“Understand, our police officers put their lives on the line for us every single day. They’ve got a tough job to do to maintain public safety and hold accountable those who break the law”

- Barrack Obama, President, United States of America

In many countries it is considered a matter of great prestige to get the opportunity to join the police forces. Irrespective of the level in the organization, any individual who joins the police force is expected to be highly motivated towards upholding the main motto of the police services - safety and security of the citizens. When ordinary citizens sign up for the police services, they sign up for the commitment to serve which is not bound by any area, time or any particular event. The nature of the service requires that the lives of the officers to revolve around the duty towards the society and its citizens.

The police services were set up for the safety of the society. The society consists of humans who are full of emotions, who are motivated towards different goals in life and have strong attitudes and behaviors directed by even stronger likes and dislikes. It is not an easy task to convince such a force and it is definitely not easy to satisfy such a diverse population.

Human nature is a combination of strengths and weakness, goodness and evil. The requirement of a perspective which emphasizes on a balanced view where there is sadness and trauma along with joy and happiness was advocated by Seligman (1998). Positive psychology is not a new discipline in psychology rather it is a combination of various areas of psychology with the focus on positive aspects of human behavior.
Sheldon and King (2001) point out that “positive psychology revisits the ‘average person’ with an interest in finding out what works, what is right, and what is improving”. Positive psychology is concerned with the strengths of people rather than any weaknesses or dysfunctionalities. It tries to focus on the understanding and development of how people thrive. Positive psychology focused on positive aspects of human life rather than the negatives and emphasized on valued subjective experiences which include being satisfied and content in the past, having hope and optimism for the future and happiness in the present. Along with valued subjective experience, the positive individual traits form an integral part of positive psychology. These traits include capacity for love and vocation, courage, interpersonal skills, aesthetic sensibility, originality, spirituality, high talent and wisdom.

Over the years, workplace has increasingly become a place of constant stress and a place where there is constant fight for survival. Such conditions cannot be tackled with average performance. It is required for the individual to give above average performance to achieve success (Avolio & Luthans, 2006; Sutcliffe & Vogus, 2003). Luthans (2002) applied the concept of positive psychology to the work place setting, referring it as Positive Organizational Behavior (POB) and defined the term as “the study and application of positive oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed and effectively managed for performance improvement in today’s workplace”. 
PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

With the desire to develop a construct which is theoretically grounded, has a valid measurement tool and rigorous research to substantiate it, Luthans and Youssef (2004) invented the term “Psychological Capital”. The dimensions of psychological capital are – Self efficacy/confidence, Optimism, Hope, and Resilience. It has been a better predictor of performance and satisfaction compared to the individual constructs that make it (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, 2007 ; Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa & Li, 2005).

These dimensions when combined form the “Psychological Capital” of an individual. Luthans et al (2007) defined psychological capital as “an individual’s positive psychological state of development and is characterized by –having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success”.

Positive psychologist Csikszentmihalyi (as quoted in Kersting, 2003) noted that such psychological capital “is developed through a pattern of investment of psychic resources that results in obtaining experiential rewards from the present moment while also increasing the likelihood of future benefit… It’s about the state of the components of your inner life. When you add up the components, experiences and capital, it makes up the value.” The components referred here are efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience. The psychological capital of an individual can be developed in workplace for improving performance and satisfaction levels.
Psychological capital is concerned about who you are and, more importantly, ‘who you are becoming’.

**SELF-EFFICACY**

Self-Efficacy is the most theoretically and researched dimension of positive organizational behavior. It draws from social cognitive theory developed by Bandura (2001). Self-efficacy is a belief on one’s own capabilities for accomplishing the specific task. It represents positive emotions and builds the person’s confidence to find ways (paths) and helps to implement these ways (paths) to attain the goal. Sometimes self-efficacy is also referred to as confidence in POB. Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) defined self-efficacy in the workplace scenario as “the employees’ conviction or confidence about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, course of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context”.

Self-efficacy is the most important construct for POB as it has been found to be related to performance enhancement and numerous work-related outcomes. Some of the established relationships between self-efficacy and work performance dimension are –leadership effectiveness (Chemers, Watson & May, 2000), moral and ethical decision making (May, Chan, Hodges & Avolio, 2003; Youssef & Luthans, 2005), creativity (Tiernay & Farmer, 2002) and participation (Lam, Chen & Schaubroeck, 2002). Self efficacy has been found to play significant role in learning (Ramakrishna, 2002) and entrepreneurship (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994; Chen, Greene & Crick, 1998; Luthans & Ibrayeva, 2006). Even though self-efficacy focuses the individual’s assessment on current abilities for a specific task, it also encourages the individual to set challenging tasks. An individual with high self-efficacy will be self-
motivated and will make effort towards task mastery and goal accomplishment (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

Bandura (1977) and Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) summarized that confident individuals work by creating mental images. Such individuals through symbolizing reach outcomes that would be of benefit to everyone around them.

Apart from the above mentioned characteristics of efficacious individuals, the use of anticipation to see the immediate and long-term effects of the actions helps foresee the potential obstacles and achievements. Observation and self-regulation is important characteristic of efficacious individuals. They learn from observing others and have the ability to conclude from such observations. The trial and error method is not preferred. Through self-regulation, efficacious individuals materialize the thoughts and plans into action. Self-regulation gives the intrinsic push to take action, this self-initiation leads to goal accomplishment, when external motivators are absent. In addition, the reliance on self-reflection helps in learning from the past and enables the individual to apply it to deal with future opportunities and challenges (Bandura, 1986; 2001).

