Work life balance practices and the link to innovation and productivity: A comprehensive literature review

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Abstract

Purpose - This paper is to review recent literature, by conducting a thorough investigation of the limitations and implications for future research on work-life balance with the focus and linkages between work-life balance practices, machine learning and emotional intelligence, work-life conflict, the correlations between work-life enrichment and work-life balance practices, the relationships between employee job satisfaction and work-life balance, the links between work-life balance and the managerial support.
Research design, data, and methodology - The paper will further detail linkages between work-life balance and organizational performance outcomes productivity and innovation. Previous literatures have paid attentions to the link of HR practices and organizational outcomes such as productivity, flexibility, and financial performance, but the understanding needs to be extended to involve innovation performance. Dealing with employees' emotions using different machine learning techniques is one of the phenomenal researches in today's world. Here, we examine how far the employees are conscious of their own self and found the ideas and views of an individual about themselves and others. Without proper knowledge about their personality it will be very difficult for an individual to manage their own emotions. This study also aims at finding out the individual abilities to manage their emotions in order to perform well.
Conclusions - A theoretical conceptual framework has been built by integrating the existing literature to explain a number of factors which are closely associated with work-life balance. The conceptual model illustrates how the work-life balance interplays with performance and interrelates with the aforementioned factors

Keyword: work life balance, productivity, innovation

1. Introduction

The main purpose of this research paper is to examine the impact of work-life balance practices with emotional intelligence on productivity and innovation. If the employees have knowledge their own passion, they are able to manage their work more effectively and productively.

In the current world we live in, Work life balance is a challenging issue for the employees and has attracted the attention of researchers. It is defined as a satisfactory level of involvement between the multiple roles in a person's life. Managing the boundary between home and workplace is becoming more challenging. This paper aims to gain more insight about the emotional intelligence level of employees and the work-life balance practices of organisations and suggest ways to enhance the emotional intelligence of the employees, with the collected data. This assists them to analysis their own self and improves them.

2. WLB: Theoretical Background

The literature review on Work-life Balance (WLB) has been pieced together in view of its gained popularity with the major aim to have prosperity of society and the realization of fulfilling lives for its employees by supporting the growth of every employee and the further development of the companies and its relations to broader quality of life (Guest, 2002). Previous literatures have paid attentions to the link of HR practices and organizational outcomes such as productivity, flexibility, and financial performance (e.g. MacDuffie, 1995;

Ichniowski 1997; Youndt, 1996; Delery & Doty, 1996; Pfeffer, 1998; Mendelson & Pillai, 1999; Collins & Clark, 2003), but the understanding needs to be extended to involve innovation performance (Laursen & Foss, 2003). The strategic management literature recognizes innovation as a critical enabler for firms to create value and sustain competitive advantage in the increasingly complex and rapidly changing environment (Madhavan & Grover, 1998; Subramaniam & Youndt, 2005).

Work life balance" is a broad and complex phenomenon, lacking in a universal definition.(Maxwell & McDougall, 2004) Greenhaus, Collins, and Shaw (2003) define work family balance as the "extent to which an individual is equally engaged in and equally satisfied with his or her work role and family role (p. 513)". That is, work life balance includes satisfaction and good functionality at work, as well as at home with a minimum of role conflicts (Clark, 200).

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), influenced by the work of Kahn (1964), are credited with creating the seminal definition (MacDermid & Harvey, 2006) of work–life conflict: "a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (p. 77). By virtue of 21 years of additional research, Greenhaus, Allen, and Spector (2006), influenced by the work of Edwards and Rothbard (2000), expanded the definition to include conflict that occurs when one role interferes with an individual's effectiveness in the other role. "Therefore, the essence of work–family conflict is interrole interference, and work–family conflict could just as easily be referred to as work–family interference" (Greenhaus et al., 2006, p. 64). Conflict is considered a bidirectional construct in that work can interfere with family and family can interfere with work (Frone, 2003; Hammer & Thompson, 2003). Three types of conflict have been identified in literature: time-based, strain-based, and behavioral-based (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Time-based conflict is considered the most prevalent type of conflict (Hammer & Thompson, 2003). It occurs in one of two ways: (a) the amount of time spent in one role takes away from the amount of time available for the other role, and (b) preoccupation with one role impairs the ability to function in the other role, despite the individual's physical presence (aka presenteeism; Bartolome & Evans, 1980). Time conflict combines the schedule conflict and excessive work time concepts identified by Pleck, Staines, and Lang (1980) with role overload, originally identified by Kahn et al. (1964). Time-based conflict also reflects scarcity theory, in that the total amount of time and/or energy available to an individual is fixed and participation in multiple roles decreases the total amount of time and/or energy available to meet all demands, thereby creating conflict (Marks, 1977) and strain on the individual (Goode, 1960).

Enrichment is composed of four "types" of gains: (a) developmental (i.e., the acquisition of knowledge, skills, perspectives, or values); (b) affective (i.e., changes in behavior and/or attitudes); (c) capital (i.e., acquisition of assets); and (d) efficiency (i.e., development of an increased focus level; Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006). As with enhancement and facilitation, enrichment is grounded in the role accumulation expansionist theories of Sieber (1974), Marks (1977), Barnett and Baruch (1985), and Voydanoff (2001). In direct opposition to Carlson et al.'s (2006) view of distinct constructs, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) support the idea that enrichment is synonymous with enhancement, facilitation, and integration.

