autonomy at work (i.e. higher level of decision making and perceived control over job) has been found to be related to lower levels of work to family conflict and family to work conflict (Frone et al., 1992a; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Kinnanen & Mauno, 1998; Parasuraman et al., 1996). Kinnunen and Mauno (1998) showed that job insecurity was related to the experience of work to family conflict and family to work conflict. Lastly, social support from co-workers has been found to been negatively associated with work to family conflict (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999).

In summary, work hours, work overload, job insecurity and organizational restructuring have been found to be positively correlated with work to family conflict while autonomy and social support at work have been found to be negatively associated with work family conflict.

Presently, research in the work family area has shifted from the scarcity hypothesis to the enhancement hypothesis. Based on the enhancement hypothesis, researchers are beginning to explore ways in which work and
family domains enhance or enrich each other. In contrast to work family conflict, work-family enrichment refers to "the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role." (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Grzywacz and Marks (2000) conducted a study that used data from the National Survey of Midlife Development (N=1986) and assessed work family conflict and work family enrichment in both directions. They found that a low level of education and income was negatively associated with work to family enrichment for women, but not for men.

Although work family research has evolved over the years substantial gaps in the literature still exists. Only few studies have examined individual differences as it pertains to an individual managing their work & family lives (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). In one of the few studies to look at this phenomenon, Wayne et al. (2004) examined personality as a factor contributing to the occurrence of work family conflict and work family enrichment. In their study, they examined the relationship between the big five personality traits (i.e., extraversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness, agreeableness and openness to experience) and work family conflict and work family enrichment. Results indicated extraversion predicted work to family enrichment and family to work enrichment but was not related to work to family conflict or family to work conflict. Conscientiousness and agreeableness were positively correlated with family to work enrichment but uncorrelated with work to family enrichment. Neuroticism predicted work family conflict in both directions but was not correlated with work family enrichment in either direction. Higher conscientiousness was negatively related to work to family and family to work conflict.

Furthermore, Watson and Clark (1984) conducted a study and found that individuals high in negative affectivity were more likely to experience discomfort across a variety of situation even in the absence of a stressor. It was suggested that individuals high in negative affectivity probably tend to
focus on negative views of themselves and the world. Likewise Carlson (1999) examined whether or not type A personality and negative affectivity probably tend to focus on negative affectively account for any variance in work family conflict. She reported that individuals with type A personality (i.e. “individuals who are ambitious, persistent, impatient, and involved in their work”) and individual high in negative affectively (i.e. individuals who have a tendency to experience aversive emotional states) are more likely to report work family conflict than individuals without these dispositions (Carlson, 1999).

In summary, examining individual differences and personality characteristics as a factor that may contribute to the occurrence of work family conflict and work family enrichment has yielded some insight into what types of individuals are more likely to experience conflict or enrichment between work and family domains. This is a promising area of research that may help to identify individuals who are at risk for experiencing work to family conflict and individuals who may have an advantage in experiencing work family enrichment.

**Attachment Style**

Rain, Lane and Steiner (1991) asserted that one of the most damaging weakness of the work family literature is the lack of a sound theoretical foundation for predicting specific relationship between work and non work domains. However, an individuals differences approach has adopted to study work family linkages. Few studies have examined individual differences as it pertains to an individual managing their work and family lives (Sumer & Knight, 2001, Wayne, Nicholan & Frees, 2004). More specifically, on the basis of both theoretical and empirical evidence, attachment style is proposed to be a critical factor in the experience of work and non work relationships. Attachment theory suggested that individuals with different attachment styles will also differ in terms of boundary, maintenance between self and other and
between work and family (Cassidy & Belsky, 1999). Attachment theory provides a platform for studying the question of work-non work relationships from a developmental perspective.

Building on Hazen and Shaver's (1987) work, a wealth of studies have assessed several correlates of adult attachment style. Attachment groups have been found to differ in perceptions, expectations, and functioning in close relationships (Brennan & Shaver, 1991; Feeney & Noller, 1990; Mikulincer & Erev, 1991; Pietromonaco & Carnelly, 1994).

Attachment working models have also been found to be related to intrapersonal processes in adulthood. Avoidant and ambivalent people were found to be more anxious and more hostile than secure people (Kobak & Sceery, 1988) and to have more negative and mistrusting views of the social world and human nature general. Ambivalent people were also found to have a more negative view of themselves than secure people (Collins & Read, 1990). Avoidant people modulate distress by dismissing the importance of relationships, maintaining distance from others, and inhibiting emotional display (Main, Kaplan & Cassidy, 1985; Mikulincer, Florian, & Tolmač, 1990).

