

# **Role Of Optimism On Job Satisfaction And Work-Life Balance Of Different Professional Groups During The Pandemic: A Comparison Between Railway Employees And Teaching Professionals**

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## **I. INTRODUCTION**

The railway is a system that comes into contact with the public in general and is the cheapest mode of transportation. The existing work culture, job profile of employees, leadership styles, incentives, and working conditions influence the efficiency and effectiveness of railways. Railway employees, administrative or operating staff have to face the commuters daily in various roles. Even in the pandemic scenario, they are expected to work with the minimum number of employees the railway network is huge and so the number of commuters, many a time, the situation goes out of control. The number of railway staff is less in proportion to the continuously alarming number of commuters. This creates tension and stress among the railway staff. The mechanical and operating work on the field becomes heavy in different weather conditions. Accordingly, the response of the railway employees also changes. Their capacities as human beings are limited and also have constraints to behave rationally in different situations. The development of the employees the organization must give priority to the humanization of work, creating a suitable working environment for employees so that they can utilize their talent, initiative, and creativity to improve their performance in the organization. The performance of the employees in the organization is determined by the quality of work-life; hence, the employee performance will result in organizational performance.

Teaching is one of the best and noble professions and the teacher is a prominent personality in this world. Teachers are a knowledge ambassador and arguably the most important group of professionals for nurturing young minds. The teachers make all the resource persons or members of other professions. Therefore, the teacher has a significant role in making the students' life bright and productive. In addition, Teacher Educators play a vital role in the case of making teachers who are engaged directly to teach the students of various levels of education. Hence, great emphasis to the matter of teacher educators. The quality of teaching depends upon active, dedicated, and satisfied teachers. The teachers who are satisfied with their job can perform their responsibilities with more concentration and devotion. It is a fact that a satisfied teacher puts his/her best efforts to make teaching more effective. Optimism positively influences the teachers' performance, students' achievement, job satisfaction, and as well as work-life balance.

## **II. OPTIMISM**

Optimism is defined as the general tendency to expect positive outcomes, whether in one's personal, social, or work life. It is based on the basic principle of positive thinking, preventing people from becoming homeless, not allowing stress to get the better of them, motivating them to believe that things only get better, which can influence those that are in a similar environment. Optimism generally leads to overall positive feelings about a situation, environment, people, or things and therefore plays a major role in determining mental health status.

The psychological resource of optimism has a very specific meaning in positive psychology literature. Optimism is defined as positive "generalized outcome expectancies" (Scheier & Carver, 1985). Contemporary researchers generally consider optimism as a positive cognitive psychological resource (Carver & Scheier, 2014; Seligman, 2006). Carver & Scheier (2014) strongly argued that the optimism construct has cognitive, emotional,

and motivational components. Optimism is based on “positive expectancy”, which accompanies emotional attributes. Further Carver and Scheier (2014) also emphasized that the expectancy component of optimism has motivational implications.

### The Dimensions of Optimism

Most psychologists treat optimism as human nature and/or an individual difference. Unfortunately, like other psychological and organizational behavior concepts, there are still many unresolved issues surrounding optimism.

#### *Optimism as Human Nature*

Both the early philosophers (Sophocles, Nietzsche) and psychologists/psychiatrists (Freud, Allport, Erikson, Menninger) were generally negative about optimism. They felt that optimism was largely an illusion and that a more accurate perception of the hard facts of reality was more conducive to healthy psychological functioning. However, starting in the 1960s and 1970s, cognitive psychologists began to demonstrate that many people tend to have a more positive bias of themselves than cold reality and that psychologically healthy people, in particular, have this positive bias. This positivity has gone all the way to being portrayed by some anthropologists, evolutionary psychologists, and neuropsychologists as inherent in the makeup of people—part of their basic human nature.

#### *Optimism as an Individual Difference*

More in tune with mainstream modern psychology is to treat optimism (as with other psychological constructs) as an individual difference; people have varying degrees of optimism. Treating optimism as an individual difference focuses on cognitively determined expectations and causal attributions. Most closely associated with the expectancy theoretical perspective are Carver and Scheier who simply state, “optimists are people who expect good things to happen to them; pessimists are people who expect bad things to happen to them.” Seligman, on the other hand, is associated with the attributional approach. He uses the term explanatory style to depict how an individual habitually attributes the causes of failure, misfortune, or bad events. This explanatory style is an outgrowth of Seligman’s earlier work on learned helplessness. He had found that dogs and then humans, when continually experiencing uncontrollable, punishing, aversive events, eventually learn to be helpless. This helplessness generalized to the point that even when the animals or humans could subsequently control and escape the aversive conditions, they still acted helplessly. Importantly, however, not all the subjects learned to be helpless. About a third resisted; they persevered and refused to give in and be helpless. Seligman extended this work on learned helplessness into generalized causal attributions or explanatory styles of optimism and pessimism.

Here are the causal attributions or explanatory style pessimists and optimists tend to habitually use in interpreting personal bad events:

1. Pessimists make internal (their fault), stable (will last a long time), and global (will undermine everything they do) attributions.
2. Optimists make external (not their fault), unstable (temporary setback), and specific (problem only in this situation) attributions.

Research continues on explanatory style, and it has been found that the internality attribution does not hold up as well as the stability or globality. Overall, however, no matter how optimism is measured, it is significantly linked with desirable characteristics such as happiness, perseverance, achievement, and health.<sup>91</sup> Again, under positive psychology, the emphasis shifted in both theory building and research from what can go wrong with people (e.g., learned helplessness, pessimism, and depression) to what can go right for people (e.g., optimism, health, and success).

#### *Some Unresolved Optimism Issues*

Even though there is considerably more research and definitive conclusions on optimism than, say, emotional intelligence, there is still much room for conceptual refinement and further research. Peterson identifies and summarizes three of the more important optimism issues as follows:

1. Little vs. big optimism. The magnitude and level of optimism may function quite differently. Little optimism involves specific expectations about positive outcomes (e.g., I will finish my assignment by 5 o’clock so I can watch the ball game tonight), whereas big optimism refers to more generic, larger expectations of positive outcomes (e.g., our firm can become the leader in the industry). Although there may be some relationship between little and big, there is also the distinct possibility of someone being a little optimist, but a big pessimist, or vice versa. There seems little question that the strategies, mechanisms, and pathways linking optimism to outcomes may differ (e.g., time management versus visionary leadership).

2. Optimism vs. pessimism. Although the assumption is often made that optimism and pessimism are mutually exclusive, they may not be. Some people expect both good outcomes (optimism) and bad outcomes (pessimism) to be plentiful. Interestingly, the explanatory style derived from attributions about bad events is usually independent of the explanatory style based on attributions about good events. In other words, attributions about bad events are identified as optimistic or pessimistic, but attributions about good events are not. It would seem that attributions about good events would be as, if not more, important to understanding optimism.

3. Learning and sustaining optimism. Although optimism is sometimes portrayed as a stable personality trait (e.g., Scheier and Carver's dispositional optimism), Seligman has led the way in popularizing learned optimism. This says that anyone, including pessimists, can learn the skills to be an optimist. Of course, this developable, statelike nature of optimism must be included in POB. The social learning process of modeling (i.e., observing positive events and outcomes in one's relevant, valued environment) can contribute to the learning of optimism.

Overall, the past, present, and future of optimism as an exciting psychological construct for the better understanding and application of human functioning in general and organizational behavior, in particular, seems very "optimistic."

Researches indicate that there is a positive correlation between optimism and success, and an inverse relationship between optimism and failure (Yogi, Jain & Parewa, 2019). Results depicted that optimism is positively related to employee performance and job satisfaction (Mishra, Patnaik & Mishra, 2016).

Orkibo and Brandt (2015), conducted a study to investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and optimism. They suggested that positive characteristics would help individuals balance their work and personal roles and thereby experience greater job satisfaction.

Another study (Rauf, 2010) was conducted to investigate the relation between optimism and job satisfaction. The results of this study were analyzed using Pearson's *r*, and findings highlighted an insignificant inverse correlation between job satisfaction and optimism.

### **III. JOB SATISFACTION**

Job satisfaction is a result of employees' perception of how well their job provides those things that are viewed as important. A person with a high level of job satisfaction holds positive feelings about his or her job, while a person with a low level holds negative feelings.

Locke gives a comprehensive definition of job satisfaction as involving cognitive, affective, and evaluative reactions or attitudes and states it is "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience."

Hoppock describes "job satisfaction as any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause any person truthfully to say that I am satisfied with my job".