Greenhaus and colleagues (2003) further suggest that work life balance is defined by three key, and interconnected, components: firstly, "time balance" which refers to equal time being given to both work and nonwork roles; secondly, "involvement balance" which refers to equal levels of psychological involvement in both work and family roles; and finally, "satisfaction balance" which refers to equal levels of satisfaction in both work and family roles. Therefore, in order to achieve a work life balance these components should be considered (Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003)

Hill, Allen, Jacob, Bair, Bikhazi, and Langeveld (2007) suggest that HRM professionals who use the musical metaphor of harmony to create initiatives may achieve greater success than those who frame interventions in the hopes of achieving balance. Furthermore, in his reconceptualization of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs for employee commitment, Stum (2001) suggests that work/life harmony, defined as "the drive to achieve a sense of fulfillment in balancing work and life responsibilities" (p. 7), replaces self-fulfillment as the pinnacle pyramid.

2.1. Emotional Intelligence

Based on Daniel Goleman's work [1], the oldest parts of the human brain, those responsible for feelings, are also key links for managing ourselves and our social skills. These are skills that are ingrained in the genetic development of people and give rise for the survival and adaptation of human kind. The emotional part of the brain perceives the world differently than the reasonable part. The result of this brings new outlooks on an enormous gap between cognition and emotion. Some skills are just cognitive, such as analytical thinking and technical skills. Some of them are a mixture of combined parts between cognition and emotion; this is called emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2001, p. 18–36). Emotional intelligence can therefore be defined as the ability to recognize and adjust our emotions that trigger our responses with certain situations or people. We can learn how to gain control over our responses and actively participate in forming our social skills. Emotional

intelligence – the ability to manage ourselves and our relationships – consists of four fundamental capabilities: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social skill. Each capability, in turn, is composed of specific sets of competencies (Goleman, Boyatziss, & McKee, 2002, p.263–265). Emotional intelligence (EI) [1] refers to the ability to perceive, control and evaluate emotions. Some researchers suggest that emotional intelligence can be learned and strengthened, while others claim it is an inborn characteristic. Emotions in the workplaceplay a major role in how an entire organization communicates within itself and to the outside world. The consequences of emotional states in the work area, both behavioral and attitudinal, have substantial significance for individuals, groups, and society. Positive emotions in the workplace help employees obtain favorable outcomes including achievement, job enrichment and higher quality. Negative emotions, such as fear, anger, stress, sadness and guilt,however increase the predictability of workspace devianceand how the outside world views the organization.The four branches of Emotional Intelligence are 1. Perception Appraisal and Expression of Emotion. 2. Emotional Facilitation of Thinking. 3. Emotional Understanding and Analyzing Emotions; Employing Emotional Knowledge. 4. Emotional Management. The main identifying characteristics of Emotional Maturity are made possible by the Emotional Intelligence component. 1. Self-awareness: Recognize and understand own moods and motivations and their effect on others. To achieve this state, one must be able to monitor her/his own emotional state and identify own emotions. Self-Regulation: Controlling the impulses—instead of being quick to react rashly, one can control their emotions and think before responding to express appropriately. 3. Empathy: The ability to understand another person's emotional reaction. This is only possible when one has achieved self-awareness—as one cannot understand others until they understand themselves. 4. Social Skills: Identifying social cues to establish common view manage relationships and build networks.

2.2. Impact of Work-life Balance on work-life conflict

A substantial body of empirical evidence has identified numerous demographic characteristic that have been observed to predicate work life conflict: including, sex, age, family status, age of youngest child, and job type (Bellavia & Frone, 2005)Several variables related to the family have been identified in the scientific literature to predict family to work conflict; as opposed to work to family conflict. A number of factors, related to the family-related work, have been found to be related to family to work conflict: including, childcare and household chores; time involvement and psychological involvement with one's family; martial tension; and the number and age of children (Bellavia & Frone, 2005).

Work-related factors primarily have been found to predict work to family conflict; as opposed to family to work conflict. One of the most consistent identified predictors of work to family conflict is working hour; with higher number of hours worked predicting higher levels of work to family conflict (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1997). Specific work stressors that have been found to be related to higher levels of work to family conflict include: work demand or overload, work-role conflict, work –role ambiguity, and job distress or dissatisfaction, job insecurity (Barnett & Hyde, 2001).

In addition, certain aspects of people's jobs, which may not be directly viewed as stressors, have been observed to related to higher levels of work family conflict. For example, jobs that require coordination with others at work has been observed to be related to higher levels of self-report work family conflict (Batt & Valcour, 2003). Additionally, more forms of technology (e.g., email, laptops, etc.) that an employee uses to communicate between work and home domains or to do work from home has been found to related to an increase in reported work family conflict (Batt & Valcour, 2003).