Self-efficacy can be nurtured in an individual through mastery experiences, vicarious learning and modeling, social persuasion and psychological & physiological arousal (Bandura, 2000; Maddux, 2002; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) and hence this state like nature which makes it open for development has resulted in self efficacy to become a part of psychological capital.

Organizational programs like on the job training modules and gradual increase in the difficulty level of the tasks with enough practice can help develop
self-efficacy of the individual. By providing a role model to the trainee, it can result in smooth adaptation to work place and mould employees through the sharing of successful experiences of the mentor. An organization providing positive social influence through group support and encouragement, trust among members and mutual respect for each other, will lead to building the intellectual and psychological resources of the individual (Fredrickson, 2001).

**HOPE**

The term hope is used commonly in everyday life. The concept of hope has research support both in clinical as well as positive psychology. Positive psychologist Snyder (2000) developed the hope theory and defined it as a “positive motivational state that is based on an interactive derived sense of successful agency (goal directed energy) and pathways (planning to meet goals). The agency component of hope can be viewed as the will to accomplish a specific task or goal. The pathway component is viewed as being the means to accomplish a task or goal. Together they form the will and the way to accomplish a given task or goal.” The process of hope is unique because it provides the individual with alternate pathways to achieve goals and make contingency plans to overcome obstacles (Snyder, 2000, Snyder, Rand & Sigmon, 2002).

Hope has been recently studied in work place context and many researches in the area have found that employees who reported high levels of hope performed better than those with low levels of hope. Hope has been found to correlate positively to employee retention, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Luthans, Avolio, Avej & Norman, 2007).
Hope capitalizes on behavior which is goal-directed and motivated by the individual himself to achieve proficiency. This motivation, initiated by the individual, provides the required internalized control and the determination to accomplish one’s goal (Luthans & Youssef, 2007). The state of hope is open to development through interventions at workplace. The interventions or initiatives introduced at workplace enhance the hope levels of the employee by encouraging participation, creativity and carving out contingency plans (Snyder, 2002). The interventions used most commonly are training to help set goals, especially the ones where the individual will have to stretch outside the comfort zone. This helps in stepping up the game and strive for mastery in the task in a gradual manner. Interventions are also required to reassess the goals the individual had set for himself, such reassessment is done to get rid of the false hope that the individual has been working on (Snyder, 2000).

**OPTIMISM**

According to Seligman’s (1998) attribution theory, he defined “Optimists as those who make internal, stable, and global attributions regarding positive events (eg. Task accomplishment) and those who attribute external, unstable, and specific reasons for negative events (eg. missed deadline).” Optimism allows the individual to attribute positive events. These attributions are done through events which are personal and permanent in nature or situation specific and help internalize the positive vents and externalize the negative events with the view that they are temporary in nature (Peterson & Steen, 2002; Seligman, 1998).

The expectancy of positive outcome builds the foundation for motivating the individual towards pursuing the goal and approaching the future with solid coping
strategies/behavior (Carver & Scheier, 2002). It is important to note that an individual with optimistic approach will always attribute the events which have resulted in a positive outcome to the personal cause (intrinsic) and the events with the negative outcomes will be the contribution of external and temporary causes (Seligman, 1998). The expectation of the best possible outcome from any given situation can be explained as being optimistic. Optimists are diligent/perseverant workers who continue to deal with hurdles and cope actively with problems when pursuing desirable outcomes (Kluemper, Little & DeGroot, 2009). It is the pursuit of goals which is viewed as personally valuable by the individual that makes way for being optimistic for the future. The goal persuasion helps in creating optimism and keeps the individual motivated.

Optimism is generalized; it does not deal with specific pathways or anticipation of possible contingencies that may arise in the future. It is a positive outlook but it is kept in check with the realistic evaluation (Luthans & Youssef et al, 2007). There is a very high possibility that individuals end up setting expectations which are unrealistic and strive towards goals which are unattainable, this ends up bringing more failures than success and this conditioning turns individuals into pessimists. Pessimism has been seen to be responsible for depression and physical illness (Peterson & Seligman, 1984).

Optimism inculcates the components of cognition, emotion, and motivation and is hence related to a large number of outcomes which are positive for the individual (physical and psychological health, well being, coping & recovery) (Seligman, 2002) and it further supports performance of the individual at workplace.
Individuals who have higher optimism levels when compared to their counterparts perform better in leadership roles (Wunderley, Reddy & Dember, 1998).

Seligman (1998) provided focused interventions to develop optimistic style. These were further developed by Carver & Scheier (2002), identifying individuals who are pessimistic the intervention were used to change the destructive assumption and make way for the individual to feel responsible for any favorable condition which arises (optimism). Hence, pessimistic individuals can be converted to optimistic explanatory style by replacing the beliefs and assumptions towards more positive and productive ones. Effective and realistic goal setting strategies can help prevent individuals from slipping into the pessimistic explanatory style.

It is important to accept that only optimism cannot assist the individual towards accomplishments, the individual needs to have a negative view about the situation so as to revisit and critically analyze the existing systems in the organization. From this perspective, Peterson (2000) and Schulman (1999) referred to “flexible optimism” which helps the individual to adapt to an approach which alternates between optimism and pessimism. The individual is able to create accountability for challenges and difficult situations and optimism makes for the recognition of the achievements as well as of others around the individual.

