“There is no surer foundation for a beautiful friendship than a mutual taste in literature.”

-P.G. Wodehouse

In today’s economy, the investment in human resources is a source of competitive advantage that the organization can use for long term profitability and growth. Organizations need to nurture each part of human resources available in order to sustain this competitive advantage. This chapter outlines the importance of relevant prior research that highlights the concepts of transformational leadership, psychological capital and work-life balance in organizational setting. This provides for a foundation to build upon in reference to the current research undertaken.

PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

Conceptually, psychological capital focuses on relatively unique positive state like constructs that have performance impact (Luthans, 2002). As the first variable of the present research work, the following research studies have been reviewed.

Abbas and Raja (2015) concluded that psychological capital was negatively related to job stress. The individuals who reported higher psychological capital revealed to have lower levels of job stress when compared to their colleagues who reported low levels of psychological capital. The study also investigated the effect of psychological capital on innovate job performance. Individuals with high psychological capital were rated as exhibiting more innovative job performance. Hence, establishing a positive relationship between psychological capital and innovative job performance.
Hodges (2010) conducted an experiment to see the effect of contagion effect on employees whose managers who were subjected to psychological capital intervention. The experiment consisted of two groups and the subjects were assigned to these groups in random manner. The control group consisted of 52 managers and 150 associates, whereas the treatment group had 58 managers and 239 employees. The results indicated a difference between pre-test and post-test treatment group (treatment period of 6 weeks). As a result, employees reporting to managers subjected to psychological capital intervention experienced an increase in own psychological capital. Therefore, revealing a significant correlation between employee engagement, psychological capital and performance.

Cetin (2011) explored the effects of the individual dimensions of psychological capital (hope, resilience, efficacy and optimism) on organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The survey collected data from 213 employees based in Ankara. The results showed that the dimensions of hope and optimism were positively related to organizational commitment and there was positive relationship between job satisfaction and the dimensions of resilience, hope and optimism. The research concluded that organizational psychological capital was a significant predictor of organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

Luthans, Norman, Avolio and Avey (2008) concluded that psychological capital was a significant and unique predictor of employee performance based on data collected from workers of private and public (government) owned enterprises.

Brandt, Gomes and Boyanova (2011) collected a sample of 231 individuals selected from Eastern Europe (Bulgaria), Nordic Europe (Finland) and South Europe
Luthans, Avolio, Avey and Norman (2007) focused their research on individual components of psychological capital in relation to individual work outcomes. The study concluded that the composite factor of psychological capital had significant relationships with performance and satisfaction when compared to the relationship between each of the four facets (Hope, optimism, resilience, efficacy) individually with the above mentioned individual work outcomes.

Luthans, Norman, Avolio and Avey (2008) conducted a study that contributed to the positive relation of psychological capital with employee performance, commitment and satisfaction. The study found that supportive climate is very important for the satisfaction and commitment of the employees. With the view to understand the relationship between employee outcomes and supportive organizational climate, the research concluded that psychological capital mediated the relationship between the above mentioned factors.

Avey, Wernsing and Luthans (2008) studied the positivity of 132 employees and its impact on relevant attitudes and behavior. The results concluded that...
psychological capital was related to employees’ positive emotions. The results also showed positive emotions to be related to employee attitudes (cynicism and engagement) and behavior (deviance and citizenship) and these positive emotions play a mediating role in the relationship of these attitudes and behaviors with psychological capital. All the factors were found to be relevant in predicting organizational change. Most important interaction of mindfulness (higher order awareness) and psychological capital helped in predicting positive emotions.

Avey, Luthans and Jensen (2009), identified psychological capital as holding the key to the variations in how employees perceived their stress symptoms. Psychological capital also emerged as a key factor in their intentions to quit and job search behavior. The study suggested strategies to develop employee psychological capital to help deal and cope with stress at workplace.

Riolli, Savicki and Richards (2012) studied on psychological capital in relation to stressors and hypothesized that psychological capital will aid the students to cope with stress in the academic environment. The results showed that psychological capital worked in a manner that it reduced the relationship between stress and negative outcomes and hence reduced psychological symptoms and health problems. The researchers concluded that psychological capital empowers the students with the required mental strength to cope with stressors.