Work life conflict is often viewed in the literature a stressor that together with other stressors has the potential to have a detrimental impact on the wellbeing of workers. Research has established and documented that conflict between the work and family domains has a number of significant negative consequences for individuals Most of the individual-level outcomes relate to physical and mental health. Research has observed work life conflict to be associated with a myriad of indicators of poor health and impaired well-being: including, poorer mental and physical health, less life satisfaction, higher levels of stress, higher levels of emotional exhaustion, less physical exercise, higher likeliness to engage in problem drinking, increased anxiety and depression levels, poor appetite, and fatigue (Frone, Russell, & Barnes, 1996; Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Rose, Hunt, & Ayers, 2007)

Research demonstrates that work family conflict affects outcomes related to the family, as well as to the individual employee. In general, work family conflict has been found to be associated with: lower family satisfaction; increase family-related absenteeism and tardiness; decreased performance in the family role, increased parenting overload (Bellavia & Frone, 2005). Adams and colleagues (1996) found that higher levels of work family conflict predicted lower levels of familial support, and higher levels of familial support predicted lower levels of family-work conflict (Adams, King, & King, 1996) Work life conflict has been demonstrated to be linked to a number of work-related outcomes, including: decreased job satisfaction, self-reported decreased

work performance, higher rates of absenteeism; increased staff turnover, intention to leave the organisation, increased job stress levels (Bellavia & Frone, 2005)

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), heavily influenced and connected by the work of Kahn et al. (1964), are credited with bringing about the seminal definition (MacDermid & Harvey, 2006) of work–life conflict: "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (p. 77). As a result of 21 years of additional research, Greenhaus, Allen, and Spector (2006), guided by the work of Edwards and Rothbard (2000), expanded the definition to include conflict that occurs when one role obstructs with an individual's effectiveness in the other role. "Therefore, the essence of work–family conflict is inter-role interference, and work–family conflict could just as easily be referred to as work–family interference" (Greenhaus et al., 2006, p. 64). Conflict is expressed as a bidirectional construct in that work can inhibit with family and family can intrude with work (Frone, 2003; Hammer & Thompson, 2003). Three types of conflict have been determined in literature: time-based, strain based and behavioral-based (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Time-based conflict is examined as the most universal type of conflict (Hammer & Thompson, 2003). It occurs in one of two ways: (a) the amount of time spent in one role takes away from the amount of time available for the other role, and (b) preoccupation with one role impairs the ability to function in the other role, despite the individual's physical presence (aka presenteeism; Bartolome & Evans, 1980). Time conflict combines the schedule conflict and overtime work time concepts identified by Pleck, Staines, and Lang (1980) with role overload, originally identified by Kahn et al. (1964). Time-based conflict also emulates scarcity theory, in that the total amount of time and/or energy available to an individual is fixed and participation in multiple roles decreases the total amount of time and/or energy available to meet all demands, thereby creating conflict (Marks, 1977) and strain on the individual (Goode, 1960).

Strain-based conflict occurs when the strain (or stressors) felt in one role make it troublesome to perform in the other role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). As noticed by the work of Pleck et al. (1980), strain-based conflict is established in the perception fatigue and irritability created from one role affecting the activities in the other role. Strain-based conflict also is aligned with person–environment (P-E) fit theory, developed by Kahn et al. (1964). P-E fit is based on the centreal conflicting role demands, where fit is defined as the Match between an individual's knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) and the role he or she is asked to perform. When KSAs do not match the expectations of the role (whether work or personal), a lack of fit develops, ultimately leading to stress (both positive and negative; Nelson & Simmons, 2003). Work-related strain conflict has been positively identified to job ambiguity and negatively related to leader support and facilitation (Jones & Butler, 1980; Kopelman, Greenhaus, & Connolly, 1983). Work-related strain has also been in association to stressful events at work or job burnout that result in fatigue or depression in the family role (Bartolome & Evans, 1980; Jackson & Maslach, 1982). Family- based strain conflict principally occurs when spousal career and family expectations are not in accordance with each other (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1982; Chadwick, Albrecht, & Kunz, 1976; Eiswirth-Neems & Handal, 1978).

Behavioral-based conflict rises when the behaviors required in one role are inappropriately matched with the behaviors required in the other role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985): "behaviors that are expected or appropriate in the family role (e.g., expressiveness, emotional sensitivity) are viewed as inappropriate or dysfunctional when used in the work role" (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 1997, p. 4). As previously noted, this is bidirectional in nature in that aggressive behaviors that may be required at work are considered inappropriate at home (Hammer & Thompson, 2003).

2.2.1 Proposition B1: Work-life balance practices has a positive correlation with work-life conflict.

Work/Life Enrichment

The concept of enrichment is receiving considerable attention by work/life scholars because it has the potential to describe the more positive qualities, connections, and benefits gainedfrom the work and life interface. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) define enrichment as "the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role" (p. 73). Enrichment is composed of "types" of gains and developmental (i.e., the acquisition of knowledge, skills, perspectives, or values). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) support the notion that enrichment is synonymous with enhancement, facilitation, and integration. Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1999) propose that integration occurs "when attitudes in one role positively spill over into another role, or when experiences in one role serve as resources that enrich another role in one's life" (p. 407).