RESILIENCE

The concept of resilience has been drawn from clinical psychology, particularly from the work by Masten (2001) on children who have succeeded despite great adversity. According to Coutu (2002), “the common themes/profiles of resilient people are now recognized to be (a) a staunch acceptance of reality, (b) a
deep belief, often buttressed by strongly held values, that life is meaningful, and (c) an uncanny ability to improvise and adapt to significant change.”

Tugade, Fredrickson and Feldman-Barrett (2004) further established that positive emotions enhance resilience in the face of negative events. The research lends empirical support to resilience being a state like capacity in the positive organizational context.

Bandura (1998) had noted “success usually comes through renewed effort after failed attempts. It is resiliency of personal efficacy that counts.” After an adverse event, individual returns to a level which is higher than the homeostasis. Furthermore, this helps the individual’s resilience level to increase and even grow. So every time an individual faces an adverse situation, the ability to bounce back is enhanced. The previous setback makes the individual more able to deal with current adverse situation (Richardson, 2002).

In the workplace context, Luthans (2002) defined resilience as “the positive psychological capacity to rebound, to bounce back from adversity, uncertainty, conflict, failure or even positive change, progress and increased responsibility”. Resilience is a very important aspect in today’s work environment as there are constant changes. The work place expects the individual to be open to new experiences and be flexible when facing changing demands. It is also expected that the individual shows emotional stability when any adversity arises. Only resilient individuals will be able to successfully deal with the stressors of such evolving workplace (Tugade et al, 2004).
“By altering the level of perceived risk, the individual level of resilience can be developed” (Masten, 2001). Resilience is considered as a process in positive organizational behavior, through which the individual employs the adaptive assets to deal with the risk factors. In context of today’s workplace, the risk factors include job insecurity, stress, ineffective leadership, counterproductive group dynamics or lack of communication or feedback. The outcomes of the resiliency process are determined by how the risks have accumulated, what are the interactions between the risks and in what sequence will they appear (Sandau-Beckler, Devall & Rosa, 2002). Resilience helps individuals to become flexible and adapt in a highly challenging and uncertain situation. Resilient leaders have been found to encourage themselves and even their subordinates to take risks and exhibit innovate behavior.

Luthans et al (2005) found that when Chinese factory workers had to go through transformation and change at their workplace, their levels of resilience and performance were positively correlated. Resilient individuals are those who are willing to accept what the reality is and whether the individuals possess the necessary and effective adaptive mechanisms that arm them to be flexible in unexpected situation, and further improvise in response to the adversity. These individuals have a very strong and stable value & belief system which provides them the foundation to bounce back (Coutu, 2002).

Risk-focused strategies are used to develop resilience. These include the strategy to eliminate the risk factors thereby decreasing the probability of failure. The second strategy is process based, which facilitates the use of assets in building effective coping mechanisms when adversity arises. And, the third strategy is asset
focused which emphasizes on enhancing the individual’s asset inventory (Masten, 2001; Masten & Reed, 2002).

**FIGURE 1.1**

**RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL AND EMPLOYEE WORK OUTCOMES**

![Diagram showing relationships between psychological capital and employee work outcomes]

(Avey, Reichard, Luthans & Mhatre, 2011)

Police officers lead a life in which there are numerous uncertainties. The organization expects them to serve the nation first and not let personal interests interfere with the duty. They are expected to be calm and composed in times of disturbances in society and lead by example. An officer is willing to put his life at stake to save the lives of the citizens. Apart from the above mentioned challenges of the work and its related responsibilities, a police officer has to direct, channelize and keep his work force motivated in the right direction. He has to regularly inculcate a feeling of *esprit de corps* so that they feel like a part of the big family.
In concurrence with the above mentioned qualities, a police official is required to encourage subordinates towards innovative ideas and higher ethical and moral codes. It is up to the officer to change the mindset of everyone around him and move the organization forward to accomplish the identified goals. It is only such effective leadership style that is a key factor in the life and success of the organization.

Such qualities of an effective leadership were identified way back in 1938 by Barnard, summarizing it as “the ability of a superior to influence the behavior of subordinates and persuade them to follow a particular course of action.” In fact, leadership is the ultimate act which brings to success all of the potent potential that is in an organization and its people. It is eventually responsible for transforming potential into reality.

Classical studies (Ohio, Iowa, Michigan) of leadership suggested behavioral traits that identify leaders. Ohio State University studies on leadership conducted during 1940’s stands out as the most prominent as they categorized the behavioral traits of leaders in broad dimensions. The researchers at the university initially identified thousand dimensions that explained/characterized leader behavior. Eventually, these dimensions were narrowed down to two broad categories – Initiating structure and Consideration. Both these dimensions encompassed the description given by employees that explained leadership.

Leaders exhibiting high initiating structure maintain high standards of performance and meeting deadlines is critical to task completion. With goal attainment as the target, the leaders define own roles as well as the roles of the
employees. A leader high in consideration has high mutual trust and regard for the employees’ feelings and respects for the ideas. The satisfaction and well-being of the employees is considered important by the leader along with perceiving all employees as equal and the approach is always friendly and personal. Such behavioral determinants have been found to be highly associated with effective leadership in over 160 studies reviewed recently. The followers of leaders who were high on consideration reported more satisfaction in the jobs. The employees respected the leader more and it resulted in a motivated workforce. The leader having high initiating structure was found to be more effective in organizational productivity and high group performance.