In a study based on female entrepreneurs in Nigeria, Babalola (2009) investigated the influence of psychological capital on innovative behavior. The total sample of the study was 405 females. The study concluded that females who are
highly educated and have high efficacy and rely on internal locus of control display innovative behavior.

Gupta and Singh (2014) conducted a study in the Indian research and development (R & D) context with the focus on the relationship between employee creativity, leadership and psychological capital. After collecting data from 496 government employees, the results showed that the relationship between leadership and creative behavior was fully mediated by psychological capital.

On a broad cross section of 280 employees, Avey, Luthans, Smith and Palmer (2010) tested the impact of long-term positive core construct consisting of psychological capital and its effects on employee well-being. They used two measures to assess the psychological well being of the employees. The results indicated that psychological capital provided the explanation of the variance in the ratings of the well-being measures over time. The basic relationship between psychological capital and well-being was established through the research work.

Wang, Liu, Wang and Wang (2012) in their study on a total of 1011 Chinese doctors (both males and females) concluded that psychological capital plays a mediating role between work-family conflict and burnout. The research provided foundation for psychological capital to be developed as a positive tool to help erase the negative effects of work-family conflict and burnout, especially in female doctors in china.

McMurray, Pirola-Merlo, Sarros and Islam (2010) in the exploratory study on employees of a religious/church based non-profit organization concluded that
there is a positive relationship between employee ratings of the leader (transformational style) and his ratings of psychological capital, commitment, climate and well-being. In addition to the above findings, the demographic comparison of the employees revealed that older employees had scored significantly higher on psychological capital than younger employees.

Herbert (2011) conducted an exploratory survey on 209 permanent employees of construction companies in Western Cape, South Africa. The study revealed negative relationship between the dimensions of occupational stress and burnout. High levels of occupational stress lead to higher probability of experiencing burnout. The study indicated that employees who experienced low levels of occupational stress and burnout reported high levels of psychological capital. Employee engagement was also found to be positively correlated to psychological capital and the dimensions of optimism and self efficacy were found to be the strongest predictors. Employee engagement was negatively related to occupational stress as well as burnout. A detailed study of the dimensions of psychological capital (hope, optimism, self efficacy and resilience) in the South African context revealed that if any one of the dimensions is developed, the other dimensions are highly likely to increase. In today’s work scenario, occupational stress is inevitable and through this study, psychological capital has been established as a coping resource which plays a mediating role in reducing the effects of occupational stress and burnout.

Walumbwa, Peterson, Avolio and Hartnell (2010) conducted a study on a sample of 79 police officers and 264 followers. Using hierarchical linear modeling, the results concluded that the relationship between follower psychological capital
and performance was mediated by service climate. When service climate was perceived as high, the relationship between psychological capital and performance was stronger. The results showed that follower psychological capital mediated the positive relationship between psychological capital and performance of the followers.

Avey et al (2011) in their extensive meta-analysis of 51 independent samples (N=12567 employees) concluded that psychological capital was positively related to employees behavior (citizenship), employee attitude (commitment, job satisfaction, psychological well-being) and performance (evaluations made by supervisors and self). The study provided evidence that psychological capital is responsible for reducing undesirable employee behavior (deviance) and negative employee attitudes (job stress and anxiety, turnover intentions and cynicism). The research presented a strong case for use of psychological capital in Human resource development.

To get further insight in understanding person-organization fit, Larson, Norman, Hughes and Avey (2013) examined a sample of 1002 working adults from U.S. They concluded that if the levels of psychological capital of the leader and follower are similar, then there is a better fit between employees and their work environment.

Simmons and Buitendach (2013) conducted a cross sectional survey on call centre employees (N=106) from a company in South Africa. The results indicated positive relationship between all the three variables – work engagement, organizational commitment and psychological capital. The study highlighted that amongst call centre
employees, optimism (sub-dimension of psychological capital) played a very important role.

Murthy (2015) highlighted the role of work engagement and psychological capital in enhancing the citizenship behavior of the executives and concluded that development of psychological capital will lead towards human resource development for the organization.