In addition, integration is supported by P-E Fit theory, which suggests as the work-place level of role integration increases to the point that is consistent with an individual's personal preference, individuals are more likely to negotiate work and family roles to his or her satisfaction (Kreiner, 2006). Fletcher and Bailyn (2005) purport relaxing the spheres of work and family to allow individuals to be involved in both with the expectation

that the overall quality of each sphere will be improved. Finally, integration is considered the middle-ground between segmentation (i.e., complete separation of roles) and enmeshment (i.e., complete overlapping of roles; Chesley, Moen, & Shore, 2001; Minuchin, 1974). Kossek and Lambert (2005) dispute that integration is acquainted with spillover theory, in that individuals bring on attitudes and beliefs from one role to the other. Integration is the extreme of segmentation theory (i.e., the intentional separation of the work and family spheres) popular in "old-school" corporate America (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000).

Graves, Ohlott, and Ruderman (2007) define enhancement as facilitation that appears as the result of when one role increases energy and attitude, and contributes to the development of skills in the other role. Thoits (1987) articulates that an individual's attendance in multiple roles may enhance one's energy reserve by increased sources of self-esteem, social identity, resources, and rewards available, thereby contributing to a greater ability to cope with multiple demands. This role accumulation expansionist perspective is in direct conflict with the scarcity hypothesis that underlies conflict (Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). This is caused by the struggle that resources are not only augmented by multiple role participation but also transferred between roles as needed (Graves et al., 2007). Wadsworth and Owens (2007) suggest that because enhancement and Conflict are two unique constructs, which therefore means it is possible to experience high levels of each concurrently.

Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, and Kacmar (2007) define facilitation as "the extent to which an individual's engagement in one life sphere (i.e., work/life) provides gains (i.e., developmental) which enables an elevated level of functioning of another life area (i.e., family/work)" (p. 64). Similar to enhancement, facilitation, at its core is rooted in role accumulation expansionist theory (Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Grzywacz & Butler, 2005; Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). Moreover to expansionist theory, Wayne et al. (2007) suggests positive organizational scholarship (POS; Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003) contributes to facilitation because it accentuates the positive future of work–life interface by focusing on the "good" in humanity. In addition, the ecological systems theory (EST; Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000a; Voydanoff, 2001) contributes to the understanding of facilitation in its assumption that people are motivated to desire and have the ability to grow and develop. Wayne et al. (2007) identify three constructs to this phenomenon of facilitation: engagement, gains (asproposed by Carlson et al., 2006, in their development of the enrichment construct), and enhanced functioning. They define engagement as the level of concentration an individual executes in relation to role-related activities. Active engagement leads to the development of privileges and benefits that can be carried into the other domain (Sieber, 1974). The acquisition of gains can be transferred between roles, thereby providing positive benefits to both roles (Wayne et al., 2007). Finally, enhanced functioning relates to improvements in the basic fundamental life functions, such as communication and problem-solving skills

2.2.2. Proposition B2: There is a positive correlation between Work-life practices and work-life enrichment

Impact of work-life balance on job satisfaction and managerial support

While the majority of work-life balance research is highly embedded on employees' family responsibilities, there are also a number of studies that take notice of the fact that commitments to friends and community groups, broadening the affected population to essentially all employees (e.g., Beauregard, 2006; Hamilton, Gordon, & Whelan-Berry, 2006; Tausig & Fenwick, 2001). Interference between work and non-work responsibilities has a number of negative outcomes that have been well established in the literature. In terms of job attitudes, employees reporting high levels of both work-to-life and life-to-work conflict tend to display lower levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Behavioural outcomes of both directions of conflict include reduced work effort, reduced performance, and increased absenteeism and turnover (Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002; Aryee, 1992; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997; Greenhaus, Collins, Singh, & Parasuraman, 1997; Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004). Both work-to-life and life-to-work conflict have also been associated with increased stress and burnout (Anderson et al., 2002; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998), cognitive difficulties such as staying awake, lack of concentration, and low alertness (MacEwen & Barling, 1994), and reduced levels of general health and energy (Frone, Russell, & Barnes, 1996).

With relation to job attitudes, use of and satisfaction with work schedule flexibility has been associated with increased organizational commitment and reduced turnover intentions (Aryee, Luk, & Stone, 1998; Halpern, 2005; Houston & Waumsley, 2003), and voluntary reduced hours have been linked to greater job satisfaction, loyalty, and organizational commitment (Williams, Ford, Dohring, Lee, & MacDermid, 2000). A number of studies have found that employees who benefit from childcare centres, referral services and other family-supportive practices report higher levels of commitment to the organization (Goldberg, Greenberger, Koch-Jones, O'Neil, & Hamill, 1989; Grover & Crooker, 1995; Orthner & Pittman, 1986; Youngblood & Chambers-Cook, 1984).

Research also suggests that the levels of conflict between work and family will be affected or moderated by the levels of support employees (in this case, managers) receive, the personal attributes they bring to the job, the industry norms and the way all these components are managed in the workplace. Mulvaney (2006), Cleveland (2007), Namasivayam and Zhao (2007) and Karatepe and Uludag (2007), together with Rowley and Purcell (2001), argue, in various ways, that these components work to effect job satisfaction and organisational commitment and ultimately lead to employee turnover.