The studies conducted at University of Michigan conducted during 1950’s also identified behavioral characteristics of leaders which were related to effective performance. The researchers preferred an employee oriented leadership over production oriented since the former emphasizes on interpersonal relations in contrast to seeing employees as a means of accompanying group tasks.

The employee oriented leadership is similar to consideration dimension suggested by Ohio State leadership studies as the Michigan researchers reported the employee oriented leaders to be associated with high levels of job satisfaction and higher productivity at group levels.
TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

In 1979, Burns identified the importance of the process by which an individual is able to influence a group to achieve a common goal. Two types of leadership were identified, i.e., Transactional and Transformational. It was believed that every leader can be classified by the leadership style according to the inclination shown for a transaction based interaction with the group members or preference towards bringing transformation in the working approach.

Subsequent research and changes that have come in the workplace scenario since Burns classification encouraged Bass (1985) to focus towards how the transformational style was responsible for elevating the levels of maturity and ideals in the subordinates. Even though transactional style of leadership expects the followers to work on the task at hand and do not expect them to get an opportunity to enhance their skills and lead themselves as well as others, Bass integrated both styles of leadership in the development of Multi Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). It was believed that both these styles are integral for the achievement of the goals and hence, a transactional leader was identified as one who likes to operate within an organized system where there is less possibility of flexibility in working style in order to maintain control. It is the reward and punishment that motivate people to work. The work requirements are made clear along with the rewards that follow after successful completion of the task. For such a leader every step in the process of task completion is important, whereas a transformational leader would encourage new paradigms when old ones lose their effectiveness.
Bass viewed both styles of leadership as complementary to each other. It is essential for a transformational leader to use transactional strategies to be successful in completing a task. There cannot be a total absence of transaction between the leader and follower (Bass, Avolio & Goodheim, 1987). Since the transactional leader works for self-oriented interests rather than the interests of the followers; it becomes counter-productive to the goals of the organization. This also results in group members to look towards shorter ways to complete the tasks and claim rewards, since the concern for quality is not emphasized and hence a base for further continuous improvement is not established.

Leadership is a process to create change. The leaders may create change by playing a central role in the actual change process, or by creating an environment in which others are empowered to act. The transactional style is consistent with the Leader-member exchange relationship, where the follower has to meet performance standards of the leader in order to get basic needs fulfilled by the leader (Bass, 1985; Graen & Cashman, 1975). Another important aspect of transactional style is the management by exception, where the leader monitors the followers’ performance and if there is any deviation in the expected standard of performance, the leader is ready to take corrective action. In the transformational style of leadership, since there is no predetermined direction to follow to reach the goal, the leader’s role is to inject as much enthusiasm and energy in the followers required for successful completion of the task at hand. The idea is to develop others into leaders and the course of action is developmentally oriented.
Bass (1985) “described transformational leaders as those who:

a) Raise associates’ level of awareness of the importance of achieving valued outcomes and the strategies for reaching them,

b) Encourage associates to transcend their self-interest for the sake of the team, organization, or larger policy,

c) Develop associates’ needs to higher levels in such areas as achievement, autonomy, and affiliation, which can be both work related and not work related.”

Transformational leaders personally identify with the mission that is being pursued which results in higher motivation and enhanced willingness to accept challenges. This kind of leadership has been observed at all levels in various organizational settings like, government, educational, industrial and military (Avolio & Yammarino, 2002; Avolio & Bass, 1988; Bass & Avolio, 1993, 1994; Boyd, 1988; Koh, 1990).

Egan (1985) states that: “Transformational leaders are creators, shapers of values, interpreters of institutional purpose, exemplars, makers of meanings, pathfinders, and molders of organizational culture. They are persistent and consistent. Their vision is so compelling that they know what they want from every interaction. Their visions don’t blind others, but empower them. Such leaders have a deep sense of the purpose for the system and a long-range strategic sense and these provide a sense of overall direction. They also know what kind of culture, in terms of beliefs, values, and norms, the system must develop if it is to achieve that purpose. By stimulating, modeling, advocating, innovating, and motivating, they
mold this culture, in the degree that this is possible, to meet both internal and environmental needs”.

House (1988) added to this detailed analysis by describing the role of transformational leaders “as providing followers with clear visions of the future, expressing high expectations for follower performance, and displaying confidence in the followers’ ability to accomplish challenging tasks.”

Recently, Anderson, Gisborne and Holliday, (2006), “classified some more characteristics of transformational leaders:

a) Provide ways to gain a visionary (vivid-vision) view of an agreed, encouraging, and preferred future,

b) Offer a skilled mind in planning, managing, and leading in unpredictable change environments,

c) Are an encouraging spirit who brings hope and substance when discouraging events occur,

d) Provide coaching for their personal development and team development,

e) And finally develop the skills of caring, so that they can, in the long term, become their own change agents with the skill to act with competence. In turn, they will be better able to pass this torch of knowledge and wisdom about the skills of transformational leadership along to others.”
The transformational leadership works to motivate the followers to put the mission and vision of the organization as the priority over self interests. This motivation initiates the drive towards broadened needs and development for higher potential.