In an attempt to study the bi-directional work-family enrichment and innovative work behavior and their relationship with psychological capital, Mishra, Bhatnagar and Gupta (2013) collected responses from 398 service sector married employees. Using structural equation modeling analysis, it was concluded that psychological capital plays a mediating role in relationship between innovative work behavior and bi-directional work-family enrichment. The study reported that psychological capital will have positive relationship with family-work enrichment and work-family enrichment.

In conclusion, past researches conducted to support the positive role of psychological capital in influencing performance, satisfaction, innovation, commitment, citizenship etc have been established through this section.

**TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP**

The essence of the relationship between leader and follower is the interaction of people with different skill sets and varying levels of motivation. Transformational leadership is an ideological movement towards substantial change and pursuing of
organizational goals. As the second variable of the study, the following research studies have been reviewed.

Jung and Sosil (2002) conducted a study to examine the role of transformational leadership to empower the group to perform effectively. The research selected 47 groups from four Korean firms. The partial least square analysis indicated that the positive relationship between collective efficacy and empowerment was positively related to the perception of group effectiveness by the group members. All the three variables were found to be positively related to transformational leadership.

In a comparative study, the components of commitment (normative and affective) among employees working in US, India and China and its relationship to transformational leadership were assessed. Ramchandran and Krishnan (2009) found that both normative and affective commitment were positively related to transformational leadership. It was also found that the sense of obligation towards the organization was positively related to transformational leadership in India and China. In fact, most employees working in US had emotional attachment with the work.

In a longitudinal field experiment in an army setting, Dvir, Eden, Avolio and Shamir (2002) tested the effect on followers’ performance and development when the military leaders were given transformational leadership training. The leaders who were subjected to transformational leadership training were assigned to experimental group and the leaders in the control group received eclectic leadership training. The sample consisted of 54 leaders, 90 direct followers and 724 indirect
followers. The results indicated that through transformational leadership training, the leaders were able to positively impact the followers’ development and performance. The experimental group leaders had a direct impact on the followers’ development and an indirect impact on followers’ performance as compared to the control group leaders. Hence, the role of transformational leadership in enhancing performance and development was establishment.

To compare the leadership styles among female and male leaders, Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt and Engen (2003) analyzed 45 studies. The results reported that female leaders used more transformational style as compared to male counterparts. Female leaders also exhibited more contingent reward behavior which is a component of transactional style of leadership. The male leaders were found to engage in management by exception (both active and passive) and laissez-faire style.

Lowe, Kroeck and Sivasubramaniam (1996) conducted a study using Multi-leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and found the transformational leadership scale to be a predictor of unit effectiveness. Three variables were identified as playing a moderating role in the relationship between leadership style and effectiveness. These variables were; a) the organizational setting, which refers to the type of organization, whether it is private or public (government); b) the perceptions of the subordinates which affect the correlation between effectiveness and leadership. This variable was found to be the most powerful/influential moderator; and c) the levels of the leader—higher management level or lower will determine the moderating role in the relationship between leadership style and effectiveness.
Raja (2012) collected data from 150 employees of service sector firms in Pakistan to study the effects of transformational leadership on employee work engagement. It was concluded that when the manager practices all the four components of transformational leadership; i.e., idealized influence, individual consideration, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation; the result is high work engagement in employees.

Bushra, Usman and Naveed (2011) concluded in the study of transformational leadership, its effects on organizational commitment and job satisfaction on 133 banking sector employees of Lahore (Pakistan) that job satisfaction and organizational commitment were positively influenced by transformational leadership. Obiwuru, Okwu, Akpa and Nwankwere (2011) concluded in the study on small scale enterprises in Lagos state area of Nigeria, that when the scale of operation was small, transactional style works towards performance enhancement. But, the study recommended use of transformational leadership style when these enterprises transitioned towards development, maturity and growth. Ismail, Mohammed, Sulaiman, Mohamad and Yusuf (2011), collected data from 118 employees working in a subsidiary of U.S. firm based in East Malaysia. The study proved that the relationship between transformational leadership and empowerment was positively correlated with organizational commitment. The further use of statistics also confirmed the mediating role of empowerment as a variable on the relationship between commitment and transformational leadership for the above mentioned sample.
Boerner, Eisenbeiss and Griesser (2007) conducted an empirical study on leaders (N=91) from German company to study the underlying processes which influence organizational success in the context of transformational leadership. The variables used in the study were follower performance, organizational citizenship behavior, follower innovation (triggered through debates on task related issues). The results indicated that organizational citizenship behavior was partially mediating the relationship between follower performance and transformational leadership, whereas the relationship between transformational leadership and follower innovation was totally mediated by followers’ debates.