Job satisfaction refers to the context and nature of the job itself. A worker's job satisfaction can be affected in positive and negative ways based on various factors. For example, pay could have both positive and negative influences on job satisfaction (Mensah and Wham, 2005) while employer feedback may increase job satisfaction (Hachman and Oldham, 1976).

Although theoretical analyses have criticized job satisfaction as being too narrow conceptually, there are three generally accepted dimensions to job satisfaction.

- I. First, job satisfaction is an emotional response to a job situation. As such, it cannot be seen; it can only be inferred.
- II. Second, job satisfaction is often determined by how well outcomes meet or exceed expectations. For example, if organizational participants feel that they are working much harder than others in the department but are receiving fewer rewards, they will probably have a negative attitude toward their work, boss, and/or coworkers. They will be dissatisfied. On the other hand, if they feel they are being treated very well and are being paid equitably, they are likely to have a positive attitude toward the job. They will be job satisfied.
- III. Third, job satisfaction represents several related attitudes. Through the years five job dimensions have been identified to represent the most important characteristics of a job about which employees have affective responses. These are:
  1. The *work* itself. The extent to which the job provides the individual with interesting tasks, opportunities for learning, and the chance to accept responsibility
  2. *Pay*. The amount of financial remuneration that is received and the degree to which this is viewed as equitable vis-à-vis that of others in the organization
  3. *Promotion opportunities*. The chances for advancement in the organization
  4. *Supervision*. The abilities of the supervisor to provide technical assistance and behavioral support
  5. *Coworkers*. The degree to which fellow workers are technically proficient and socially supportive

#### Influences on Job Satisfaction

The main influences can be summarized along the above five dimensions.

#### The Work Itself

The content of the work itself is a major source of satisfaction. The feedback from the job itself and autonomy are two of the major job-related motivational factors. At a more pragmatic level, some of the most important ingredients of a satisfying job uncovered by surveys over the years include interesting and challenging work, and one survey found that career development (not necessarily promotion) was most important to both younger and older employees. A study found work satisfaction is associated with equal opportunities and family-friendly and anti-harassment practices. Firms on the annual Fortune list of “100 Best Companies to Work For,” such as VSP, the nation’s largest provider of eye care benefits, which is known for innovative human resources practices, have sustained high levels of employee satisfaction with work.

#### Pay

Wages and salaries are recognized to be a significant but cognitively complex<sup>111</sup> and multidimensional factor in job satisfaction. Money not only helps people attain their basic needs but is also instrumental in providing upper-level need satisfaction. Employees often see pay as a reflection of how management views their contribution to the organization. Fringe benefits are also important, but they are not as influential. One reason undoubtedly is that most employees do not even know how much they are receiving in benefits. Moreover, most tend to undervalue these benefits because they do not realize their significant monetary value.<sup>113</sup> However, research indicates that if employees are allowed some flexibility in choosing the type of benefits they prefer within a total package, called a flexible or cafeteria benefits plan, there is a significant increase in both benefits satisfaction and overall job satisfaction.

#### Promotions

Promotional opportunities seem to have a varying effect on job satisfaction. This is because promotions take several different forms and have a variety of accompanying rewards. For example, individuals who are promoted based on seniority often experience job satisfaction but not as much as those who are promoted based on performance. Additionally, a promotion with a 10 percent salary raise is typically not as satisfying as one with a 20 percent salary raise.

A positive work environment and opportunities to grow intellectually and broaden their skill base have for many become more important than promotion opportunities.

#### Supervision

Supervision is another moderately important source of job satisfaction. It can be said that there seem to be two dimensions of supervisory style that affect job satisfaction. One is employee-centeredness, which is measured by the degree to which a supervisor takes a personal interest and cares about the employee. It commonly is manifested in ways such as checking to see how well the employee is doing, providing advice and assistance to the individual, and communicating with the associate on a personal as well as an official level. There is considerable empirical evidence that one of the major reasons employees give for quitting a company is that their supervisor does not care about them.

The other dimension is participation or influence, as illustrated by managers who allow their people to participate in decisions that affect their jobs. In most cases, this approach leads to higher job satisfaction. For example, a meta-analysis concluded that participation does have a positive effect on job satisfaction. A participative climate created by the supervisor seems to have a more substantial effect on workers’ satisfaction than does participation in a specific decision.

#### Work Group

The nature of the workgroup or team will affect job satisfaction. Friendly, cooperative coworkers or team members are a modest source of job satisfaction to individual employees. The workgroup, especially a “tight” team, serves as a source of support, comfort, advice, and assistance to the individual members. Research indicates that groups requiring considerable interdependence among the members to get the job done will have higher satisfaction. A “good” workgroup or effective team makes the job more enjoyable. On the other hand, if the reverse conditions exist—the people are difficult to get along with—this factor may harm job satisfaction. Also, cross-cultural research finds that if members are resistant to teams in general and self-managed teams in particular, they will be less satisfied than if they welcome being part of teams.

#### Working Conditions

Working conditions have a modest effect on job satisfaction. If the working conditions are good (clean, attractive surroundings, for instance), the personnel will find it easier to carry out their jobs. If the working conditions are poor (hot, noisy surroundings, for example), personnel will find it more difficult to get things done. In other words, the effect of working conditions on job satisfaction is similar to that of the workgroup. If things are good, there may or may not be a job satisfaction problem; if things are poor, there very likely will be.

Shome and Khurana (2002) have found that background variables like age, job experience, designation, marital status, and education have a positive impact on job satisfaction and report that as with the increasing age of workers their job satisfaction also increases.

Thakur (2014) has conducted a study on "A Comparative Study on Job Satisfaction of Teacher Educators concerning Private Teachers' Training Institutions of the University of GourBanga and University of Kalyani". The study revealed that (i) the level of Job Satisfaction of Teacher Educators of private teachers' training institution was containing 0% for the level of extremely satisfied as well as very satisfied whereas, 13% containing moderately satisfied, 86% comprising not satisfied and 1% was the extremely dissatisfied level of Job Satisfaction. Therefore, it can be said that the key percentages of Teacher Educators had no Job Satisfaction. And (ii) there is no significant difference in the level of Job Satisfaction of male and female Teacher Educators concerning private teachers' training institutions of the University of GourBanga and University of Kalyani.

Ghosh and Panda (2014) have conducted a study on "A Comparative Study of Job Satisfaction among Teacher Educators in Different Types of Secondary Teachers' Training Institution in West Bengal". The study revealed that (i) the level of Job Satisfaction of Teacher Educators working in Govt. and Govt. Aided teacher training institutions are better than the Teacher Educators working in self-financing teacher training institutions. And (ii) there is a significant difference among Teacher Educators of Govt. Aided and Self Financing teacher training institutions regarding their Job Satisfaction.

## THEORIES OF JOB SATISFACTION

### Affect theory

Edwin A. Locke's Range of Affect Theory (1976) is arguably the most famous job satisfaction model. The main premise of this theory is that satisfaction is determined by a discrepancy between what one wants in a job and what one has in a job. Further, the theory states that how much one values a given facet of work (e.g. the degree of autonomy in a position) moderates how satisfied/dissatisfied one becomes when expectations are/aren't met. When a person values a particular facet of a job, his satisfaction is more greatly impacted both positively (when expectations are met) and negatively (when expectations are not met), compared to one who doesn't value that facet.

To illustrate, if Employee A values autonomy in the workplace and Employee B is indifferent about autonomy, then Employee A would be more satisfied in a position that offers a high degree of autonomy and less satisfied in a position with little or no autonomy compared to Employee B. This theory also states that too much of a particular facet will produce stronger feelings of dissatisfaction the more a worker values that facet.

### Dispositional approach

The dispositional approach suggests that individuals vary in their tendency to be satisfied with their jobs, in other words, job satisfaction is to some extent an individual trait. This approach became a notable explanation of job satisfaction in light of evidence that job satisfaction tends to be stable over time and across careers and jobs. Research also indicates that identical twins raised apart have similar levels of job satisfaction.

A significant model that narrowed the scope of the dispositional approach was the Core Self-Evaluations Model, proposed by Timothy A. Judge, Edwin A. Locke, and Cathy C. Durham in 1997. Judge et al. argued that four Core Self-evaluations determine one's disposition towards job satisfaction: self-esteem, general self-efficacy, locus of control, and neuroticism. This model states that higher levels of self-esteem (the value one places on his/her self) and general self-efficacy (the belief in one's competence) lead to higher work satisfaction. Having an internal locus of control (believing one has control over her/his own life, as opposed to outside forces having control) leads to higher job satisfaction. Finally, lower levels of neuroticism lead to higher job satisfaction.