Kobak and Sceery (1988) also found that attachment working models are related to the strategies people use for dealing with distress. Secure people deal with distress by acknowledging it and turning to others for instrumental and emotional support. Secure people seek social support in times of need and rely on constructive coping strategies to regulate affect. Insecure people rely on less constructive ways of coping and are less able at regulating affect.

Adults who hold qualitatively different working models differ in their global, retrospective perception of interpersonal experiences. The retrospective studies suggested that people who hold different working models differ in their general theories about themselves, others and relationships.
People who evidence a preoccupied attachment style express a strong desire for intimacy and are not as satisfied with their relationships as are secure individuals. Preoccupied people also report more intense feelings and emotional highs and lows in their romantic relationships and evidence greater emotional expressiveness, anxiety and impulsiveness. In addition, preoccupied people evidence negative views of themselves and inconsistent views of others; although they appear positive toward others because they show a high level of sociability and warmth, they also are less likely than secure individuals to believe that people have good intentions and less positive in their views of human nature. Overall, preoccupied people seek a high level of intimacy and responsiveness from others and appear to value intimacy over their own independence. On the other hand, people who evidence an avoidant attachment style are less likely to seek intimacy and to disclose personal information (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Feeney & Noller, 1990; Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991), are less satisfied in their romantic relationships (Carnelley, Pietormonaco & Jaffe, 1994; Collins & Read, 1990; Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994; Simpson, 1990), and appear to use defensive strategies to suppress their affective reactions (Mikulincer & Orbach, 1995).

There are two types of studies that look at adult attachment styles with regards to interpersonal relationships: studies done with dating couples and studies done with married couples. Studies done with dating couples, show that securely attached individuals are more often attracted to other securely attached individuals, whereas individuals characterized by an insecure attachment style generally match up with others characterized by an insecure style. Securely attached couples have been shown to have longer and more satisfying relationships together. The secure relationships tend to last because of the greater trust and self confidence between the partners (Feeney & Noller, 1990, Simpson, 1990).
Studies done with married couples have looked at the relationship quality and how that, with communication, is related to the different attachment styles. Feeney and Noller (1996) found that mutual negotiation of conflict was the single most important predictor of satisfaction within a marriage. Within this type of marriage relationship, husbands were less secure and described than wives as psychologically unavailable when the wives displayed rejection and less support (Koback & Hazan, 1991). Feeney (1999) found that when asked to engage in a problem solving task, anxiously ambivalently attached individuals were more likely to oblige their spouse and both husbands and wives who were considered to have high anxiety over the relationship said that their conflicts were distressing, coercive and lacking in mutual negotiation. Anxiety about relationships was found to be an important predictor of behaviour during a conflict (Feeney & Noller, 1996).

Securely attached couples reported higher relationship satisfaction, trust, supportiveness and more positive self disclosure. Their communication was more open and they utilized a more integrating, or problem solving strategy when dealing with conflicts. Husbands were less rejecting and more supportive during problem solving (Feeney, 1999) and individuals were more willing to rely on and trust each other (Kobak & Hazen, 1991). They also tended to discuss conflicting goals openly and maintain constructive communication within the relationship.

Well-Being

Throughout history philosophers considered happiness to be the highest good and ultimate motivation for human action. Yet for decades psychologists largely ignored positive subjective well-being, although human unhappiness was explored in depth. In the last decade behavioral and social scientists have corrected this situation, and theoretical and empirical work is emerging at an increasingly faster pace.
The literature on subjective well-being (SWB) is concerned with how and why people experience their lives in positive ways, including both cognitive judgments and affective reactions. As such, it covers studies that have used such diverse terms as happiness, satisfaction, morale, and positive affect. Wilson's (1967) review of this emergent area contained two broad conclusions. First, Wilson wrote that those with the most advantages were happiest. He concluded that the "happy person emerges as a young, healthy, well educated, well paid, extroverted, optimistic, worry free, religious, married person with high self esteem, high job morale, modest aspirations, of either sex and of a wide range of intelligence." Wilson's second major conclusion was that little theoretical progress in understanding happiness has been made in the two millennia since the time of the Greek philosophers.