Through the doctoral research work on studying the style of leadership and its effects on employee performance in the field of law enforcement, Duncan (2007) concluded that transformational leadership has seen an increase in the number of studies which support and promote its benefits for the organization, but in the ever changing work culture a medley of transactional-transformational style was suggested as optimal for functioning.

In an attempt to explore the effects of emotional intelligence on leaders’ feminity, researchers (Loganathan & Krishnan, 2010) conducted a study on data collected from five hospitals in South India. They used 110 doctor-nurse dyads, to study the effects of emotional intelligence and leaders’ gender on transformational leadership. The results indicated that doctors with high levels of emotional intelligence were better transformational leaders than the ones who scored low on emotional intelligence and doctors who were high on feminine traits were able to control their emotions and have higher emotional intelligence. Although masculinity
and emotional intelligence were also positively correlated, in the case of relationship between transformational leaders and leader’s feminity, emotional intelligence played a mediating role.

Vigoda-Gadot (2007) developed two models to explain the role of organization politics in public security organization in Israel (N=201). The research concluded that in order to increase the output of public service systems, transformational leadership can play an encouraging role as it further reduced the negative influence of organizational politics. The study also suggested that transformational leadership may be used to enhance the employees performance (formal & informal both). The research reported transformational leadership to be positively related to in-role performance and organizational citizenship behavior.

Khan and Aslam (2012) proved in the study that both transactional and transformational leadership styles were predictors of innovative work behavior. Using a sample of 100 bank managers between the age group of 30 – 55 years, the sample consisted of 78 men and 22 women working in Rawalpindi and Islamabad, Pakistan. The results showed that women managers use more transformational style in their working and the male managers exhibited more innovative behavior. Overall, transformational leadership was used more in public sector banks.

Ismail, Abidin and Tudin (2009) proved that the increase in followers’ performance was due to the relationship between transformational leadership and empowerment. The results confirmed that empowerment was the mediating variable in the relationship between followers’ performance and transformational leadership.
Hayward, Amos and Baxter (2008) investigated the relationship between leadership, employee performance and emotional intelligence from a sample of 16 leaders and 800 raters in a South African Parastatal. Identifying, emotional intelligence and leadership as independent variables and employee performance as dependent variable, simple correlation analysis showed strong linear relationship between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence.

Abbas, Iqbal, Waheed and Riaz (2012) collected data from a sample of 200 employees from schools, colleges and universities to study the relationship between transformational leadership and innovative work behavior. Using Pearson’s correlation method to find out the relationship between the five sub-classifications of transformational leadership (Idealized influence attributed, idealized influence behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration) and the four parts of innovative work behavior (idea generation, idea promotion, idea implementation and work commitment), the results revealed that the facets of transformational leadership and innovative work behavior are significantly correlated.

Ke, Zhang, Sun and Zhang (2013) identified twenty four (24) provinces in China to collect data (N=306) from a variety of industries to study the impact of transformational leadership on performance outcomes. Results indicated that transformational leadership did not have direct impact on subordinates’ innovative performance but when psychological capital played a mediating role, subordinates’ innovative performance is positively influenced by transformational leadership.
In a longitudinal questionnaire study conducted by Nielsen, Randall, Yarker and Brenner (2008), on sample from employees working with the Government of Denmark’s elderly care sector. The results indicated that followers’ perceptions of work characteristics (meaningfulness, developmental opportunities and role clarity) play a mediating role in the relationship between psychological well-being and transformational leadership style.