These results can be interpreted using social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). When treated favourably by the organization, employees will feel obliged to respond in kind, through positive attitudes or behaviours toward the source of the treatment. Using the provision of work-life balance practices as an indicator of favourable treatment, employees will reciprocate in ways beneficial to the organization—increased commitment, satisfaction with one's job, and citizenship behaviours. The availability of work practices designed to assist employees with managing their responsibilities at home may also increase employee perceptions of organizational support, particularly if these work-life balance practices are seen as being useful (Lambert, 2000). Perceived organizational support can also be used as an indicator of favourable treatment, prompting reciprocal positive actions from employees. This proposition finds support in the results of Allen (2001), which indicated that perceptions of the organization as being family-supportive mediated the link between work-life practice availability and both impacted on commitment and job satisfaction.

2.2.3. Proposition B3: There is a positive correlation between work-life practices and job satisfaction and managerial support

Impact of work-life balance on work-life harmony

Hill et al. (2007) note "when life is seen as a balancing act, work and home are seen as irreconcilable nemeses" (p. 522). This concept of work/life harmony is not completely foreign in the up-to-date literature. Hill et al. (2007) suggest that HRD professionals who use the musical metaphor of harmony to create initiatives may achieve greater success than those who frame interventions in the hopes of achieving balance. Furthermore, in his reconceptualization of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs for employee commitment, Stum (2001) suggests that work/life harmony, defined as "the drive to achieve a sense of fulfillment in balancing work and life responsibilities" (p. 7), replaces self-fulfillment as the peak pyramid. Finally, the Illinois Cooperative Extension came up with a program titled "Intentional harmony: Managing work and life" to address a perceived gap in training (Wiley, 2003; Wiley, Branscomb, & Wang, 2007).

Harmony occurs when the resources gained through work/life enrichment (i.e., development, job satisfaction, perceived organizational commitment; Carlson et al., 2006; Wayne et al., 2007) are successfully aligned with, and serve to, ameliorate, or alleviate the stressors (i.e., time, behavior, and strain; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) arising from work/life conflict. The purpose of this model is twofold. First, it goes beyond work/life balance by integrating the concepts of work/life conflict and work/life enrichment into harmony. Furthermore, it involves the negotiation and sharing of role responsibilities (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007), which result from behavioral and process resources (i.e., development, affect, efficiency, and capital gains; Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Second, by focusing on the gains provided in the enrichment side of the model, HRD researchers and practitioners have the opportunity to propose direct interventions to maximize the gains resulting from instances of work/life enrichment (Morris, Storberg-Walker, & McMillan, 2009). Two distinct characteristics of harmony exist. First, work/life harmony can be applied to individuals or organizations. At the individual level, an individual's overall harmony can be assessed by examining their levels of experienced conflict and enrichment gains (which can be achieved through HRD-initiated interventions).

2.2.4. Prepostion B4: There is a positive correlation between work-life-balance practices and work-life harmony

Impact of Work-life balance practices on Productivity and innovation

Despite a prevalent belief to the contrary, there are a number of studies that have failed to find a significant relationship between work–life balance and organisational outcomes, or have reported mixed and even negative effects (Bruck, Allen, & Spector 2002; Forsyth & PolzerDebruyne 2007; Kossek & Ozeki 1998). In their meta-analysis Allen et al. (2000) found moderate correlations on average between work–family conflict and both job satisfaction ($r = -0.24$) and organisational commitment ($r = -0.23$). However, individual study results were highly inconsistent (ranging from $+0.14$ to -0.47). These inconsistencies in the existing literature linking work–life balance with organisational outcomes may stem from both theoretical and methodological short-comings.

Department of Trade and Industry, U.K., calculated the cost of employee absence at £4 billion per year (DTI, 2000). Family friendly policies can reduce or prevent such employee absence and thereby reduce the monetary losses. It is evident from above calculations that saving of these costs will be a direct benefit to the employee

organizations, if a better work-life balance is at the hands of the workforce. Further, various business organizations have also been calculating the individual benefits of work-life balance in monetary terms. A relevant case study is of British Telecom as cited by Yeandle (2006). In year 2006 out of total workforce of 102,000 of British Telecom, 75,000 workers were working flexibly. Improvement in yield for these workers was around 21%, which translated into £ 6 million. In addition, British Telecom's annual staff turnover came down to below four percent, whereas the sector average was as high as 17 percent. Sickness absence among home workers in British Telecom averaged less than 3 days per person per annum. The positive impact of work-life balance initiatives at British Telecom was reflected in its customer satisfaction as well. 20 million customers rated quality of service at five percent higher than before and these customers had seven percent higher satisfaction as well.