In his 1984 review, Diener distinguished between top-down and bottom-up processes that influence SWB. The major focus of early theoretical formulation was to identify the bottom up factors that influence SWB: How do external events, situations, and demographics influence happiness? The bottom-up approach is built on Wilson's idea that there are basic and universal human needs, and that if one's circumstances allow a person to fulfill these needs, he or she will be happy.

In support of the bottom-up approach, a variety of pleasures have been shown to be connected to reports of well being. For example, the experience of daily pleasurable events is related to pleasant affect, and the experience of daily undesirable events is related to unpleasant affect (Stallings, Dunham, Gatz, Baker, & Bengtson, 1997). Campbell, Converse & Rodgers (1976) found that demographic factors such as age, sex, income, race, education and marital status accounted for less than 20% of the variance in SWB.

There is an overwhelming amount of evidence that shows a positive relationship between income and SWB with in countries (Larson, 1978). This relationship exists even when other variables such as education are controlled.
As might be expected, satisfaction with income is also related to happiness (Braun, 1977; Campbell et al., 1976). In addition to these, studies reviewed by Larson, many others have found objective income, to be related to SWB (Alston, Lowe, & Wrigley, 1974; Andrews & Withey, 1976; Bortner & Hultsch, 1970; Clemente & Sauer, 1976a; Freudiger, 1980; Kimmel, Price, & Walker, 1978; Mancini & Orthner, 1980; Riddick, 1980). Although the effect of income is often small when other factors are controlled, these other factors may be ones through which income could produce its effects.

However when one turns to other types of data, an interesting picture emerges. Although persons in wealthier countries report higher SWB than persons in poorer countries (Easterlin, 1974, Gall up, 1976-77, Silver, 1980), this effect may be weaker than within-country difference, although a rigorous analysis of effect sizes has not been reported.

Early studies found that young people were happier than old (Bradburn & Caplovitz, 1965; Gurin, Veroff, & Feld, 1960; Kuhlen, 1948; Wessman, 1957). In relatively recent years, however, a number of researchers have found virtually no age effects (Alston et al; 1974; Andrews & Withey, 1976; Cameron, 1975; Sauer, 1977; Spreitzer & Snyder, 1974), and several more have found a positive correlation between age and satisfaction (Bortner & Hultsch, 1970; Cantril, 1965; Clemente & Sauer, 1976a; Medley, 1980). Given the confusing nature of the findings Adams (1971) wrote that "the inconsistency of findings in regards to chronological age indicates that it is, at best, a very gross index of group characteristics." In support of this, a meta-analysis of studies conducted prior to 1980 revealed that the correlation between age and SWB was near zero, regardless of whether other variables were controlled (Stock, Okun, Haring & Witter, 1983).

Although women report more negative affect, they also seem to experience greater joys (Braun, 1977, Cameron, 1975). So that little difference in global happiness or satisfaction is usually found between the

Blacks have usually been found to be lower on SWB than whites in the US (Alston et al, 1974; Bortner & Hultsch, 1970; Bradburn, 1969; Freudiger, 1980; Wessman, 1957), although this effect has not been found universally (Messer, 1968). Because blacks and whites in general differ on age, education, income, marital status and urbanicity, it is important to control for these factors if one wants to know if race per se has an effect. When this is done, an effect is still found, but it seems to depend on the gender and age of subjects.

Campbell et al. (1976) found that unemployed people were the unhappiest group, even when income differences were controlled. This suggests that unemployment has a devastating impact on the SWB for many persons that goes beyond the obvious financial difficulties involved. The unemployment influences the well being of both men and women.

Campbell’s (1981) data suggest that education had an influence on SWB in the US during 1957 to 1978. However, the effects of education on SWB do not appear to be strong (Palmore, 1979) and seem to interact with other variables such as income. Several studies have found that there is no significant effect when other factors are controlled (Clemente & Sauer, 1976a; Sprestzer & Snyder, 1974) and several studies have indicated more positive effects for women (Freudiger, 1980; Glenn & Weaver, 1981b; Mitchell, 1976).

Because religiosity has been operationalized in different ways, it is unsurprising that the findings are mixed. Religious faith, importance of religion, and religious traditionalism generally relate positively to SWB (Cameron, Titus, Kostin & Kostin, 1973; Cantril, 1965; Wilson, 1960), although Cameron (1975) found that religiosity correlated inversely with
positive moods. Spreitzer and Snyder (1974) found that religion had a significant effect on those under age 65 but, surprisingly, not on older respondents.