Dimaculangan and Aguiling (2012) in the study on salespersons turnover intentions provided support for management issues in the Philippine work environment. Through the variables of person-organization fit, ethical climate, and organizational commitment, the study tried to examine the effects of transformational leadership on turnover intentions. Data was collected from 387 salespersons belonging to real estate, pharmaceutical, and food and beverage industries. The analysis of data, using structural equation modeling, indicated that direct influence of transformational leadership decreased the turnover intentions. The variables of ethical climate, person-organization fit and organizational commitment were responsible for reducing turnover intentions in an indirect manner.

To study the influence of transformational leadership and organizational commitment on employee performance and job satisfaction, Thamrin (2012), conducted a study on the employees of shipping company in Jakarta, Indonesia. The total number of respondents were 105, with a minimum work experience of 5 years. The results showed that transformational leadership had a positive influence on organizational commitment and employees’ performance.
Atmojo (2012), using 146 middle management employees as sample assessed the influence of transformational leadership on organizational commitment, job satisfaction and employee performance. The study reported job satisfaction and organizational commitment to be significantly influenced by transformational leadership.

Avey, Hughes, Norman and Luthans (2008) provided the first conceptual model integrating psychological capital and transformational leadership. Using a sample of 341 working adults, it was concluded that both transformational leadership and psychological capital contribute to the feeling of empowerment. The study also found that psychological capital and transformational leadership influence the negative outcomes (intention to quit and cynicism).

Collecting data from 149 respondents from medical and engineering sectors of Pakistan, Ismail, Khurram, Hussain and Jafri (2011) used descriptive statistics to conclude that employees who perceived high levels of transformational leadership also scored high on the scale of psychological capital. The study also revealed that employees who exhibited stronger intention to leave had reported high levels of psychological capital.

Using structural equation modeling, Peterson, Walumbwa, Byron and Myrowitz (2008) examined the relationship between psychological capital, transformational leadership and firm performance. Comparing the results between high technology start-ups (n=49) and established firms (n=56), the results indicated that CEO’s psychological capital related positively to transformational leadership ratings. The research concluded that the ratings of transformational leadership by
employees mediated between CEO psychological capital and the performance of the firm. In a start-up firm, transformational leadership was strongly related to firm performance as compared to established firms.

Yu and Yanfei (2011) investigated the relationship between entrepreneur psychological capital, innovative behavior, transformational leadership and knowledge sharing in Chinese enterprises. The results revealed that transformational leadership was influenced by entrepreneur’s psychological capital and, that employees’ innovative behavior was influenced by transformational leadership. But, knowledge sharing and transformational leadership intervened between the relationship of employee innovative behavior and entrepreneur psychological capital.

In a study conducted by Toor and Ofori (2010) on the construction industry in Singapore, it was found that psychological capital correlated with transformational leadership and authenticity. Transformational leadership played a mediating role for psychological capital when predicting leadership outcomes like satisfaction, extra effort and effectiveness.

Gooty, Gavin, Johnson, Frazier and Snow (2009) concluded through structural equation modeling that role performance and organizational citizenship behavior are consequences of psychological capital and established support for the conceptual model that suggested performance outcome was related to positive psychological capital. A strong relationship between followers’ perception of transformational leadership and psychological capital was also established through this study.
Sui, Wang and Yue (2012) in the study on 785 employees and 49 supervisors from a logistic company in China, used regression analysis to prove the relationship between transformational leadership, followers’ performance and satisfaction was mediated by followers’ psychological capital. The analysis identified that as the followers’ procedural justice levels grew from low to high, the relationship between followers’ psychological capital and transformational leadership became stronger.

In a study on a sample of 230 students pursuing management studies in China, Li, Shang, Xi and Wang (2012) used structural equation modeling to ascertain the relationship between different dimensions of psychological capital with transformational leadership, organizational commitment and followers’ task performance. The results showed that the dimension of hope, self-efficacy, and resilience mediated the relationship between task performance and transformational leadership, and, only self–efficacy and resilience were found to be mediating between the relationship of transformational leadership and organizational commitment.

The research studies reviewed in this section emphasize the importance of transformational leadership in workplace.