### Equity theory

Equity Theory shows how a person views fairness regarding social relationships such as with an employer. A person identifies the amount of input (things gained) from a relationship compared to the output (things given) to produce an input/output ratio. They then compare this ratio to the ratio of other people in deciding whether they have an equitable relationship. Equity Theory suggests that if an individual thinks there is an inequality between two social groups or individuals, the person is likely to be distressed because the ratio between the input and the output is not equal.

For example, consider two employees who work the same job and receive the same pay and benefits. If one individual gets a pay raise for doing the same work as the other, then the less benefited individual will become

distressed in his workplace. If, on the other hand, both individuals get pay raises and new responsibilities, then the feeling of equity will be maintained.

Other psychologists have extended the equity theory, suggesting three behavioral response patterns to situations of perceived equity or inequity (Huseman, Hatfield, & Mile, 1987; O'Neil & Mone 1998). These three types are benevolent, equity sensitive, and entitled. The level by each type affects motivation, job satisfaction, and job performance.

- A. *Benevolent*-Satisfied when they are under-rewarded compared with co-workers
- B. *Equity Sensitive*-Believe everyone should be fairly rewarded
- C. *Entitled*-People believe that everything they receive is their just due

#### Discrepancy theory

The concept of discrepancy theory is to explain the ultimate source of anxiety and dejection. An individual who has not fulfilled his responsibility feels a sense of anxiety and regret not performing well. They will also feel dejection due to not being able to achieve their hopes and aspirations. According to this theory, all individuals will learn what their obligations and responsibilities are for a particular function, and if they fail to fulfill those obligations then they are punished. Over time, these duties and obligations consolidate to form an abstracted set of principles, designated as a self-guide. Agitation and anxiety are the main responses when an individual fails to achieve the obligation or responsibility. This theory also explains that if the achievement of the obligations is obtained then the reward can be praise, approval, or love. These achievements and aspirations also form an abstracted set of principles, referred to as the ideal self-guide. When the individual fails to obtain these rewards, they begin to have feelings of dejection, disappointment, or even depression.

#### The two-factor theory (motivator-hygiene theory)

Frederick Herzberg's two-factor theory (also known as motivator-hygiene theory) attempts to explain satisfaction and motivation in the workplace. This theory states that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are driven by different factors – motivation and hygiene factors, respectively. An employee's motivation to work is continually related to the job satisfaction of a subordinate. Motivation can be seen as an inner force that drives individuals to attain personal and organizational goals (Hoskinson, Porter, & Wrench, p. 133). Motivating factors are those aspects of the job that make people want to perform, and provide people with satisfaction, for example, achievement in work, recognition, promotion opportunities. These motivating factors are considered to be intrinsic to the job, or the work carried out. Hygiene factors include aspects of the working environment such as pay, company policies, supervisory practices, and other working conditions.

Herzberg's model has stimulated much research. In the 1970s, researchers were unable to reliably empirically prove the model, however, Hackman & Oldham suggesting that Herzberg's original formulation of the model may have been a methodological artifact. However, emerging studies have a newfound interest in the theory, particularly among employees in the public sector and among certain professions such as nurses (Holmberg., 2016).

The theory has been criticized because it does not consider individual differences, conversely predicting all employees will react identically to changes in motivating/hygiene factors. The model has also been criticized in that it does not specify how motivating/hygiene factors are to be measured. Most studies use a quantitative approach by for example using validated instruments such as the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss et al., 1967) some studies have utilized a qualitative methodology such as using individual interviews (Holmberg et al., 2017).

#### Job characteristics model

Hackman & Oldham proposed the job characteristics model, which is widely used as a framework to study how particular job characteristics impact job outcomes, including job satisfaction. The five core job characteristics can be combined to form a motivating potential score (MPS) for a job, which can be used as an index of how likely a job is to affect an employee's attitudes and behaviors. Not everyone is equally affected by the MPS of a job. People who are high in growth need strength (the desire for autonomy, challenge, and development of new skills on the job) are particularly affected by job characteristics. A meta-analysis of studies that assess the framework of the model provides some support for the validity of the JCM.

### **IV. WORK-LIFE BALANCE**

The increasing load of work leads to insufficient time for its completion. It also consumes the individual's personal and family time. This concept of work-life balance is recent. It aroused out of the increasing burden of work in the organization and hence insufficient time with one's life. An employee works mainly for his family and the ultimate intention is to spend some quality time with his family members and take care of them. Balancing the work and other aspects of life is the ultimate intention of an employee. Spending the majority of the time at

the workplace leaves an employee emotionally exhausted. He needs his family around to feel safe and sure while working. Hence, this concept should be very much taken care of by the management of any organization.

A national study on work-life conflicts in Canada was conducted in the year 2001. The result shows that their work responsibilities interfered with the ability to fulfill their responsibilities at home. A study conducted by Cooke and Jing (2009) found that family care commitment and work intensification are the two major sources of conflict. The conflict due to its work-life imbalance leads to dissatisfaction, depression, and bad physical health.

Mohammad et al. (2013) concluded that both the family and job of female teachers of Bangladesh are being affected due to the work-life balance situation. Women in the workplace can be blessings only when both families, as well as the organization, will receive proper service from them and they will be able to contribute to both family as well as organization only when the organization will ensure flexible working hours (rostered days off and family-friendly starting and finishing times), transport facility, residential facility, child care center, flexible work arrangements or job sharing, reduced working hours & workload and child schooling for the female teachers.

Work-life balance is about creating and maintaining supportive and healthy work environments, which will enable employees to have a balance between work and personal responsibilities and thus strengthen employee loyalty and productivity.

Numerous studies have been conducted on work-life balance. According to a major Canadian study conducted by Lowe (2005), 1 in 4 employees experience high levels of conflict between work and family, based on work-to-family interference and caregiver strain.

#### Definitions of work-family/life balance

Surprisingly, the literature does not contain one clear definition or measure of work-life balance that has demonstrated acceptable construct validity on the criteria discussed above. Instead, an array of definitions and measures populate the literature. Here is a brief review of the more common work-life balance definitions, to highlight this variety and stimulate discussions towards a consensus.

#### Work-life balance defined as multiple roles

The view that work-life balance is drawn from an individual's multiple life roles derives from the early recognition that non-work (family or personal) demands may carry over into the working day and adversely influence individual health and performance at work. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) demonstrated that these multiple demands 'carry over' is bidirectional: home-to-work and work-to-home. Positive as well as negative carryover is now accepted, with recent research identifying the bidirectional constructs of work-family facilitation and enhancement, as well as conflict. Greenhaus and colleagues have recently defined work-family balance broadly as multiple role conflict thus: 'Work-family balance reflects an individual's orientation across different life roles, an inter-role phenomenon' (Greenhaus, Collins & Shaw 2003).

#### Work-life balance defined as equity across multiple roles

Greenhaus and colleagues also explored the multiple roles definition of work-life balance further with a focus on equality of time or satisfaction across an individual's multiple life roles. Work-family balance was therefore defined as: 'the extent to which an individual is engaged in – an equally satisfied with – his or her work role and family role ... We propose three components of work-family–balance: time balance, involvement balance, and satisfaction balance' (Greenhaus, Collins & Shaw 2003).

#### Work-life balance defined as satisfaction between multiple roles

Other researchers have primarily focused on the importance of individual satisfaction with multiple roles. Kirchmeyer (2000) defined work-life balance as: 'achieving satisfying experiences in all life domains and to do so requires personal resources such as energy, time, and commitment to be well distributed across domains' (Kirchmeyer 2000: 80). Clark (2000) also focused on individual satisfaction within the description of 'work/family border theory' and defined work-life balance as: 'satisfaction and good functioning at work and home with a minimum of role conflict' (Clark 2000).

#### Work-life balance defined as a fulfillment of role salience between multiple roles

The focus upon individual satisfaction also overlaps with the recognition that individuals perceive their multiple roles as varying in importance (or salience) to them. This point of view recognizes for example, that the salience of roles is also not a static evaluation but may change over time with various common life changes (eg work promotion, new baby, sick spouse/parents, etc). Greenhaus and Allen (in press) for example, defined work-life balance as 'the extent to which an individual's effectiveness and satisfaction in work and family roles are compatible with the individuals' life role priorities at a given point in time' (p. 10). Similarly, in their meta-review,

Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, and Brinley (2005) suggested that work-life balance research should focus on: 'whether one's expectations about work and family roles are met or not.