Although several studies have failed to find statistically significant effects on SWB for marriage (Bortner & Hultsch, 1970; Toseland & Rasch, 1979-80), virtually all relationships are positive (Larson 1978). A number of large scale studies indicated that married persons reported greater SWB than any category of unmarried persons (Andrews & Withey, 1976; Glenn 1975). Glenn and Waver (1979) found that marriage was the strongest predictor of SWB even when education income and occupational status were controlled.

High self-esteem is one of the strongest predictors of SWB. Many studies have found a relationship between self esteem and SWB (Anderson, 1977; Czaja, 1975; Drumgoole, 1981; Ginandes, 1977; Higgins, 1978; Kozma & Stones, 1978; Peterson, 1975; Pomerantz, 1978; Reid & Ziegler, 1980; Van Coevering, 1974; Wilson, 1960), although this effect has been weak or complex in several studies (Reid & Ziegler, 1977; Wolk & Telleen, 1976). Campbell et. al (1976) found that satisfaction with the self showed the highest co-relation with life-satisfaction of any variable.

**Work Family Linkage and Attachment Style**

Hazen and Shaver (1990) argued that individual differences in attachment relationships might have important implications for people’s orientation or attitudes toward their work. More specifically, their results suggest that attachment style may play a critical role in how people balance different domains of life, specifically work and family realms.

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) found that attachment styles characterized by a negative image of self have been associated with high interpersonal dependency, low global self esteem.

Sumer (1997) examined the dynamic nature of the interplay between work and non work domains of life by focusing on individual differences in
attachment styles. The survey included measures of job, life, home and relationship satisfaction, attachment styles, perceived jobs importance, demographic variables as well as unconventional measures of work family relationships. Results indicated that as expected, attachment groups showed significant difference in the way they balanced their work and non work lives. Participants with preoccupied styles were more likely to experience negative spill over from the home domains to the work domains than either secures or dismissing. Securely attached participants experienced significantly more positive spill over in both directions than did the other three attachment groups.

Kummel (1999) investigated the relationship of attachment styles to work place communication strategies and coping styles. Co-relation and regression analysis showed that attachment styles was significantly related to both communications strategies and copying styles. To varying degrees depending on attachment style preferences, stress level was significantly related to use of communication strategies and job-satisfaction to use of coping strategies.

Sumer and Knight (2001) conducted a mail survey using employees at a Midwestern university (n=48%) to examine the relationship between work family conflict and work family enrichment and different attachment styles. Their findings suggested that individuals with a secure attachment style reported more work to family enrichment and family to work enrichment than people with preoccupied, dismissing or fearful attachment styles.

Kristin, Ananda and Shibley (2002) examined the role of adult attachment style in meeting the challenges of both work and family roles for parents of young children. Results indicate that most parents particularly those with secure attachment styles are able to function in multiple domains successfully. However, women and men with fearful attachment styles,
characterized by view that the self is unlovable and others are untrustworthy, have marked difficulty in many family domains and some work domains.

Campbell, (2003) examined the relationships among attachment style and relationship adjustment, negative self-schemes and attachment styles. The findings of this study indicated that the secure attachment style had a significant positive correlation with overall relationship adjustment. The fearful and dismissing attachment styles had a significant negative correlation with overall relationship adjustment. The preoccupied attachment style was not significantly correlated with the level of relationship adjustment.

Ricki, Orna, Dorota, Yaffa and Abraham (2003) assessed the association between the attachment styles of drug user husbands and their wives and their perceptions of family dynamics was conducted in 1998. Results indicated that a secure style in husband and wife was associated with higher levels of family cohesion and adaptability and the anxious/ambivalent style with a lower perception of family cohesion and adaptability.

Very few studies have been reported in reviewing the literature showing the direct relationship between work family linkage and attachment style. Most of the studies indicated that the conflict in terms of family cohesion, adaptability, relationship adjustment, communication strategies and copying style has significant relationship with attachment style.

**Attachment Style and Well-Being**

Traditionally in developmental psychology, concurrent parental factors related to well being in late adolescence and early adulthood have typically been different-emphasized in favour of current peer relationships. However as Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) pointed out, it is because individuals select and create later social environments that early child relationships are viewed as having special importance. Attachment style seems to influence the way an individual experiences the work organization, his or her family life and the way he or she lets the two domains interact. Therefore, attachment
style ties an important potential source of well being in the form of satisfaction with job, life and ultimately happiness.