Studies conducted by Bass (1985) and then by Avolio and Howell (1992) helped to identify four basic components of transformational leadership based on the original 70 item MLQ (form 5) (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

a) **IDEALIZED INFLUENCE** – A leader who manifests idealized influence instills trust in the followers by making decisions which are favorable for the followers as well as the organization. Such a leader is highly respected by the
associates and the followers admiration for the leader comes from the priority the leader gives to the needs of the followers over the personal needs of the leader. The followers should want to identify with organizational goals. The leader should be viewed as an ideal for the followers who look to emulate. The followers look up to the leader as a role model. Through idealized influence, the leader exhibits high ethical and moral commitments, which results in the reliance of the followers on the leader. The leader instills confidence in the followers by sharing the risks and emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of achievement. Using idealized influence, the leader creates admiration, respect, and loyalty among his followers.

b) INSPIRATIONAL MOTIVATION- The basic role of a transformational leader is to motivate the followers, the behavior of the leader inspires similar behavior in the followers. The leader gives meaning to the tasks of the followers and encourages towards achievement of higher goals. The followers are challenged in a manner that motivates for performance better than the expectations. The leader shares optimistic vision for the future and subsequently gets the followers involved in achieving higher goals. The leader motivates the followers by demonstrating commitment to goals.

Transformational leaders through inspirational motivation are able to subjugate any feelings of psychological setback of the followers and, hence makes the followers confident in the abilities to tackle future hurdles. To conclude, the leader brings about a exciting vision of the future, shows the
followers the ways to achieve the goals, and expresses belief in the ability to achieve them (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

c) **INTELLECTUAL STIMULATION** – A transformational leader tries to stimulate the thinking process by enhancing the intellectual capacity of the followers. It is the intention of the transformational leader to encourage the innovative and creative behavior of the followers by reassessing the existing ways to approaching problems. The leader works on the belief that there are times when the problems themselves may need to be reframed. The ideas/suggestions of followers are never criticized and encouragement is provided to try new approaches. The leader increases the levels of interests in the employees, and encourages followers to find solutions to old problems by using new innovative approaches.

Bass and Avolio (1994) impressed upon the well-being of the followers which is enhanced through the enabling of the employees to carve out own strategies in order to protect and develop own well-being.

d) **INDIVIDUALIZED CONSIDERATION**- Transformational leader acts as a coach or mentor to the followers. The first step as a mentor is to identify and accept the individual needs and aspirations along with the challenges faced by the followers in the work place or tasks. The leader then gives individual attention towards the needs and growth prospects of each member of his team. The leader assesses the potential of the followers and supports the endeavor towards higher achievement and success. By providing a supportive climate, the leader makes sure that there is always creation of new
learning opportunities for the followers. Since the leader deals with all followers on one to one basis, the awareness of each individual’s needs results in catering to the individual concerns. Such a leader always makes sure that all channels of communication are open with the followers. The leader decides what tasks to delegate to which follower so that it acts as a means for developing the skills of followers. The leader builds a one-to-one relationship with the followers, and understands and considers the individual needs and skill levels. Thus, an important attribution of transformational leaders is that the importance given to the emotional needs of each employee.

Transformational leaders need to see people as trustworthy and purposeful in order to have a supportive organizational culture. By acknowledging the contributions of each individual they lead the followers towards creative change and growth. Transformational leaders work on high ideals and moral values and they try to inculcate the values of liberty, justice, quality, peace and humanitarianism in the followers. Time and again, this leadership has been found to result in increased employee satisfaction as the leaders provide a sense of purpose and overall direction to the followers (Avey et al, 2011).

The transformational style of leadership is also viewed as a way of raising levels of self-actualization in the employees. The leader accomplishes this by emphasizing the importance of valued outcomes which can be achieved if the group members are able to increase the intellectual awareness. In this process, the members learn to rise above self interest and work for the collective team goals. The transformational leader has the quality to understand the needs of the followers and helps increase the maturity levels and reach for self-actualization.
A transformational leader is one who identifies and respects individual differences among people. It is the articulate vision of the future that helps intellectually stimulate a workforce which is rich in diversity (Yammarino & Bass, 1990). It is the ability of the leader to create strong values of internalization, cooperation and congruence through the process of realignment of the personal values of the group members (Jung & Avolio, 2000; Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993).

The role of transformational leader is not just specifying goals for the followers, the emphases is on how meaningful it would be to achieve the goals. The leader makes the achievement of the goals consistent with the self concepts of the followers. If the leader wants to engage the follower in true commitment and get the followers totally involved in the effort at hand, the leader must target towards building the follower’s self-worth. Avolio and Gibbons (1988) established that increased follower self-efficacy was a developmental effect of transformational leadership. The leader tries to inculcate a group environment that will help the members to feel empowered and encouraged to seek innovative approaches in the job. It is also the responsibility of the leader to eliminate the feeling of fear from the mind of the follower of being penalized for suggesting ideas.

A number of empirical studies on transformational leadership have established it as a very powerful source of effective leadership in the U.S. Army, Navy and Air force settings (Bass, 1985; Boyd, 1988; Curphy, 1992; Longshore, 1988 and Yammarino & Bass, 1990).

A transformational leader makes sure that the team seeks new ways of working, and makes extra effort to perform beyond contractual expectations. This
extra effort will lead the team towards higher level needs of motivation. Since the transformational leader believes in creating and shaping environmental circumstances rather than just dealing with what the circumstances throw in the way, the leader encourages the followers to seek effective answers to the problems and not to accept a safe approach. The leader ensures that the team is focused on the current task at hand along with the ability to have a greater vision of the future. The transformational leader instills confidence in the followers along with putting forward performance expectations. These expectations are set by the leader and are higher than what the followers can achieve. But, the confidence of the leader in the followers makes the followers believe in their capacity and induces greater commitment to the goal. This commitment to the leader eventually extends to the organization as well.