#### Work-life balance defined as a relationship between conflict and facilitation

Researchers have also focused on the psychological constructs that compose work-life balance, noticeably conflict, and facilitation. Thus work-life balance has been defined as an absence of conflict and a presence of facilitation: 'low levels of inter-role conflict and high levels of inter-role facilitation represent work-family balance' (Frone 2003). This definition can also be tested through the assessment of the four bidirectional conflict and facilitation constructs: 'Balance is a combined measure whereby work-family conflict was subtracted from work-family facilitation, and family-work conflict was subtracted from family-work facilitation' (Grzywacz & Bass 2003).

#### Work-life balance defined as perceived control between multiple roles

Finally, although less supported within the literature, work-life balance has also been construed as the degree of autonomy an individual perceives themselves to have over their multiple roles demands: 'Work-life balance is about people having a measure of control over when, where and how they work' (Fleetwood 2007). Presumably, the work-life balance could also be a result of individual autonomy over the roles most salient to the individual. Thus if an individual could reduce his/her work hours to spend time with their new child, for example, this could be perceived as an effective work-life balance.

### **V. RATIONALE OF THE STUDY**

A railway is a system that comes into contact with the public in general. Railway employees, administrative or operating staff have to face the commuters daily in various roles. As the railway network is huge and so the number of commuters, many a time, the situation goes out of control. The number of railway staff is less in proportion to the continuously alarming number of commuters. This creates tension and stress among the railway staff. The mechanical and operating work on the field becomes heavy in different weather conditions. Accordingly, the response of the railway employees also changes. Their capacities as human beings are limited and also have constraints to behave rationally in different situations. Similarly, the job of teachers is one of the underrated jobs. India has about 32 students per teacher, this creates tension and stress among the teachers. Along with this many teachers of government as well as private institutes are not even played well. Thus, the study intends to highlight the behavioral attitudes of various railway employees and teachers working on different fronts. On this background, the present study is focused on the role of optimism and its impact on employees, their job satisfaction levels, and the work-life balance aspects.

### **VI. OBJECTIVES**

The objectives of the study have been arranged in the following under:

- a) To study whether optimism in an individual will have my influence on other psychological correlates, such as job satisfaction, and work-life balance.
- b) To compare between the male and female employees concerning optimism, job satisfaction, and work-life balance.
- c) To compare the railway employees and teachers in their optimism level, job satisfaction, and work-life balance.
- d) To study the effects of age of the employees on their optimism level, job satisfaction, and work-life balance.
- e) To study the effects of the level of experience of the employees in the organization on their optimism level, job satisfaction, and work-life balance.

### **VII. HYPOTHESES**

With the above-mentioned objectives for the study, the following hypotheses were postulated as under:

- a) Employees with a higher level of optimism will be significantly different from the employees with a lower level of optimism in terms of their job satisfaction, and work-life balance.
- b) Gender of the employees will not influence the levels of optimism, job Satisfaction, and work-life balance.
- c) Different employees from the two sectors, that is, railways and educational organizations will have different levels of optimism, job satisfaction, and work-life balance.
- d) Perceived optimism, job satisfaction, would be higher amongst the railway employees than teachers.
- e) Age difference among the different employees will influence the levels of optimism, job satisfaction, and work-life balance.
- f) With the difference in the experience level in the organization, there will be a difference in the levels of
- g) Difference in the profession will result in different levels of optimism, job satisfaction, and work-life balance.
- h) Higher the level of optimism in an employee, the higher will be there, job satisfaction and work-life balance.



**VIII. METHODOLOGY**

**Design:** The present research is designed to carry out a cross-sectional study to compare between various criterion groups, employees with high and employees with low optimism level, railway employees and teaching professionals, male employees with female employees, age categories (ages ranging 20-30, 31-40, 41-50 and 51-60.), professions (administration, traffic, and others), levels (managerial Level, assistant level and clerical level) and level of experience (1-10 years, 11-20 years, 21-30 years, and 31-40 years).

**Sample:** The sample includes 63 employees of different levels, from different services from both railways and educational institutions. The bifurcation of the sample is given as under:

a) Railways: Railways are an important source of revenue for the central government. They are the cheapest transportation network, 39 employees (30 males & 9 females) were taken from the commercial department, headquarters, traffic department, and administration.

b) Teaching Professionals: Teaching is one of the most important jobs. Teachers shape the youth of the nation. 24 employees (4 males & 20 females) were taken from St. Mary's, Handique College, Cotton College, and faculty school.

The convenience sampling method was employed to include a sample from all the desired criterion groups that are close to hand. The data was collected through the administration of questionnaires, which was arranged in the form of a booklet and also through Google forms, railway employees, and teaching professionals. English was the medium of instruction and there was no need to translate the questionnaire into a local language. Personal contact was used to get initial entry permission from the concerned organization. The booklet and the form also included an informed consent letter explaining that the questionnaires were for academic purposes and the respondents were assured of the strictest confidentiality. The participation was voluntary and respondents completed the self-report version of the questionnaires which included the measures of Optimism, Job Satisfaction, and Work-life balance. The respondents also reported their gender, age, sector, occupational levels, experience, and profession. 150 questionnaires were distributed, of which, 63 valuable responses were received with a response rate of 42%

After the data was collected data was analyzed with the help of SPSS. T-test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were used to determine the significant differences between the criterion groups. Tuckey's posthoc test of HSD was employed to find out which pairs of means differ in case of the comparison between more than two criterion groups

**Tools Used**

**The Optimism – Pessimism Scale/Instrument/Questionnaire**

Dember, Grasha, et al (1989), created the OPI. It provides two scores, one for optimism and one for pessimism, each scale consisting of 18 items with 20 filler items for a total of 56 items on the scale. Items are rated on a scale of 1 (Strongly agree) to 4 (Strongly disagree). The OPI was the first optimism measure created with the idea of optimism and pessimism as two separate constructs in mind, and which produces both an optimism and a pessimism score (Dember, Martin, et al., 1989). The following table gives the different sub-categories of the optimism pessimism instrument:

S.No.	Dimensions of OPI	Item No.
1.	Optimism	7, 11, 12, 15, 17, 19, 21, 23, 28, 29, 33, 37, 38, 43, 46, 47, 52, 56
2.	Pessimism	2, 4, 5, 8, 10, 14, 20, 24, 26, 31, 34, 36, 39, 42, 44, 49, 51, 54
3.	Filler	1, 3, 6, 9, 13, 16, 18, 22, 25, 27, 30, 32, 35, 40, 41, 45, 48, 50, 53, 55

**Job Satisfaction**

Singh and Sharma, (1986) to measure the job satisfaction of people among different professions, devised the Job Satisfaction Scale. This scale includes 5 dimensions with a total of 30 items. The following table gives the different sub-categories of the Job Satisfaction scale:

S. No.	Dimensions of Job Satisfaction	Item No.
1.	Job Concrete	6, 11, 13, 19, 23, 25
2.	Job Abstract	8, 15, 16, 17, 21, 27
3.	Psycho-social	1, 3, 4, 7, 10, 12, 26, 30
4.	Economic	2, 5, 9, 18, 20
5.	National	14, 22, 24, 28, 29

**Job Concrete:** This dimension includes the aspects relating to excursions, place of posting, working conditions, etc.

**Job Abstract:** This dimension includes the aspects such as cooperation, democratic functioning, etc.

**Psychosocial:** It includes the job aspects such as social systems, etc.

*Economic:* It includes the job aspects such as salary, perks, allowance, and other incentives.

*National/Community:* Including the job aspects relating to the quality of life, national, economy, etc.

*Scoring:* Responses were made on a 5-point scale, i.e. from 4-0. For totaling of the scores, the following items should be reversed, i.e. scores go from 0-4, for item number 4, 13, 20, 21, 27, 28. The total item score is to obtain a composite score of each dimension. All the items are then added together to obtain the total score.

The higher the score of the subject, the higher will be his/her Job Satisfaction.

**Work-life Balance**

V.M. Rincy and N. Panchanatham(2010) developed a compact instrument to measure the WLB of employees in the service sector of India. It consists of 42 items. Scoring was done on a seven-point scale 1 = never, 4 = some times, 7 = always. Ten statements were loaded IPLW, eighteen statements were loaded into the IWPL, seven statements were loaded into the WEPL, PLEW comprised of seven statements.