Empirical evidence suggests that securely attached individuals are able to prevent the spreading of negative affect (Milkulincer & Orbach, 1995) are more likely to use constructive copying strategies in dealing with stress (Mikulincer, Florian & Weller, 1993) and perceive and receive more social support from friends and family in response to stress (Ognibence & Collins, 1998) than those in the other attachment groups.

Tracy (1994) investigated the relationship among attachment style, self-esteem and subjective well being in late adolescent college students. Results indicated that late adolescent girls who reported secure attachment also tended to report high levels of self-esteem and subjective well-being.

Milkulincer, Horesh, Levy-Shift, Manovich and Shalev (1998) examined the contribution of adult attachment style to the adjustment to infertility. Significant differences were found among attachment groups: secure persons, either men or women, reported more well-being, less distress and more dyadic adjustment than avoidant and anxious-ambivalent persons. Partners of secure persons also reported significantly higher level of well being and dyadic adjustment and significantly lower levels of distress than partners of anxious-ambivalent persons.

Volling, Notara, and Larsen (1998) examined the pairing of attachment styles among 59 married couples raising young children. Spouses in dual secure marriages reported more love for their partners, less ambivalence about their relationships, were more integrated into their social networks and felt more competent as parents than couples in dual insecure marriages.

Diehl, Elnick, Bourbeau and Labourvie (1998) found that persons with a secure attachment style described their family of origin and their current family more positively and scored higher on personality variables indicate of self confidence, psychological well-being and functioning in this social world.
Further Kathleen (1999) studied the relationship between attachment style and well being. They found that secured attached caregivers had the highest levels of well-being.

Moreina, Carolas and Haga (1999) found significant correlation between level of self-esteem and pre-occupied attachment style, general, experimental and total self-trust.

Simmons, Nelson and Quick (2003) examined the positive effects of attachment behaviour at work on health for executives, managers, military officer cadets and basic military trainees. Hope was found to mediate rather than moderate the relationship between attachment styles and health.

Mitchell and Doumas (2004) examined the relationship between adult attachment style and psychology distress which indicated that participants with a negative view of the self, those with a preoccupied or fearful style, had higher levels of depression and anxiety and lower levels of self-esteem than those with a positive view of the self, individuals with a secure or dismissing style.

A recent study conducted by Wilkinson, and Schere (2006) examined psychological health, maternal attachment and attachment style in an Australian sample of breast feeding mothers. Results suggested that secure attachment styles are related to greater psychological health.

The studies reported in this section revealed that attachment style of either men or women has significantly correlated with self-esteem and well-being in the form of distress, self confidence, psychological well being and health of executives, managers and military officer cadets.

**Attachment Style and Job Satisfaction**

Hazen and Shaver (1990) examined the relationship of attachment style and job-satisfaction. Individuals with a secure attachment style approach work with confidence and are more likely to report that they enjoy their work. Avoidant respondents were found to use work to avoid social interaction.
However, they reported dissatisfaction with too much work, lack of challenge and co-workers. Anxious/ambivalent respondents reported dissatisfaction with job security, advancement and recognition opportunities and had the lowest average income of all the three groups. The result suggested that individuals' reactions to the workplace may be a function of the ability to develop close personal relationships with others, which in turn may affect job-satisfaction, income and other work outcomes.

Toepfer (1996) examined the relationship between the attachment style, sex type, job-satisfaction and success and gender of corporate executives. Individuals with specific combination of attachment styles and sex types were expected to have certain levels of job satisfaction and success. Significant relationships were found between job-satisfaction and attachment style.

Schirma (2000) explored the contributions of work-stress, social support and adult attachment styles to job-satisfaction and symptomatic distress with in an adult worker sample. Results indicated that secure workers reported significantly less work stress and symptomatic distress than did anxiously attached workers. No main effects for attachment styles on job-satisfaction were observed.

Krauzs, Bizman and Braslavslay (2001) found that work-satisfaction was highest among the secure style but the anxious/ambivalent group did not differ significantly from that group concerning overall intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction. The avoidant were lowest on those measures.

Studies reviewed in this sub-section, significant relationship has been found between attachment style and job-satisfaction concerning overall intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction.

Attachment Style, Life Satisfaction and Happiness

Attachment style is a new area of interest, therefore, small amount of research have acknowledged the possibility of relating attachment style with
life satisfaction and happiness. After reviewing the literature there seems to be a gap in this context until the reporting of a recent study conducted by Daughtery (2008). In this study Daugherty (2008) concluded that romantic relationships are one of the most-important sources of life-satisfaction and emotional well-being across the life span. Women who are securely attached to their partners experienced high relationship satisfaction and stability, whereas women who are less securely attached experienced lower levels of happiness and are less likely to stay together with their man over time.