**WORK-LIFE BALANCE**

Work-life balance can be subjective, where it is the 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. Work-life balance is the third variable of the study and the following studies were reviewed for the purpose of this research work.

It is a difficult task for employees in current corporate work environment to strike a balance between their personal and professional commitments. Keeping this in mind, Dasgupta and Arora (2011) concluded that work-life balance can be achieved by reducing occupational stress. This reduction of occupational stress will contribute to employee productivity and business growth.

Rianjee (2012) collected data from 130 banking sector employees from Jammu & Kashmir bank to study the relationship between job overload, work-life imbalance and turnover intentions. Statistical analysis revealed that when there is high work–life imbalance and perceived job overload, then the turnover intentions are also high. The study concluded the need for the organization to adapt positive practices and policies to counter the turnover intentions.

White, Hill, McGovern, Mills and Smeaton (2003) used data from national survey of British employees from the years 1992 and 2000 to compare the effects of high performance management practices combined with longer working hours on work-life balance. The results concluded that there was strong negative job-to-home spill over due to high performance practices and long working hours.

Devi and Rani (2012) collected data from 280 women employees who worked in the BPO sector in Chennai, to study the role of work-life balance on life satisfaction and family satisfaction. The fact that modern world of work creates
work-life imbalance with consequences for individual, families and organizations, the study used correlation to establish positive relationship between life satisfaction and work-life balance; and family satisfaction and work-life balance.

The examination of work-life balance practices and its relation to employee job satisfaction from a sample of 450 employees from two organizations in Pakistan provided suggestions for implementation of work-life balance policies in government and non government organizations. The sample consisted of employees who were survivors of layoffs in the organizations. Through regression analysis, Saif, Malik and Awan (2011) confirmed work-life balance and job satisfaction to be positively correlated.

Rantenen, Kinnunen, Mauno and Tilleman (2011) proposed that employees who belong to different types of work-life balance (beneficial, harmful, active and passive) will differ qualitatively in context of their role engagement and psychological functioning. The sample of the study was university professionals from Finland, managers from Finland and managers from Estonia. The findings confirmed the above mentioned hypothesis and also suggested that to counter turnover intentions of employees, the organization need to promote work-non work enhancement and prevent work-non work conflict.

Mathew and Panchanathan (2011) conducted an exploratory study on women entrepreneurs in South India. The setup of the society is such that women who are entrepreneurs are burdened with responsibilities at home and work and it is challenging to balance the various roles. The researchers developed a 39 statement tool to assess work-life balance. The results revealed five factors which were
responsible for influencing work-life balance for the above mentioned sample. The factors were – role overload, quality of health, time management issues, social support and dependent care issues.

Bird (2006) suggested that due to rising work pressure, work-life balance solutions were an important issue for executives and human resource professionals. Listing the factors that are affected by work-life imbalance – growth and profit impact, full engagement and customer service, talent acquisition, health care, it was suggested that apart from the organizations adopting policies for the benefit of work-life balance of the employees, the individual as managers or executives need to create own “balance”.

According to data collected by work-life balance compendium (2001), the absence of employees had doubled in the past decade due to work-life conflict. The workers who experience high work-life imbalance missed twice as many workdays.

Association of Executive Search Consultants (AESC) in 2010 conducted a worldwide survey of 800 senior level executives to find out the work-life balance attitudes. The survey conducted through Bluesteps.com (executive career management service of AESC), concluded that 55% of executives surveyed did not have satisfactory work-life balance, career was rated less important than family and health, but more important than personal leisure and hobbies, work-life balance considerations were important in the decision to remain with employer or not, 70% believed that leisure time decreased due to modern lifestyle (internet, etc), 63% were often required to work on weekends and 73% were required to extend the work between 6pm and 9pm, 50% respondents suggested work-life balance to be
negatively affected by a promotion, more than 50% respondents rated work-life balance and increased earnings as equally important, and 82% felt that the company lacks programs to improve work-life balance.

Chavan and Potdar (2011) analyzed the effects of BPO sector working on the work-life balance of the employees in India highlighting the various health issues (sleeplessness, headache, stress, sense of exhaustion, lack of concentration & fatigue) that were the result of the nature of work and working hours. The study also reported that even though, employees enjoyed the benefits provided by company and the ability to spend more money in supporting family, there was hindrance in personal life.