Bass (1985) concluded that the transformational leader is able to convince the followers to put in extra effort in order to facilitate high levels of task performance. The leader provides the followers with constructive feedback and persuades the followers to forgo personal interests. Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman & Fetter (1990) added that transformational leaders make the followers identify with the organization’s goals and values. This enhances the willingness to contribute positively to the whole work context.

Some researchers are of the view that culture also can be conducive to emergence of transformational leadership. Sinha (2000) identified that the workplace settings in India run in congruence with the social values that have been prevalent here since centuries. Even though some of the employees working in the
same organizational hierarchy are given preferential treatment as compared to others; the workplace is in fact interdependent on a variety of social structures. The Indian culture had its first experience with formal organizational style working during the interaction with the British. Hence, the core of functioning of each employee has remained personalized rather than contractual towards other employees as well as the organization as a whole. And, finally the social values in India promote harmony rather than hedonism.

Krishnan (2001), added to Sinha’s viewpoint that Indian culture is supportive to the emergence and success of transformational style of leadership. The old Indian preachings have provided uniqueness to the Indian culture. The concept of Maya, which explains that everyone lives in the reality of the contradictions of this world, and only when an individual accepts this web (Maya), the discontentment with current situation sets in. The desire to change the status quo is the stepping stone towards the beginning of transformational leadership. There are various roles that an individual will adapt to and it is the duty to fulfill the responsibilities towards the roles. It is only through doing action that one will be able to achieve freedom. Remaining inactive shall not let the individual lead to anywhere (Vivekananda, 1972). It is imperative for the transformational leader to believe in action and his followers to reach towards higher goals. Krishnan (2001) elaborated on the concept of divinity, faith in oneself and faith in everyone. Only when the leader is able to put the faith in the followers, will there be igniting of passion and commitment that has been lying unconscious. The leap of faith for the leader results in greater respect for the leader and enhances self confidence.
The belief that all human beings are striving for freedom/ self-actualization leads one to see everyone as part of the common goal. This belief provides for a collective purpose of action which is the basis of transformational leadership. The leader is not interested in criticizing others attempt to reach the goals, rather the leader looks to converge the thoughts, approach and actions of everyone to make sure the goal is achieved. From the standpoint of the supreme goal of freedom, the various means adopted are hardly significant (Vivekananda, 1972).

A leader who exhibits transformational characteristics will also contribute towards inspiring the subordinates towards positive work behaviors which are a result of the positive psychological capacities. Leaders are influential shapers of the climate in the organization. The support of leaders is necessary for employees to achieve a balance between work-life and life beyond work.

**WORK-LIFE BALANCE**

Work-life balance became important as a research area when the workplace dynamics started to change due to the economic uncertainty which resulted in a fight for survival in the organization. Work-life balance involves how much control one feels over the number of hours put in to work in comparison to the number of hours one makes available beyond the boundaries of work.

Reiter (2007) noted that most definitions of work-life balance are situational where the idea of work-life balance is subjective. The balance between work and life activities and how it is achieved changes from one individual to another as it depends on when one feels satisfied both with job and personal life. Thus supporting
the absolutist approach to defining work-life balance, the individual gives equal amount of time in every domain.

Felstead, Jewson, Phizacklea and Walters (2002) defined work-life balance as “the ability of individuals, regardless of age or gender, to find a rhythm that will allow them to combine their work with their non-work responsibilities; activities and aspirations.”

According to APA (2004), “work-life balance is the meaningful involvement of an individual in the various roles rather than just completing them as task related activities. The individual is significantly active in leisure activities, community activities, etc and is also meeting all the work demands. The individual is in no way ignoring or failing at any of the tasks mentioned above.”

Work-life balance is of great importance to government and policy makers as it is the individual who is the core to the healthy functioning of the society. Over the years, there has been an increased dependence on information technology which has definitely led to information load on the working population. It is expected that employees extend the working hours and be willing to work on weekends. It is also expected that the employees be available at all times and give prompt response to emails, phones etc beyond working hours. This has added to the sources of pressure at workplace.

Blyton, Blundsdon, Reed and Datmalchin (2006), summarized work-life balance as “when the individuals have ‘successfully’ segmented or integrated ‘life’
and work so as to achieve a satisfying quality of life, overall satisfaction and less strain or stress around juggling conflicting role demands.”

Our complex societies require a continuous negotiation between the boundaries of work and non-work related times and places. It is not that work and non-work life are always at the opposite ends of an individual’s life, in fact in most cases, there is no distinct dividing line between work and non-work times. For some people, the workplace is a social venue, where it helps them draw a positive self-worth for themselves. There are individuals for whom work is a welcome relief from the difficulties at home. Kalliath and Brough (2008) defined “work-life balance as the individual perception that work and non-work activities are compatible and promote growth in accordance with an individual’s current life priorities.” If there is an absence of the sense of balance between demands of work life and personal life, it results in emotional and behavioral problems which make eventually lead to decreased productivity and problematic drinking.

There were three basic factors identified which influence work-life balance. The first one was concerned with the work environment and the subsequent developments that might be the basis of work-life imbalance. The second factor focused on the issues relating to life beyond work setting which might be a result of work-life imbalance. The third factor pertains to the challenge of work-life balance as a policy issue (Haddon & Hede, 2010).