Work Family Linkage and Well-being

There is a little doubt that the work family linkage contributes to individual’s well-being. Individuals continue to seek the balance between work and family ties as important potential source of well-being in the form of satisfaction with job, life and ultimately happiness. Much of the research on multiple role commitments conducted in the domain of work-life balance, for example, investigated the negative effects that commitment in one domain (work or non-work) has on the other domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Following the scarcity hypothesis, researchers in this domain have focused on the distribution of limited time, cognitive and physical resources across work and family commitments (Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1992; Gutek, Searle & Klepa, 1991; Small & Riley, 1990). Increased conflict translates to more stress for the employee (Judge & Colquitt, 2004; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek & Rosenthal, 1964).

Work family conflict has been related to important organizational and individual outcomes, such as absenteeism (Barling, MacEwen, Kelloway & Higginbottom, 1994; Goff, Mount & Jamison, 1990; Hepburn & Barling, 1996; Kossek 1990; Kossek & Nichol, 1992; & Thomas & Ganster, 1995) and decreased job, family and life satisfaction (Bedian et al., 1998; Boles, Johnston, & Hair, 1997; Burke, 1988; Higgins, Duxbury & Irving, 1992; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Wiley, 1987).
The work family conflict has been examined as another source of stress that may influence well-being. Previous researches strongly support a positive relationship between perceived work stressors and work family conflict (Bacharach, Bamberger & Conley, 1991; Burke, 1988; Kopelman, Greenhaus & Connolly, 1983; Parasuraman, Greenhaus, Granriose, Rabinowitz & Beutell, 1989; Voydandoff, 1988). No research however, has examined the relationship between job related affect, family stressors and family work conflict.

Frone (2000) used data from the National Co-morbidity Study (N=2,700) and found that work to family conflict and family to work conflict were both positively related to mood, anxiety and substance abuse disorders. Work to family conflict has also been shown to be related to global measures of psychological distress. For example, Hughes and Galinsky (1994) found that employees (n=429) reported that work to family conflict and family to work conflict were both positively related to a global measure of psychological distress. O’Driscoll, Illgen and Hildreth (1992) reported similar results using a community sample.

Noor (2002) tested 3 possible pathways in which locus of control can influence the relationship between work family conflict and well-being. In a sample of 310 Malaysian employed women with families, work family conflict was a significant predictor of both job satisfaction and distress—negatively related to job-satisfaction and positively related to symptoms of distress.

Geurts, Kompur, Roseburg, and Houtman (2003) concluded that work–home interference played a significant role in mediating the impact of work load in two indicators of worker’s well-being — affective well-being and subjective health. Similarly, Greenhaus, Collins and Shaw (2003) examined the relationship between work family balance and quality of life among professionals employed in public accounting. Three components of
work-family balance — time balance, involvement balance and satisfaction balance were assessed. They found that the individuals who invested substantial time in their combined work and family roles, those who spent more time on family than work, experienced a higher quality of life than individuals who spent more time on work than family.

An alternative to the scarcity approach, the enhancement approach suggests that multiple roles can actually produce positive outcomes. In contrast to work – family conflict, work family enrichment refers to “the extent to which experience in one role improve the quality of life in the other role.”

From the enhancement approach, a number of terms have been used to describe the positive benefits of work and family role participation including work-family positive spill over (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), work-family enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell 2006; Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne & Grzywacz, 2006), and work, family facilitation (Grzywacz, 2002).

Stephens, Franks, and Atienza (1997) found higher work family positive spill over was associated with higher psychological well being. Similarly, Hammer, Cullen, Neal, Sinclair, and Snafiro (2005) also found work family positive spill over from a spouse was related to reduced depressive symptoms.

Hanson, Hammer and Colton (2006) found dimension of work family and family work positive spill over were associated with mental health. They suggested the positive mental health outcomes are due to positive spill over providing a buffering effect against negative events, perhaps through reinforcing social relationships, and through the inherent transference nature of positive spill over with regard to skills, behaviours and values, resulting in rewards such as heightened self-esteem, which help to provide a buffer against negative life events.
Dyson (2006) suggested that work to family enrichment and family to work enrichment were not associated with the satisfaction outcomes and also indicated that work to family enrichment and family to work enrichment partially mediated the relationship between optimism and satisfaction outcomes. The findings also suggested that family to work enrichment was negatively associated with psychological strain.