S. No.	Dimensions of WLB	Item No.
1.	Intrusion of personal life into work (IPLW)	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10
2.	Intrusion of work into personal life (IWPL)	11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18,19,20,21,22,23,24,25,26,27,28
3.	Work enhancement by personal life (WEPL)	29,30,31,32,33,34,35
4.	Personal life enhancement by work (PLEW)	36,37,38,39,40,41,42

Development, Validity, and Reliability

**The Optimism – Pessimism Scale/Instrument/Questionnaire**

Dember and Brooks (1989) found reasonable test-retest reliability at 2-weeks, which was .75 for the optimism scale and .84 for the pessimism scale. Both the optimism and pessimism scales were correlated at .54, the optimism scale showed construct validity in its correlation with two different measures of happiness (r = .61 and .55 and .59 and 51 on a second administration). Pessimism was negatively correlated with the happiness measures (r = -.60 and -.59 and -.58 and -.57 on a second administration). The 18 optimism items gave a Cronbach alpha of .84 while the 18 pessimism items had an alpha of .86 and a correlation between the two of -.52 and -.57 in a second study and a 2-week test-retest reliability of .75 for optimism and .84 for pessimism (Dember, Martin, et al., 1989).

**Job Satisfaction**

The test-retest reliability is 0.978 with N=52 and a gap of 25 days. The scale compares favorably with Muthayya’s Job Satisfaction Questionnaire giving a validity coefficient of 0.743. Moreover, the resemblance to the rating given to the employees on a 3 point scale Fully satisfied dissatisfied by the employees, The coefficient of correlation was 0.812 (n=52). While the test is also found to have Concurrent validity of 0.74 and a Correlation Coefficient of 0.78.

**Work-Life Balance**

The content validity ratio of each item (statement) in the scale was calculated following Lawsche (1975) and was found to be more than 0.55. The reliability of the constructs was assessed using the Cronbach alpha coefficient and resulted in alpha scores more than the minimum threshold value of 0.7 (Cronbach, 1951). The final Cronbach alpha for the four factors are in the order IPLW = 0.97, IWPL = 0.98, WEPL = 0.81 and PLEW = 0.97.

Statistical Techniques Used

After the data was collected, data was put into the spreadsheet and then with the help of SPSS, data was analyzed. t-test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were used to determine the significant differences between the criterion groups. Tuckey's post- hoc test of HSD was employed to find out which pairs of means differ in case of the comparison between more than two criterion groups.

**IX. RESULT AND INTERPRETATION**

The results based on the analysis through the appropriate statistical technique were presented as under. And the interpretation of the generated results was made after the result tables.

**Table 1.1** Comparison between different professions on Optimism, Job Satisfaction, and Work-Life Balance.

	Railway Employees (N=37)		Teaching Professionals (N=25)		t-value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
<b>Optimism</b>					

Optimism	36.73	11.68	33.16	9.41	.73
Pessimism	46.43	8.63	47.28	9.14	.52
Total	127.43	30.00	121.40	23.45	.43
<b>Job Satisfaction</b>					
Job Concrete	14.76	3.46	15.36	2.56	-.74
Job Abstract	15.46	2.67	15.44	2.14	.03
Psycho-social	17.27	3.72	18.08	2.66	-.27
Economic	12.16	2.10	11.04	2.42	-.80
National	14.43	2.93	14.80	2.61	.22
Total	74.08	9.99	74.72	7.65	-1.82
<b>Work-Life Balance</b>					
Intrusion of personal life into work	25.57	13.13	28.36	13.84	-.61
Intrusion of work into personal life	53.43	22.08	52.20	21.23	-.80
Work enhancement by personal life	36.08	7.87	39.76	7.74	-0.94
Personal life enhancement by work	60.03	10.33	61.64	9.89	1.94
Total	175.108	33.45	181.96	32.05	-.505

\*significant at 0.05      \*\*significant at 0.01      (df=60)

### **Optimism**

When the comparison is made between railway employees and teaching professionals, the results (Table 1.1) indicated no significant difference between professions on the total score of optimism ( $p > .05$ ), optimism ( $p > .05$ ), pessimism ( $p > .05$ ).

Although the results indicate no significant difference between professions on certain variables and their dimensions, the mean scores indicate a difference between professions on some of the dimensions.

From the mean scores given in Table 1.1, it can be seen that railway employees experience more optimism (36.73) than teaching professionals (33.16). SD indicates the values of railway employees have greater variance (11.68) than do teaching professionals (9.41). It can be considered that railway employees have greater differences in optimism than teachers.

Teaching professionals experience more pessimism (47.28) than railway employees (46.43). SD indicates the values of teaching professionals have greater variance (9.14) than do railway employees (8.63). It can be considered that teaching professionals have greater differences in pessimism than railway employees

Railway employees experience more total optimism (127.43) than teaching professionals (121.40). SD indicates the values of railway employees have greater variance (30.00) than teaching professionals (23.45).

### **Job Satisfaction**

When the comparison is made between railway employees and teaching professionals, the results (Table 1.1) indicated no significant difference between professions on the total score of job satisfaction ( $p > .05$ ), job concrete ( $p > .05$ ), psychosocial ( $p > .05$ ), economic ( $p > .05$ ) and national ( $p > .05$ ), but there is a significant difference in the domain of job abstract ( $p < .05$ ).

Although the results indicate no significant difference between professions on certain variables and their dimensions, the mean scores indicate a difference between professions on some of the dimensions.

From the mean scores given in Table 1.1, it can be seen that teaching professionals experience more job concrete (15.36) than railway employees (14.76). SD indicates the values of railway employees have greater variance (3.46) than do teaching professionals (2.56). It can be considered that railway employees have greater differences on job concrete than teaching professionals.

Railway employees experience more job abstract (15.46) than teaching professionals (15.44). SD indicates the values of railway employees have greater variance (2.67) than do teaching professionals (2.14). It can be considered that railway employees have greater differences on Job abstract than teaching professionals.

Teaching professionals experience more psycho-social (18.08) than do railway employees (17.27). SD indicates the values of railway employees have greater variance (3.72) than do teaching professionals (2.66). It can be considered that railway employees have greater differences in psycho-social than teaching professionals

Railway employees experience more economic (12.16) than teaching professionals (11.04). SD indicates the values of teaching professionals have greater variance (2.42) than do railway employees (2.10). It can be considered that teaching professionals have greater differences in economic than railway employees.

Teaching professionals experience more national (14.80) than do railway employees (14.43). SD indicates the values of railway employees have greater variance (2.93) than do teaching professionals (2.61). It can be considered that railway employees have greater differences in national than teaching professionals

Teaching professionals experience more job satisfaction (77.11) than railway employees (75.25). SD indicates the values of railway employees have greater variance (9.99) than teaching professionals (7.65).

**Work-Life Balance**

When the comparison is made between railway employees and teaching professionals, the results (Table 1.1) indicated no significant difference between professions of different marital status on the total score of work-life balance ( $p>.05$ ), intrusion of personal life into work ( $p>.05$ ), intrusion of work into personal life ( $p>.05$ ), work enhancement by personal life ( $p>.05$ ) and personal life enhancement by work ( $p>.05$ ), but there is a significant difference in the domain of work-life balance ( $p<.05$ ).

Although the results indicate no significant difference between professions on certain variables and their dimensions, the mean scores indicate a difference between professions on some of the dimensions.

From the mean scores given in Table 1.1, it can be seen that teaching professionals experience more intrusion of personal life into work (28.36) than railway employees (25.57). SD indicates the values of havingteaching professionals greater variance (13.84) than do railway employees (13.13). It can be considered that teaching professionals have greater differences in the intrusion of personal life into work than railway employees.

Railway employees experience more intrusion of work into personal life (53.43) than teaching professionals (52.20). SD indicates the values of railway employees have greater variance (22.08) than do teaching professionals (21.23). It can be considered that railway employees have greater differences in the intrusion of work into personal life than teaching professionals.

Teaching professionals experience more work enhancement by personal life (39.76) than railway employees (36.08). SD indicates the values of railway employees have greater variance (7.87) than do teaching professionals (7.74). It can be considered that railway employees have greater differences in work enhancement by personal life than teaching professionals.

Railway employees experience more personal life enhancement by work (14.80) than do railway employees (14.43). SD indicates the values of teaching professionals have greater variance (2.93) than do teaching professionals (2.61). It can be considered that railway employees have greater differences in personal life enhancement by work than teaching professionals

Teaching professionals experience more work-life balance (77.11) than railway employees (75.25). SD indicates the values of railway employees have greater variance (9.99) than teaching professionals (7.65).

**Table 1.2** Comparison between different professional groups of different marital statuses on Optimism, Job Satisfaction, and Work-Life Balance.