There has is growing concern that as the hours of work are getting longer along with added pressures and demands of work, it is leaving very little time for quality time beyond work environment. Work-life balance is an amalgamation of a
positive approach from both the individual and the organization to realize the importance of a balanced and satisfied work life and life beyond work boundaries. Employees with improved work-life balance in organizations that focus on efficient and effective performance are able to contribute more meaningfully towards organizational growth and subsequent success (Naithani, 2010).

Lockwood (2003) defined “work-life balance from two viewpoints. The first viewpoint was that of the employees’ – It is the dilemma of managing work obligations and personal/family responsibilities. The second viewpoint was from the employers’ perspective – It is the challenge of creating a supportive company culture where employees can focus on their job while at work.”

Work-life balance can be subjective, where it is interplay of the attitude, personal values and the circumstances. In such a case, work-life balance exists in an individual when there is satisfaction regarding the level of functioning in all domains of life. The individual is able to view and tackle the demands of both his job and personal life in a manner that give a sense of security, stability and steadiness towards all aspects/domains of the life.

Duxbury (2004) approached the concept of “work-life balance as an interaction of three things in the life of a working individual:

a) Role overload – having to do too much to do in the amount of time one has to do it in. Thus, it leads to feeling of stress, fatigue and times crunch.

b) Work to family interference – when work demands and responsibilities make it more difficult for an employee to fulfill family role responsibilities.
c) Family to work interference – when family demands and responsibilities make it more difficult for an employee to fulfill work role responsibilities”.

Fisher (2001) explained work-life balance as a combination of four components. The first component is time, i.e., the amount of time the individual spends at work compared to the time spent engaging himself in other activities. The second component is behavior, which deals with the ability to accomplish work goals. The issue is whether the ability to accomplish what had been set in the work setting and the satisfaction of being able to achieve the goals set in personal life. The third component is strain, which focuses on the demands of all the roles on the individual and the pressure of balancing them and avoiding inter-role conflict. The fourth component of energy explains that every individual has limited time and energy to accomplish work or non-work goals. The willingness to give more time to one domain as compared to the other will lead to imbalance.

Zedeck and Mosier (1990) and later O’Driscoll (1996) identified five basic models of work-life balance. They proposed the **SEGMENTATION** model, where the individual has two different domains in his life. One is work domain and the other is non-work domain. Since the individual has demarcated segments in life, they do not hamper the functioning and one segment has no influence on the other one in any way. The second model developed was **SPILLOVER**, which suggested that one domain can influence the other in either a positive or negative way. The work-life of an individual can influence family-life and similarly, family-life can affect work experiences. Such experiences of spillover are evident when the individual is either on flexible work schedules or has opted for work from home option. A positive family environment and no pressures from home responsibilities
can lead to positive health effects and sideline the effects of stressful work conditions (Barnett, 1998).

The third model developed was **COMPENSATION**, which suggested that the individual tries to compensate for what is missing in one domain by making up for it in the other domain. Edwards and Rothbard (2000) identified two types of compensation that a worker seeks, the first one is when the individual decreases the involvement in a dissatisfying domain and it is followed with the increased involvement in a satisfying domain. The second type of compensation is when the individual may react to dissatisfaction in one domain by pursuing activities in other domains which might be rewarding. This type of compensation can either be sought in the manner that if the employee has little autonomy at work, and may compensate it by showing autonomy in other domains, or, if the individual is pressurized at work, the reaction may come by taking time off for holidays or other hobbies. If the work routine is very mundane and does not provide satisfactory achievement, then the individual will try to compensate this deficiency in other domain of life. In other words, if the individual is not satisfied with the work environment and it is not stimulating, the individual might compensate by being involved in activities at school for children or be proactive in community work which will give recognition and appreciation.

The fourth model proposed was the **INSTRUMENTAL** model, where activities in one sphere are instrumental and supportive in success in other spheres of life. A worker may take up a job which is boring and dull in order to fulfill the desires of the family, e.g., education. The fifth model developed was **CONFLICT** model which
hypothesizes that when all spheres of life have high demands, the individual has to make difficult choices which could result in conflict and a possible overload.

More recently, Clark (2000) proposed that work and family are two separate domains in an individual’s life and both these domains continuously influence each other. In the current workplace scenario, it was proposed that the work domains differ drastically in purpose and in culture with the home domain. The individual achieves satisfaction by earning a living and getting a sense of accomplishment in the work domain, while home life is satisfied by attaining close relationships and personal happiness (Clark & Farmer, 1998). Both the domains expect and encourage a totally different set of behaviors and way of thinking.

Clark proposed that the domains have borders that individual cross on daily basis. The borders can be physical, temporal and psychological. A physical border is one where domain-relevant behavior takes place within the walls at work or at home. Temporal borders are set by the duration which decides as to how many hours are work-related and how many hours are for family responsibility. The most fluid of the borders is the psychological borders since they are rules created by the individuals. These rules are governed by the thinking, behavior and emotional patterns that are appropriate to one domain.

The borders are characterized by permeability, flexibility, blending and strength. Some borders are more permeable than others and hence elements from one domain can enter the other domain. There can be temporal and physical permeations in work which are perceived as causing interference. Most commonly documented psychological permeation is the negative spillover of emotions and attitudes from work to home domain (Evans & Bartolone, 1984). If the border is
flexible, the individual is able to choose any hour of the day to complete work or the individual can choose any work location or can let ideas, insights and emotions about work flow freely when at home. Blending occurs when the domain border is not exclusively maintained; it ends up merging with the other domain. The border strength is determined by permeability, flexibility and blending. Strong border is one which is impermeable, inflexible and hence does not allow blending. Employees prefer a weak border as it is considered to be most functional for them. In order to achieve balance in both domains, the individual tries to shape the borders in such ways as to create a desired balance. Clark (2000) defined work-life balance as “satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home, with a minimum role conflict”.