Harr and Bardoel (2007) found work family and family work positive spill over was negatively associated with psychological distress while family work positive spill over was positively linked with family satisfaction. These findings support the notion that not all work and family experiences are negative and experiences from the work and home can improve outcomes both inside and outside the work place.

After reviewing the literature in this section, it seems that unlike work family conflict, research in the area of work family enrichment is in its formative years of development while the work family conflict literature has received much attention, there is a dearth of empirical evidence towards with family positive spill over. Therefore, there is little understanding of positive spill over.

**Work Family Linkage and Job Satisfaction**

Bacharch et al. (1991) found that work interfering with family was significantly related to burn out, which then was related to lower job satisfaction for both a sample of nurses and a sample of engineers. Thomas and Ganster (1995) reported that work interfering with family was negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to depression and health complaints among health care workers.

Adams, King and King (1996) found that relationship between work and family have an important effect on job and life satisfaction and that the level of involvement the worker assigns to work and family roles is associated with this relationship.
Randy, Chiu and Jerome (1998) examined the casual relationship among work-conflict, family conflict, job-satisfaction, Marital-satisfaction, life satisfaction and stress. The findings indicated that job-satisfaction and marital satisfaction experienced by the subjects were affected by work conflict and family conflict as well as inter role conflict. Likewise, their stress level was also influenced by life satisfaction which, in turn, was affected by job-satisfaction and marital satisfaction.

These studies have indicated that, in addition to other consequences, the strain of balancing work and family responsibilities may lead to job-dissatisfaction (Bacharch, Bamberger & Conley, 1991; Bedrian et al.; 1988).

Perrewe, Hochwarter and Kiewitz (1999) examined perceptions of work interfering with family life and family issues interfering with work as to distinct constructs representing work-family conflict. Experienced work family conflict is argued to reduce one's value attainment, which in turn, lowers both job and life satisfaction.

Allen, Herst, Bruck and Sutton (2000) and Kossek and Ozeki (1998) meta-analysis generally found a negative relationship between job satisfaction and work-to family conflict and family to work conflict. However, some studies on work-family conflict and job-satisfaction have yielded mixed results. For examples Wiley (1987) used a sample of University students and did not find a significant relationship between work-to-family conflict and job-satisfaction. Kossek and Ozeki (1998) suggested that this inconsistency could be due to the fact that different researchers use different measures of job-satisfaction like global measures of job-satisfaction versus specific measures of job-satisfaction).

Saltzstein, Ting and Saltzstein (2001) suggested that an employee's satisfaction with one's career was based on the balance she/he achieved between work and one's personal life. Women as well as men increasingly
see career satisfaction as a major factor in their assessment of work-family balance and overall life success, particularly with dual career families.

Bruck, Allen, and Spector, (2002) found that work-family conflict was significantly related to global and composite job satisfaction. Behaviour-based conflict was significantly related to job satisfaction but strain based and time based conflicts did not relate.

Karthik, Daniel and Mount (2004) found that work to family conflict issues were related to a lower job satisfaction. They also found quite unexpectedly, that family to work conflict issues were related to a higher job satisfaction.

Nai-Yung Lui (2004) found a strong relationship between work family conflict and job satisfaction. Similarly, the negative consequences of existing work family conflict include in effectiveness at work and within the family dissatisfaction with work and family roles, stress symptoms, life-dissatisfaction and alcohol abuse.

Hammer, Saksvik, Nytco and Torvatn (2004) also explained that cross-level interaction between work-performance norms and work-to family conflict was significantly related to job stress. Further, work to family conflict was significantly related to health symptoms.

Judge and Illies (2004) revealed that job satisfaction affected positive mood after work and that the effective spill over of job satisfaction on the positive and negative mood was stronger for employees higher in trait positive and trait negative respectively.

Eric, Lambert, Nancy, Scott, and Lois (2006), reported that both strain-based conflict and behaviour based conflict had a significant impact on satisfaction.

Ford, Heiness and Langkamer, (2007) explained a considerable amount of variability in job satisfaction by family domain specific variables, with job
and family stress having the strongest effects on work-family conflict and cross-domain satisfaction.

Cohen and Liani (2009) showed a strong relationship between job-satisfaction and two conflict variables—work family conflict and family work conflict. A higher level of job-satisfaction was reported to lower levels of work family conflict and family work conflict.