	Unnuclear family (N=15)		Nuclear family (N=47)		t-value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
<b>Optimism</b>					
Optimism	31.80	4.57	36.40	12.06	-1.44
Pessimism	43.27	8.34	47.89	8.70	-1.81
Total	113.07	12.90	128.81	29.86	-1.98
<b>Job Satisfaction</b>					
Job Concrete	14.07	2.19	15.30	3.33	-1.34
Job Abstract	14.27	2.91	15.83	2.19	-2.22
Psycho-social	16.67	3.68	17.90	3.20	-1.25
Economic	11.40	2.23	11.81	2.32	-.60
National	13.33	3.18	14.98	2.57	-2.03
Total	69.73	9.79	75.81	8.40	-2.34
<b>Work-Life Balance</b>					
Intrusion of personal life into work	24.40	9.83	27.43	14.34	-.76
Intrusion of work into personal life	52.00	16.54	53.23	23.10	-.19
Work enhancement by personal life	36.00	7.10	38.06	7.98	-.87
Personal life enhancement by work	56.93	9.32	61.87	10.14	-1.67
Total	169.33	19.74	180.60	35.74	-1.16

\*significant at 0.05      \*\*significant at 0.01      (df=60)

### **Optimism**

When the comparison is made between different professional groups of different marital statuses, the results (Table 1.2) indicated no significant difference between marital status on the total score of optimism ( $p>.05$ ), optimism ( $p>.05$ ), pessimism ( $p>.05$ ).

Although the results indicate no significant difference between professional groups of different marital statuses on certain variables and their dimensions, the mean scores indicate a difference between professions on some of the dimensions.

From the mean scores given in Table 1.2, it can be seen that the married group experience more optimism (36.40) than the unmarried group (31.80). SD indicates the values of the married group have greater variance (12.06) than do unmarried group (4.57). It can be considered that the married group has greater differences in optimism than the unmarried group.

Married group experience more pessimism (47.89) than the unmarried group (43.27). SD indicates the values of the married group have greater variance (8.70) than do unmarried group (8.34). It can be considered that married group have greater differences on pessimism than unmarried group

Married group experience a total of optimism (128.81) more than the unmarried group (113.07). SD indicates the values of the married group have greater variance (29.86) than the unmarried group (12.90).

### **Job Satisfaction**

When the comparison is made between professional groups of different marital status, the results (Table 1.2) indicated no significant difference between professions on the total score of job satisfaction ( $p>.05$ ), job concrete ( $p>.05$ ), psychosocial ( $p>.05$ ), economic ( $p>.05$ ) and national ( $p>.05$ ), but there is a significant difference in the domain of job abstract ( $p<.05$ ).

Although the results indicate no significant difference between professions on certain variables and their dimensions, the mean scores indicate a difference between professions on some of the dimensions.

From the mean scores given in Table 1.2, it can be seen that the married group experience more job concrete (15.30) than the unmarried group (14.07). SD indicates the values of the married group have greater variance (3.33) than do unmarried group (2.19). It can be considered that the married group has greater differences on job concrete than the unmarried group.

Married group experience more job abstracts (15.83) than the unmarried group (14.27). SD indicates the values of the unmarried group have greater variance (2.91) than do the married group (2.19). It can be considered that the unmarried group has greater differences in Job abstract than the married group.

Married group experience more psycho-social (17.90) than do unmarried group (16.67). SD indicates the values of the unmarried group have greater variance (3.68) than do the married group (3.20). It can be considered that the unmarried group has greater differences in psycho-social than the married group.

Married group experience more economic (11.81) than the unmarried group (11.40). SD indicates the values of the married group have greater variance (2.32) than do unmarried group (2.23). It can be considered that the married group has greater differences in economic than the unmarried group.

Married group experience more national (14.98) than do unmarried group (13.33). SD indicates the values of the unmarried group have greater variance (3.18) than do the married group (2.57). It can be considered that unmarried group have greater differences in national than married group

Married group experience more job satisfaction (75.81) than the unmarried group (69.73). SD indicates the values of the unmarried group have greater variance (9.79) than the married group (8.40).

### **Work-Life Balance**

When the comparison is made between different marital status, the results (Table 1.2) indicated no significant difference between professions of different marital status on the total score of work-life balance ( $p>.05$ ), intrusion of personal life into work ( $p>.05$ ), intrusion of work into personal life ( $p>.05$ ), work enhancement by personal life ( $p>.05$ ) and personal life enhancement by work ( $p>.05$ ), but there is a significant difference in the domain of job abstract ( $p<.05$ ).

Although the results indicate no significant difference between professions on certain variables and their dimensions, the mean scores indicate a difference between professions on some of the dimensions.

From the mean scores given in Table 1.2, it can be seen that the married group experience more intrusion of personal life into work (27.43) than the unmarried group (24.40). SD indicates the values of having married group greater variance (14.34) than do unmarried group (9.83). It can be considered that the married group has greater differences on the intrusion of personal life into work than the unmarried group.

Unmarried groups experience more intrusion of work into personal life (53.23) than married groups (52.00). SD indicates the values of the nuclear family group have greater variance (23.10) than do unmarried

group (16.54). It can be considered that the married group has greater differences on the intrusion of work into personal life than the unmarried group.

Unmarried groups experience more work enhancement by personal life (38.06) than married groups (36.00). SD indicates the values of the married group have greater variance (7.98) than do unmarried group (7.10). It can be considered that the married group has greater differences in work enhancement by personal life than the unmarried group.

Unmarried groups experience more personal life enhancement by work (61.87) than do married groups (56.93). SD indicates the values of the unmarried group have greater variance (10.14) than do the married group (9.32). It can be considered that married group have greater differences in personal life enhancement by work than the unmarried group

Married group experience more work-life balance (180.60) than the unmarried group (169.33). SD indicates the values of the married group have greater variance (35.74) than the unmarried group (19.74).

**Table 1.3** Comparison between male and female professional groups on Optimism, Job Satisfaction, and Work-Life Balance.

	Male (N=33)		Female (N=29)		t-value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
<b>Optimism</b>					
Optimism	36.82	14.13	33.55	4.93	1.18
Pessimism	45.61	10.88	48.10	5.39	-1.12
Total	126.36	37.08	123.45	8.50	.41
<b>Job Satisfaction</b>					
Job Concrete	15.36	3.40	14.59	2.77	.98
Job Abstract	15.06	2.69	15.90	2.11	-1.35
Psycho-social	18.21	3.46	16.90	3.10	1.57
Economic	12.42	1.89	10.90	2.45	2.77
National	14.36	2.77	14.83	2.85	-.65
Total	75.42	9.21	73.10	8.88	1.01
<b>Work-Life Balance</b>					
Intrusion of personal life into work	28.36	15.20	24.79	10.90	1.05
Intrusion of work into personal life	55.82	23.18	49.66	19.47	1.13
Work enhancement by personal life	39.00	7.37	35.93	8.42	1.14
Personal life enhancement by work	62.18	9.06	58.97	11.08	1.53
Total	185.36	36.19	169.34	26.58	1.52

\*significant at 0.05      \*\*significant at 0.01      (df=60)

**Optimism:**

When a comparison is made between male and female workers, the results (Table 1.3) indicated no significant difference between genders on the full scale of optimism ( $p > .05$ ), optimism ( $p > .05$ ), pessimism ( $p > .05$ ).

From the mean scores given in Table 1.3, it can be seen that males experience more optimism (36.82) than females (33.55). SD indicates the values of males have greater variance (14.13) than females (4.93). It can be considered that males have greater differences in optimism than females.

Females experience more pessimism (48.10) than females (45.61). SD indicates the values of males have greater variance (10.88) than females (5.39). It can be considered that males have greater differences in pessimism than females.

Males experience a more full scale of optimism (126.36) than females (123.45). SD indicates the values of males have greater variance (37.08) than females (8.50). It can be considered that males have greater differences on the full scale of optimism than females.

**Job satisfaction:**

When a comparison is made between male and female workers, the results (Table 1.3) indicated no significant difference between genders on full-scale job satisfaction ( $p>.05$ ), job concrete ( $p>.05$ ), job abstract ( $p>.05$ ), psycho social ( $p>.05$ ), economic ( $p>.05$ ) and national ( $p>.05$ ).

From the mean scores given in Table 1.3, it can be seen that males experience more job concrete (15.90) than females (15.06). SD indicates the values of males have greater variance (2.69) than females (2.77). It can be considered that males have greater differences on job concrete than females.