Finding a direct link between work–life balance and organisational outcomes has rarely been the result of rigourous theory development or testing (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). The few exceptions have relied mostly on concepts such as the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1995) and social exchange theory (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996), which predict for example, organisational citizenship behaviour in return for perceived usefulness of work–family benefits (Lambert, 2000), or inversely, dissatisfaction with and lower commitment to work due to perceived imbalance in workload and hours commensurate to rewards (Sturges & Guest, 2004). However, while there may be a direct link between work–life balance and employees' satisfaction, commitment and intention to stay with an organisation (based on the above theories), this is likely to be small compared to the impact of other organisational factors. For example, while extolling the virtues of flexibility in the workforce, Bond, Galinsky, and Hill (2004) actually found that flexibility was least related to the item 'I am willing to work harder than I have to, to help my company succeed' of their six criteria for 'effective' workplaces. In comparisons of workplaces high and low on flexibility, the percentage of highly engaged employees differed by 10%, as opposed to differences of 20–36% for the five other effective work practices (these were job autonomy, learning opportunities and challenges on the job, supervisor and co-worker support for job success, and involvement in management decision-making).

Work–life balance is more likely to benefit an organisation indirectly through those well-being factors found to be consistently and strongly associated with it, that is, work-related stress and burnout (Allen et al., 2000; Eby et al., 2005; Fox & Dwyer, 1999). Other aspects of organisational climate appear to interact with, and support, this relationship. For example, work–life balance is positively related to the perceived fairness and support of supervisors (Nielson, Carlson, & Lankau, 2001; White, Hill, McGovern, Mills, & Smeaton, 2003), organisational understanding of family needs (Allen, 2001; Saltzstein, Ting, & Saltzstein, 2001) and support for out-of-work activities and responsibilities (Sturges & Guest, 2004). Yet Frone, Yardley, and Markel (1997) found that support from supervisors and co-workers appeared to reduce work-to-family conflict primarily by reducing work distress and work overload.

Certainly, one of the strongest explanatory variables for work–life balance is the length of working hours, with work–life balance higher among those who work fewer hours (Dex & Bond, 2005; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001; Sturges & Guest, 2004; Thornthwaite, 2004; White et al., 2003). Although often considered at the individual level, longer and more intense working hours can be attributed to 'high commitment' management practices and expectations of prioritising work over other responsibilities (Frone et al., 1997; Hand & Lewis, 2002; Peetz, Townsend, Russell, Houghton, Allan, & Fox, 2003; Russell & Bowman, 2000). There is some evidence that practices encouraging high commitment and performance such as performance appraisal systems, quality circles, training and career development can affect pay, promotion and effort in a way that negatively impacts work–family balance (Lewis, Gamble, & Rapoport, 2007; White et al., 2003). According to role-conflict theory, high job involvement (and presumably high organisational commitment) entails greater time, effort and preoccupation with the work role which detracts from an employee's ability to fulfil the demands of other roles (Frone et al., 1992; Hammer, Allen, & Grigsby, 1997; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). For example, Adams, King, and King (1996) found that workers who reported higher levels of job involvement were more satisfied with their jobs, but also reported higher levels of work–family conflict. When work extends into family time, it can create stresses which then extend into the workforce. One meta-analysis suggests that there is a consistent negative relationship 12 between work-family conflict and job satisfaction. As far as work-life balance policies can reduce the conflict between work and family, they can increase job satisfaction (Konrad & Mangel, 2000). There is no strong empirical evidence of a positive association between high employee satisfaction and high productivity, but job satisfaction does have a clear negative relationship to absence and turnover. A satisfied workforce may be valuable because employees are then less likely to be absent and consequently affect the bottom line (Comfort, Johnson, & Wallace, 2003). Other commentators suggest that work-life balance policies can increase organisational commitment. Higher levels of organisational commitment are then correlated with lower turnover and better job performance (Eaton, 2001).

Beauregard and Henry (2009) conducted a comprehensive narrative review to examine the different ways in which work-life practices and outcomes are conceptualized and measured in the literature, and explore the theory underpinning the results. The review aimed to draw new insights and research directions from the extant

literature on work-life balance practices and their relationship to organizational performance. In identifying all the routes between work-life practices and organizational performance either proposed or implied by existing research, by identifying processes at the level of the individual and of the organization, and by specifying mediators and moderators that influence these linkages, this paper has attempted to contribute to model building in this area of study. The work-life conflict literature has amassed a comprehensive account of antecedents, outcomes, mediators, and moderators so that the phenomenon can be better understood and coped with. Papers were selected for this review on the basis of their empirical investigation of the outcomes of work-life balance practices. Relevant articles were identified using computerized searches on PsycInfo, Business Source Premier, Google Scholar, PAIS International, and International Bibliography of the Social Sciences search indices. This is especially important when working in a field in which the literature is relatively young and not especially well developed, such as that concerning the impact of work-life balance practices. The way this kind of research is conducted gives us a further insight into how the current situation is and what factors we need to consider for future research. As a model was developed based on this outcome, this kind of interplay can bring to the forefront of how the bigger picture of work-life practices and how all these structures play a vital role in the end result for businesses.