The studies reported in this sub section have revealed that work family linkage in the form of levels of work family/family work conflict has significant effect on value attainment, job satisfaction, depression life satisfaction, martial satisfaction. Further, only the behaviour base conflict significantly affected the variable. Strain based or time based conflict did not have significant influence.

**Work Family Linkage and Life Satisfaction**

Life satisfaction is one of three major indicators of being; life-satisfaction, positive affect and negative affect (Diener, 1984).

Life satisfaction, like job-satisfaction, has been one of the most frequently studied outcomes of the most frequently studied outcomes of work family conflict (Kosek & Ozeki, 1998). Findings indicated that, the higher the level of work-family conflict the lower the level of life-satisfaction. Meta analytic studies have reported weighted mean correlations between work family conflict and life-satisfaction of -0.31 and -0.28. Additionally, Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran (2005) reported weighted mean correlations of -0.26 for work to family conflict and -0.20 for family to work conflict and life-satisfaction. Interestingly, two early studies failed to find significant relationship between inter-role conflict and life-satisfaction (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1982; Cooke & Rousseau, 1984) but virtually all of the more recent studies have confirmed significant negative relationship between these variables although the magnitude of the relationship does vary.
Some of the noteworthy studies supporting significant relationships include studies of accounting professionals (Bedian et al., 1998; Greenhaus et al., 1997; Parasuraman et al., 1989), studies of professional couples with children living at home (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Higgins & Dubxury, 1992), and studies using national probability samples (Beutell, 2005; Rice, Frone & McFarlin, 1992). Other studies include Adams et al (1996), Chiu (1998) & Netemeyer et al. (1996). It is worth restating that work family conflict exhibits the strongest relationship with life-satisfaction of all non-work variables studies to date (Allen et al., 2000).

Burke and Moffett (1988) noted that when work interferes with family life, this conflict is often released on the family, causing poor marital adjustment, which further contributes to lower levels of life-satisfaction. Consistent with these arguments, empirical evidence suggested that work family conflict results in lower levels of life-satisfaction (Bedeian et al. (1980); Parasuraman et al., 1992).

Higgins et al. (1992), found that work interfering with family was related to lower quality of family life. This lower quality of family life was in turn related to lower levels of life-satisfaction among workers.

Boles (1996) indicated that work family conflict can significantly affect both job and life-satisfaction. The effective balancing of various professional and personal roles presumably could play a salient role in their level of job satisfaction, life satisfaction and over well-being (Barnett & Hyde 2001; Frone, 2000; Marks, Huston, Johnson & MacDermid, 2001; Moen 2000). It appears that women who are balanced or committed across roles, regardless of the number of roles they occupy will likely report greater life-satisfaction and mental health (Marks & Mac Dermid; Perry-Jenkins, Repetti, & Crouter, 2000).

Hill (2005) found that work-to family and family to work facilitation were each positively and significantly related to job-satisfaction. Similarly,
Beutell. (2005) found that an over all measure of work family synergy (facilitation) was significantly related to life-satisfaction.

The studies reviewed in this sub-section revealed that work interfering with family of accounting professionals and professional couples was related to life-satisfaction in the form of lower quality of family life.

**Work-Family Linkage and Happiness**

Chen (2006) explored relations between work resources work/family conflict and work/non-work related outcomes, in the cultural context of a Chinese society. The analysis revealed that various types of work resources were positively related to reduced work family conflict and family work-conflict, enhanced job-satisfaction, family satisfaction and happiness. Both work family conflict and family work conflict were positively related to reduced job-satisfaction and family satisfaction. Both job-satisfaction and family satisfaction were positively related to enhanced happiness.

Bull, Mittelmark (2008) investigated the relationship of subjective well-being to work/family conflict, self enhancement and the interaction between work/family conflict and values. The results indicated that participants with higher levels of work/family conflict had lower level of subjective well-being. Participants who valued self enhancement had lower levels of life satisfaction, but not lower levels of positive affect and happiness. There were no interaction effects between work/family conflict and values. The findings support the distinction between happiness and life satisfaction on separate constructs.

Although, work-family research has evolved over the years substantial gaps in the literature still exists. At this stage, it will be quite interesting to examine whether work-related variables and family-related variables relate to positive outcomes in the other role which leads to happiness.

While reviewing, it is quite confusing about the possibility whether work and family have positive effects on one another or deplete an
individual's performance. At this level, it would be of great interest to explore whether an individual's well-being is affected by work family linkage while mediating through the attachment style.

With this background we may now pass on to chapter III dealing with problem and hypotheses.