Females experience more job abstract (15.36) than males (14.59). SD indicates the values of males have greater variance (3.40) than females (2.77). It can be considered that males have greater differences on job concrete than females.

Males experience more psycho-social (18.21) than females (16.90). SD indicates the values of males have greater variance (3.46) than females (3.10). It can be considered that males have greater differences in psycho-social than females.

Males experience more economic (12.42) than females (10.90). SD indicates the values of females have greater variance (2.45) than males (1.89). It can be considered that females have greater differences in economic than males.

Females experience more national (14.83) than males (14.36). SD indicates the values of females have greater variance (2.85) than males (2.77). It can be considered that females have greater differences on national than males.

Males experience a more full scale of job satisfaction (75.43) than females (72.10). SD indicates the values of males have greater variance (9.21) than females (8.88). It can be considered that males have greater differences on the full scale of job satisfaction than females.

**Work-life Balance:**

When a comparison is made between male and female workers, the results (Table 1.3) indicated no significant difference between genders on the full scale of work-life balance ( $p>.05$ ), personal life intrusion into work ( $p>.05$ ), work intrusion into personal life ( $p>.05$ ), work enhancement by personal life ( $p>.05$ ), personal life enhancement by work ( $p>.05$ ).

From the mean scores given in Table 1.3, it can be seen that males experience more personal life intrusion into work (28.36) than females (24.79). SD indicates the values of males have greater variance (15.20) than females (19.47). It can be considered that males have greater differences in personal life intrusion into work than females.

Males experience more work intrusion into personal life (55.82) than females (49.66). SD indicates the values of males have greater variance (23.18) than females (19.47). It can be considered that males have greater differences in work intrusion into personal life than females.

Males experience more work enhancement by personal life (39.00) than females (35.93). SD indicates the values of females have greater variance (8.42) than males (7.37). It can be considered that females have greater differences in work enhancement by personal life than males.

Males experience more personal life enhancement by work (62.18) than females (58.97). SD indicates the values of females have greater variance (11.08) than males 9.06). It can be considered that females have greater differences in personal life enhancement by work than males.

Males experience a more full-scale work-life balance (185.36) than females (169.34). SD indicates the values of males have greater variance (36.19) than females (26.58). It can be considered that males have greater differences on the full scale of work-life balance than females.

**Table 1.4** Comparison between professional groups of different family types on Optimism, Job Satisfaction, and Work-Life Balance.

		Nuclear (N=45)		Joint (N=17)		t-value
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	

<b>Optimism</b>					
Optimism	36.96	11.99	30.88	5.31	2.01
Pessimism	48.18	8.65	43.06	8.22	2.11
Total	130.07	29.64	111.59	14.36	2.46
<b>Job Satisfaction-</b>					
Job Concrete	14.78	3.49	15.59	1.77	-.91
Job Abstract	15.58	2.53	15.12	2.29	.66
Psycho-social	17.69	3.70	17.35	2.18	.35
Economic	11.80	2.46	11.47	1.81	.50
National	14.40	2.91	15.06	2.49	-.83
Total	74.24	10.10	74.59	5.66	-.13
<b>Work-Life Balance</b>					
Intrusion of personal life into work	25.87	13.77	28.88	12.40	-.78
Intrusion of work into personal life	53.87	20.43	50.47	24.86	.55
Work enhancement by personal life	37.27	8.06	38.35	7.82	-.47
Personal life enhancement by work	60.38	9.74	61.47	11.29	-.37
Total	177.38	30.29	179.18	39.71	-.19

\*significant at 0.05      \*\*significant at 0.01      (df=60)

**Optimism**

When the comparison is made between different professional groups of different marital statuses, the results (Table 1.4) indicated no significant difference between family type on the total score of optimism ( $p>.05$ ), optimism ( $p>.05$ ), pessimism ( $p>.05$ ).

Although the results indicate no significant difference between professional groups of different marital statuses on certain variables and their dimensions, the mean scores indicate a difference between professions on some of the dimensions.

From the mean scores given in Table 1.4, it can be seen that the nuclear family group experience more optimism (36.96) than the joint family group (30.88). SD indicates the values of the nuclear family group have greater variance (11.99) than do the joint family group (5.31). It can be considered that the nuclear family group has greater differences in optimism than the joint family group.

The nuclear family group experiences more pessimism (48.18) than the joint family group (43.06). SD indicates the values of the nuclear family group have greater variance (8.65) than do the joint family group (8.22). It can be considered that nuclear family group have greater differences in pessimism than a joint family group

Nuclear family group experience a total of optimism (130.07) more than the joint family group (111.59). SD indicates the values of the nuclear family group have greater variance (29.64) than the joint family group (14.36).

**Job Satisfaction**

When the comparison is made between professional groups of different family type, the results (Table 1.4) indicated no significant difference between professions on the total score of job satisfaction ( $p>.05$ ), job concrete ( $p>.05$ ), psychosocial ( $p>.05$ ), economic ( $p>.05$ ) and national ( $p>.05$ ), but there is a significant difference in the domain of job abstract ( $p<.05$ ).

Although the results indicate no significant difference between professions on certain variables and their dimensions, the mean scores indicate a difference between professions on some of the dimensions.

From the mean scores given in Table 1.4, it can be seen that the joint family group experience more job concrete (15.59) than the nuclear family group (14.78). SD indicates the values of the nuclear family group have greater variance (3.49) than do the joint family group (1.77). It can be considered that the nuclear family group has greater differences on job concrete than the joint family group.

Nuclear family group experience more job abstract (15.58) than joint family group (15.12). SD indicates the values of the nuclear family group have greater variance (2.53) than do the joint family group (2.29). It can be considered that the nuclear family group has greater differences on Job abstract than the joint family group.

Nuclear family group experience more psycho-social (17.69) than do joint family group (17.35). SD indicates the values of the nuclear family group have greater variance (3.70) than do the joint family group (2.18).



It can be considered that the nuclear family group has greater differences in psycho-social than the joint family group.

Nuclear family group experience more economic (11.80) than the joint family group (11.47). SD indicates the values of the nuclear family group have greater variance (2.46) than do the joint family group (1.81). It can be considered that the nuclear family group has greater differences in economic than the joint family group.

Joint family groups experience more national (15.06) than do joint family groups (14.40). SD indicates the values of the nuclear family group have greater variance (2.91) than do the joint family group (2.49). It can be considered that joint family group have greater differences in national than nuclear family group

Nuclear family group experience more job satisfaction (75.81) than the joint family group (69.73). SD indicates the values of the joint family group have greater variance (9.79) than the nuclear family group (8.40).

**Work-Life Balance**

When the comparison is made between different family type, the results (Table 1.4) indicated no significant difference between professions of different marital status on the total score of work-life balance ( $p>.05$ ), intrusion of personal life into work ( $p>.05$ ), intrusion of work into personal life ( $p>.05$ ), work enhancement by personal life ( $p>.05$ ) and personal life enhancement by work ( $p>.05$ ), but there is a significant difference in the domain of job abstract ( $p<.05$ ).

Although the results indicate no significant difference between professions on certain variables and their dimensions, the mean scores indicate a difference between professions on some of the dimensions.

From the mean scores given in Table 1.4, it can be seen that the joint family group experience more intrusion of personal life into work (28.88) than the nuclear family group (25.87). SD indicates the values of having nuclear family group greater variance (13.77) than do joint family group (12.40). It can be considered that the nuclear family group has greater differences in the intrusion of personal life into work than the joint family group.

Nuclear family group experience more intrusion of work into personal life (53.87) than the joint family group (50.47). SD indicates the values of the joint family group have greater variance (24.86) than do the nuclear family group (20.43). It can be considered that the joint family group has greater differences in the intrusion of work into personal life than the nuclear family group.

Joint family group experience more work enhancement by personal life (38.35) than nuclear family group (37.27). SD indicates the values of the nuclear family group have greater variance (8.06) than do the joint family group (7.82). It can be considered that the nuclear family group has greater differences in work enhancement by personal life than the joint family group.

Joint family group experience more personal life enhancement by work (61.47) than do nuclear family group (60.38). SD indicates the values of the joint family group have greater variance (11.29) than do the nuclear family group (9.74). It can be considered that a joint family group have greater differences in personal life enhancement by work than a nuclear family group

The joint family group experiences more work-life balance (179.18) than the nuclear family group (177.38). SD indicates the values of the joint family group have greater variance (39.71) than the nuclear family group (30.29).

**Table 2.1** Comparison between professional groups of different work experience on Optimism, Job Satisfaction and Work-Life Balance.