A number of firms have made aggregate productivity gains from increasing the hours of work of their employees. However, the evidence suggests that we have already reached, or passed the point of diminishing returns in many industries, particularly those working more than 50 hours per week. The relationship between extended hours of work and productivity is complex. Historically, most work was relatively less skilled and more routine. This would suggest that increased hours of work may not have had as much of a negative impact on productivity. As workplaces have become increasingly complex from a cognitive perspective, they now require much higher levels of problem solving and teamwork. The impact of extended hours on fatigue and subsequent performance and productivity is well documented. Studies show that employee productivity per hour for 10-12 hour shifts is significantly lower than for an 8 hour shift. Fatigue, which is often caused by extended working hours, negatively affects:

• The ability to comprehend complex situations without distraction
• The ability to monitor events and improve strategies
• Risk assessment and accurate predictions of consequences
• Thinking laterally and being innovative
• Controlling mood and behavior
• Monitoring personal performance • Recollecting the timing of events
• Effective communication

(Dawson, 2004) In other words, there are clear benefits to businesses from staff not working excessive hours, having breaks, enough time at home every day for rest and recuperation and holidays. Work-life balance policies are a way of reducing excessive hours and allowing employees to recover from the negative effects of short periods of working extended hours.

The complex relationship between work–life balance and other aspects of organisational climate highlights the inadequate design of much of the research in this area. The majority of studies that have empirically examined the impact of work–life balance policies (or satisfaction with work–life balance) on work-related outcomes have tested this relationship in isolation. For example, Marks and MacDermid (1996) surveyed 65 employed wives and mothers in the United States. They found that role-balanced women (those scoring high on the single item: 'Nowadays, I seem to enjoy every part of my life equally well') were higher on 'work productivity' as measured by a single self-report item. The impact of role-balance was not compared to any other work-related variable (no others were measured). When studied alone, work–life balance strategies, family-friendly culture and higher work-life balance can, and usually do, demonstrate a positive correlation with an employee's job satisfaction, organisational commitment and citizenship and decision to remain with an employer (Allen, 2001; Burke, 2001; Forsyth & Polzer-Debruyne, 2007; Greenhaus, Collins, Singh, & Parasuraman, 1997; Haar & Spell, 2004; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Lambert, 2000; Macran, Joshi, & Dex, 1996; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996; Saltzstein et al., 2001; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). However, the limited scope of these studies rarely allows for tests of mediation, nor do they assess the importance of work–life balance in the context of other aspects of the work environment.

Individual productivity is hard to measure (Eaton, 2001). Measures such as profits, are the result of the contribution of a number of people. Researchers either use firm productivity measures such as profits, or rely on self-reported productivity measures. Konrad and Mangel's US study (2000) used firm profitability (as revealed by public disclosure laws) as a measure of productivity. This meant that their study of the relationship between work-life balance and productivity had a bias towards larger firms. 7% of the variation in productivity of the firms in their random sample, was explained by the presence of work-life balance policies. They did not however directly measure the underlying mechanisms through which work-life programs increased productivity.

The authors of these econometric studies generally caution that the associations between work-life balance policies and productivity are correlations and not proof of causation. It may be that more profitable firms are better able to afford work-life balance policies. The association between providing work-life balance policies and employee productivity may go either way. The policies may encourage a greater output by workers or the policies may attract more productive workers. However, it is almost impossible to set up a large, randomized econometric study to prove a causal relationship between work-life balance policies and productivity. Productivity has multiple causes and work-life balance policies can only be part of the equation.

Within the current literature, only three studies have examined the impact of work–life balance on employee outcomes in the context of other organisational variables. For example, in a sample of 147 employed American students, Behson (2002) examined the impact of family–friendly work cultures on work-family conflict, job satisfaction and organisational commitment in comparison to three broader aspects of the work climate. While perceptions of family-supportive cultures affected work–family conflict, they did not significantly impact job satisfaction and commitment when controlling for perceived organisational support, fair interpersonal treatment and trust in management.

Greenhaus et al. (1997) investigated reasons for organisational departure among 310 accountants with moderate home responsibilities (either married or with children). They found that, rather than work–family conflict, work overload and career advancement aspirations predicted turnover intentions (other work-related variables included career development opportunities and advancement expectations). While women were more likely to leave than men, this was attributable to differences in their career aspirations.

In a study of 280 graduates in the early stages of their career, Sturges and Guest (2004) found that while graduates professed work–life balance was very important to their intentions to stay with their organisation, work/non-work conflict, fulfilment of psychological contract and number of hours worked did not significantly predict organisational commitment. Only organisational support for out-of-work activities was positively related to organisational commitment. By contrast, which organisation the graduates worked for (five in total) and functional work area accounted for three times the variance in organisational commitment than all of the work–life balance variables. While not measured directly, this suggests that other aspects of the organisation and immediate work climate have a greater impact on organisational commitment than work-life balance.

Difficulties in balancing work and private life are common, considering the fact that most people in employment spend a substantial number of hours at work. According to the Second European Quality of Life Survey (Euro Found, 2009), Europeans are more dissatisfied with the amount of time they spend with their family than with the amount of time spent at work. Workers reported that their family life is more adapted to employment demands, than work arrangements are to family life. Interestingly the negative impacts of private life on paid work seem to be reported by relatively fewer workers. Approximately, 3% of employees in the EU 27 reported difficulties in concentrating at work because of family responsibilities several times a week, and another 8% state that they experience these problems several times a month. According to the Second European Quality of Life Survey (Euro Found, 2009) about half (48%) of the employees in the EU 27 state that they are too tired from work to do household jobs at least several times a month. Nearly a quarter of the workers declare that they are too tired from work to do household chores several times a week (22%) (Euro Found, 2009).