Over the years, many models of work-life balance have been introduced, but the one proposed by Guest (2002) gives a comprehensive view of the concept by identifying the various determinants of work-life balance, the nature of balance and the subsequent consequences/impact of work-life balance. This model tries to incorporate the main issues in the analysis of work-life balance. The model explain that a demanding workplace can expect the individual to spend long and irregular hours at work and similarly, a demanding home can pressurize the individual regarding the commitments and obligations at home, community, etc. The existent work culture can also be determinant of work-life imbalance by not allowing the option of flexible time to the employees. An easy work culture will provide the employees occasional time off when required. The feeling of satisfaction that the individual is able to balance work and life beyond work also depends upon the environment at home. If the individual has too many responsibilities at home and work is also demanding, this will definitely put a lot of stress. Guest (2002), guided
the attention to individual factors which contribute to the perceptions of work-life balance. He opined that the view of balance is based on the orientation of the individual and the extent to which the individual puts work or home life as a central interest along with various aspects of the personality. Adding further to the concept, the feeling of balance is viewed as being a subjective one and the objective indicators of work-life balance may not always align with the subjective indicators of work-life balance. It is highly possible that the individual who feels that life is balanced prefer work as a priority.

Work-life imbalance can be caused by the demands of work which may be either too low or too high. Some organizations let employees take time off for personal issues whereas others may demand long and irregular working hours. There are demands on individual towards the commitments and obligations outside work pertaining to childcare, elderly care or other social commitments that take away concentration from work.

**FIGURE 1.3**

**DETERMINANTS, NATURE & CONSEQUENCE OF WORK-LIFE BALANCE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Determinants</th>
<th>Nature of the Balance</th>
<th>Consequences/Impact</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Contextual</td>
<td>A. Subjective</td>
<td>Work satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demands of work</td>
<td>Balance-no emphasis</td>
<td>Life satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture of work</td>
<td>Balance-home central</td>
<td>Mental health / wellbeing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demands of home</td>
<td>Balance-work central</td>
<td>Stress/illness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture of home</td>
<td>Spill over of work to home</td>
<td>Behavior/performance at work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Individual factors</td>
<td>Spill over of home to work</td>
<td>Behavior/performance at home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work orientation</td>
<td>B. Objective</td>
<td>Impact on others at work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personality</td>
<td>Hours of work</td>
<td>Impact on others at home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>“Free” time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal control &amp; coping</td>
<td>Family roles</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age, life &amp; career stage</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Guest, 2002)
Depending on the orientation towards the dimensions of work and life beyond work, a number of individual factors play determining role. Some individuals have work as the central aspect of life as the need for achievement and prosperity gets fulfilled. Today, the issue of work-life balance is a major concern for employees and equally important to employers. Technology has contributed to the issue of excessive work hours. Lapierre and Allen (2006) found positive correlation between work-family issues and tele-work. Work-life balance issues are not restricted to certain types of professions or by gender; they are experienced by both men and women across different stages of their careers. This makes it a universal issue (Darcy, McCarthy, Hill & Geraldine, 2012). It makes individuals struggle regardless of their sex, gender or marital status (Powell & Greenhaus, 2010).

Work-life imbalance leads to increased attrition rate, turnover intentions and lower productivity (Aryee, Fields & Luk, 1999; Glass & Estes, 1997). It leads to various behavioral and emotional problems like anxiety, depression, guilt, and problematic drinking (Kalliath & Brough, 2008).

If individual reports balance in work life and life beyond work it will be associated with better performance at work as well as feeling of satisfaction, better general health and well being. Any change in conflict and facilitation will subsequently bring changes in the perceptions of work-life balance (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007).

The organizations have accepted the issue and have introduced innovative practices to help employees deal with the imbalance. Initiatives such as flexible working hours, alternative work arrangements, leave policies and benefits, and
employee assistance programs – collectively referred to as work-life benefits and practices (WLBP’s) have been introduced (Morgan & Milliken, 1992; Osterman, 1995). These benefits and practices ease the interference of one domain which will help in meeting the demands of the other domain and eventually make the domains less opposed to each other (Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1999). The WLBP’s are beneficial for employees as they are able to give the employees increased control over time and place of work (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). These programs are a great contributor to the reducing stress levels of the employees (Thompson & Prottas, 2006). In context of the organizations, the WLBP interventions provide various benefits for the organization. The positive relationship between WLBP’s and reduced absenteeism (Dex & Scheibl, 1999; Thompson, Beauvais & Lyness, 1999), improved recruitment & retention (Anderson, Coffey & Byerly, 2002; Allen, 2001; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998) as well as increased productivity (Sands & Harper, 2007) leads to better work-life balance.

Looking into the extensive description given about the three variables of the research work, namely; psychological capital, transformational leadership and work-life balance; and their importance in work place setting, it can be concluded that a leader who exhibits transformational characteristics will also contribute towards inspiring the subordinates towards positive work behaviors which are a result of the positive psychological capacities. The literature has highlighted the role of leaders as influential shapers of the climate in the organization. And hence a leader plays a pivotal role for employees to achieve a balance between work-life and life beyond work. The section has provided theoretical understanding and support for the rationale under which the current research was conceptualized.