Deery (2008) examined the role of work-life balance in the employees’ intention to leave the organization. The findings suggested that employee attitudes such as commitment, satisfaction, personal attributes (affectivity – positive & negative), and the role of work-life balance are responsible for employee turnover. The study suggested the need for flexible working hours, training opportunities, family friendly work policies.

The employee engagement report published in 2007 by Equal Employment Opportunities Trust, New Zealand reviewed previous researches to suggest that workplace culture plays an intermediary role in work-life balance and its relationship with increased productivity. A work place culture that is supportive to the work-life balance initiatives promoted by the organization makes the base for increased productivity. The report also argued that employee engagement and extra
effort by employees can be increased if the organization adapts to people centric culture supported by work-life balance initiatives.

Hughes and Bozionelos (2007) focused their study on male bus drivers which is a neglected group but still establishes the need for human resource systems to deal with work-life imbalance of the employees. For the purpose of the study, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 20 drivers. It emerged from the data, that work-life imbalance contributed towards the dissatisfaction with work along with the increase in withdrawal behavior (non-genuine sick leave).

In a recent research by Swarnlatha and Rajalaxmi (2015), perceived work-life balance was studied in the context of its relationship with employee outcomes (commitment, turnover, and satisfaction). Using faculty members (N=241) from engineering colleges in India, the study impressed upon the need for organizational initiatives to support a healthy work-life balance. It further suggested that employees who are able to achieve a good work-life balance will be more committed, more satisfied and have less intention to leave.

Kalliath and Monroe (2009) tested a new work-life balance measure to see the comparative effect impact of work-family conflict on work-life balance between the Anglo and Asian samples. The study highlighted the cultural differences in work-life balance. When compared to Anglo respondents, the Asian respondents were less concerned about the work-life balance. Also, the Asian respondents perceived the supervisor’s support to work-life balance to be more influential than Anglo respondents.
With the IT sector being such a huge contributor towards India’s GDP and along with the biggest sector in terms of employment opportunities, Rangrezi (2010) studied the importance of work-life balance for the employer and employees along with the understanding of the emotional intelligence perspective of human behavior. For this purpose, the investigator used judgemental sampling to select 355 IT employees from 3 levels of management. The findings revealed two major factors that had an impact on the work-life balance of IT employees – feeling of exhaustion and quitting the jobs. The employees were found to be reluctant to take a sabbatical or career break as it was involved with the perception of losing position or seniority in the organization. IT employees were also found to be aware of their emotions and were sensitive towards the recognition and appraisal of emotions of others. Overall, there was significant relationship between the influence of emotional intelligence and work-life balance dimensions. Use of emotion, appraisal and recognition of emotion in others were found to be significantly impacting the negative effects of work-life balance. Employees who were able to regulate emotions and used work-life balance programs reported reduced feelings of risk towards position in the organization. It was found that work related factors that interfered with employees’ personal life were highest among the age group 35-45 years and this interference was lowest in employees above 55 years of age. The junior and middle management were highly influence by factors that impact work-life balance in the IT sector. The senior management had to deal with the highest level of work related factors that interfered with personal life.

The pilot study conducted by the Construction Industry Institute Inc, Australia (2005) found that the experience at work for construction employees
affected the various aspects of non-work lives. The overall experience of work-life balance of the employees had an impact on psychological well-being and the feeling about the company. Employees reported high levels of burnout and low levels of satisfaction and commitment when work was perceived to be negatively interfering in life beyond work. Along with implementing human resource management policies to support employees for satisfactory work-life balance, the study suggested the need for organizations to develop supportive culture which recognizes the contributions of individual employees.

The studies reviewed in this section provide a comprehensive view of the role of work-life balance.

The chapter provided valuable insight into many facets of the variables and the settings in which they have been analyzed. The strong empirical support for each of the variables of the present research work (psychological capital, transformational leadership and work-life balance) have made the approach towards the aims and objectives of this study more focused and thereby concentrating towards the practical implications for police organizations.