The implications for organizations in the current academic and work domains within the work-life balance framework is quite clear in that work-life balance practices can have negative repercussions for employee performance (ie productivity and innovation). According to the business case as espoused by many firms and government bodies, these costs to organizations can be avoided by implementing programs to help employees manage their work-life conflict (e.g., European Network for Workplace Health Promotion, 2006; Human Resources and Social Development Canada, 2006). This view stipulates that work-life balance practices will assist employees in balancing their work and family demands, which can in turn lead to enhanced employee productivity and significant gains in business outcomes. By enabling employees to schedule their time in order to better balance competing demands from work and from home, and by helping employees to procure third-party assistance with caregiving responsibilities, such practices are intended to reduce or eliminate levels of work-life conflict, and thereby augment employee productivity with innovation and organizational effectiveness in this regards. (Beauregard & Henry, 2009)

2.2.5. B5 Proposition: Work-life balance practices have a positive correlation with productivity and innovation

Theoretical Framework Based on literature, the below schematic diagram represent the theoretical framework of this study.
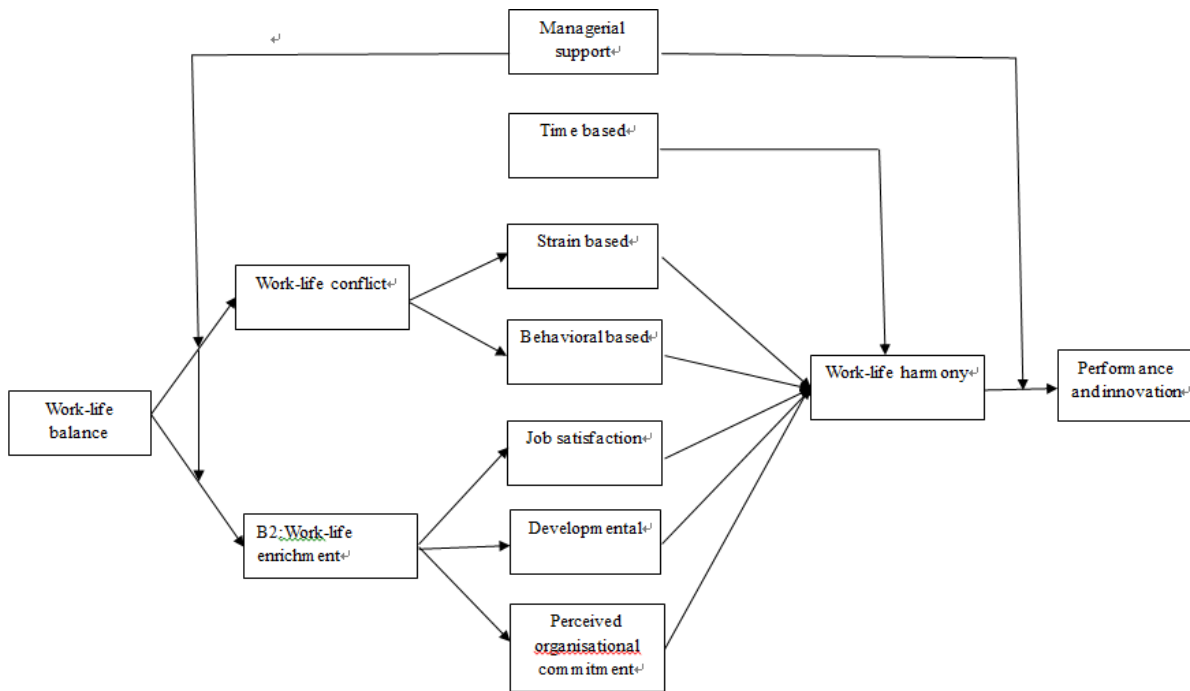
Figure 1: Theoretical Framework

3. Conclusion

To access this grounding framework, HRM professionals must move beyond the idea of balancing roles to harmony, where roles are integrated in a manner that is pleasing to, and in alignment with, an employee's values system. This requires HRM to possess not only a theoretical understanding of conflict, enrichment, and harmony but also an understanding of the measurement tools to assess them. The work/life practice/ harmony model and its relation with productivity and innovation will assist HRM researchers and practitioners in developing their theoretical understanding of this important topic. Only then can HRM professionals recommend interventions to promote organizational and individual development, change initiatives, and deal with innovation and productivity of performance. HRM researchers will be required to contribute to further conceptual and measurement development by conducting research, documenting progress, measuring accomplishment, securing management support, and tracking the efficiency and effectiveness of work/ life interventions within their scope to help with the end result. Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) contend that "with a solid conceptualization in place, HRM professionals have a foundation upon which to begin creating strategies that contribute to organizational goals by helping workers achieve work–family balance"(p. 467). Emotional intelligence is a developing ability; it is likely that accumulated life experiences contribute to EQ. Emotional intelligence has an impact on performance of employees. Secondly, an emotionally intelligent organization is based on an organizational strategy to improve productivity and innovation.

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