Variables	Dimensions		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Optimism	Optimism	Between Groups	920.536	3	306.84	2.82	.047
		Within Groups	308.25	58	108.76		
		Total	7228.77	61			
	Pessimism	Between Groups	554.69	3	184.90	2.59	.062
		Within Groups	4142.15	58	71.42		
		Total	4696.84	61			
	Total	Between Groups	7534.51	3	2511.50	3.77	.015
		Within Groups	38621.49	58	665.89		
		Total	46156.00	61			
Job Satisfaction	Job Concrete	Between Groups	58.24	3	19.41	2.10	.110
		Within Groups	535.76	58	9.24		
		Total	594.00	61			
	Job Abstract	Between Groups	49.57	3	16.52	3.02	.037
		Within Groups	317.79	58	5.48		
		Total	367.36	61			
	Psycho- Social	Between Groups	78.14	3	26.05	2.52	.067
		Within Groups	600.78	58	10.36		
		Total	678.92	61			
	Economic	Between Groups	30.70	3	10.23	2.06	.115

	National	Within Groups	288.08	58	4.97		
		Total	5003.89	61			
		Between Groups	54.42	3	18.14	2.49	.069
	Total	Within Groups	422.68	58	7.29		
		Total	477.10	61			
		Between Groups	1026.42	3	342.14	4.99	.004
<b>Work-Life Balance</b>	The intrusion of personal life into work	Within Groups	63.17	2	21.06	.11	.952
		Within Groups	10856.01	58	187.17		
		Total	10919.18	61			
	Intrusion of work into personal life	Between Groups	146.17	3	48.72	.10	.960
		Within Groups	28241.58	58	486.92		
		Total	28387.74	61			
	Work enhancement by personal life	Between Groups	467.879	3	155.96	2.659	.057
		Within Groups	3401.36	58	58.64		
		Total	3869.24	61			
	Personal life enhancement by work	Between Groups	476.91	3	158.97	1.60	.198
		Within Groups	5748.64	58	99.11		
		Total	6225.55	61			
	Work enhancement by personal life	Between Groups	1351.36	3	450.45	.41	.749
		Within Groups	64289.61	58	1108.44		
		Total	65640.97	61			

Results from the ANOVA indicated significant differences on some of the dimensions like organizational commitment, organizational role stress, and emotional intelligence.

**Optimism:**

Concerning *optimism* (of optimism), the difference between work experiences of professional groups; the result indicated a significant difference between groups at 0.05 level. In addition, the probability of having the difference of that can occur by chance is 0.047, which is less than 0.05.

Concerning *pessimism* the difference between work experiences of professional groups, the result indicated no significant difference between groups at 0.05 level. In addition, the probability of having the difference of that can occur by chance is 0.062, which is more than 0.05.

Concerning the *total score of optimism* the difference between work experiences of professional groups, the result indicated a significant difference between groups at 0.05 level. In addition, the probability of having the difference of that can occur by chance is 0.015, which is less than 0.05.

**Job Satisfaction:**

With regard to *job concrete* (of job satisfaction), the difference between work experiences of professional groups; the result indicated no significant difference between groups at 0.05 level. In addition, the probability of having the difference of that can occur by chance is 0.110, which is less than 0.05.

With regard to *job abstract* the difference between work experiences of professional groups, the result indicated a significant difference between groups at 0.05 level. In addition, the probability of having the difference of that can occur by chance is 0.037, which is less than 0.05.

With regard to *psychosocial*, the difference between work experiences of professional groups; the result indicated no significant difference between groups at 0.05 level. In addition, the probability of having the difference of that can occur by chance is 0.067, which is more than 0.05.

With regard to *economic*, the difference between work experiences of professional groups; the result indicated no significant difference between groups at 0.05 level. In addition, the probability of having the difference of that can occur by chance is 0.115, which is more than 0.05.

With regard to *national* the difference between work experiences of professional groups, the result indicated no significant difference between groups at 0.05 level. In addition, the probability of having the difference of that can occur by chance is 0.069, which is more than 0.05.

With regard to the *total score of job satisfaction* the difference between work experiences of professional groups, the result indicated a significant difference between groups at 0.05 level. In addition, the probability of having the difference of that can occur by chance is 0.004, which is less than 0.05.

**Work-Life Balance:**

With regard to various dimensions of work-life balance satisfaction the difference between work experiences of professional groups, the result indicated no significant difference between groups at 0.05 level. In the dimension of *intrusion of personal life into work, intrusion of work into personal life, work enhancement by*

*personal life, and personal life enhancement by work* of work-life balance, the results indicated no significant difference between work experiences of professional groups. And the p-value is found to be greater than 0.05

## **X. DISCUSSION:**

The present study attempts to analyze the level of optimism, job satisfaction, and work-life balance of different professional groups during the pandemic. The present study employed a sample size of 63 employees (including which includes both male and female, different age categories, different work experience groups, and different family types) railway employees and teaching professionals.

When the comparison is made between different professional groups, there is no significant difference found in optimism and its' various domains that is optimism, pessimism, and total score of optimism. With regard to job satisfaction, there is no significant difference between various professional groups. However, in the case of domains of job satisfaction, there is no significant difference in job concrete, psycho-social, economic, national, and total score of job satisfaction but there is a significant difference in the job abstract. There is no significant difference found with regard to work-life balance and its' various domains, that is the intrusion of personal life into work, the intrusion of work into personal life, work enhancement by personal life, personal life enhancement by work, and total score of work-life balance. Barman, Pranab & Bhattacharyya, Dr. (2017) stated that Teacher Educators working in different Govt. Aided and Private B.Ed. colleges in West Bengal are satisfied with their job overall. They are satisfied with all the dimensions or aspects of Job Satisfaction except only one dimension i.e. salary & compensation. Usha B&K.Y.Geetha (2010)contracted a study on the work-life balance of teachers of women there found that the women due to changes in economic conditions, and taking work in lodge number, manufacturing service, and consumer industry, different bluer, colure they have little time to share with family member.

When the comparison is made between different professional groups of marital status, there is no significant difference found in optimism and its' various domains that is optimism, pessimism, and total score of optimism. With regard to job satisfaction, there is no significant difference between various professional groups and its' various domains of job satisfaction that is job concrete, job abstract, the psycho-social, economic, national, and total score of job. There is no significant difference found with regard to work-life balance and its' various domains, that is the intrusion of personal life into work, the intrusion of work into personal life, work enhancement by personal life, personal life enhancement by work, and total score of work-life balance.

When the comparison is made between gender of different professional groups, there is no significant difference found in optimism and its' various domains that is optimism, pessimism, and total score of optimism. With regard to job satisfaction, there is no significant difference between various professional groups and its' various domains of job satisfaction that is job concrete, job abstract, the psycho-social, economic, national, and total score of job. There is no significant difference found with regard to work-life balance and its' various domains, that is the intrusion of personal life into work, the intrusion of work into personal life, work enhancement by personal life, personal life enhancement by work, and total score of work-life balance.

When the comparison is made between the family type of different professional groups, there is no significant difference found in optimism and its' various domains that is optimism, pessimism, and total score of optimism. With regard to job satisfaction, there is no significant difference between various professional groups and its' various domains of job satisfaction that is job concrete, job abstract, the psycho-social, economic, national, and total score of job. There is no significant difference found with regard to work-life balance and its' various domains, that is the intrusion of personal life into work, the intrusion of work into personal life, work enhancement by personal life, personal life enhancement by work, and total score of work-life balance.

When the comparison is made between the age group of different professional groups, there is a significant difference found in optimism and its' various domains that is optimism, pessimism, and total score of optimism. With regard to job satisfaction, there is no significant difference between various professional groups and its' various domains of job satisfaction that is job concrete, psycho-social, economic and national but there is a significant difference between job abstract and total score of job. There is no significant difference found with regard to work-life balance and its' various domains, that is the intrusion of personal life into work, the intrusion of work into personal life, work enhancement by personal life, personal life enhancement by work, and total score of work-life balance.

Under optimism, the different professional groups with regard to work experience differ only in the dimension of optimism and total score of optimism. Work experience is found to be different from work experience group of 21-30 in the dimension of optimism and work experience group to 31-40. Work experience is found to be different from work experience group of 1-10 and 21-30 in the dimension of optimism of total score of optimism and work experience group to 31-40. These groups differ in these dimensions because the employees with 21-30 years and 31-40 experience are more secure and settled in their job and are more aware of what the organization expects from them as they have served longer than people with 1-10 and 11-20 of experience in the

present organization who are yet to get accustomed to the organizational goals and culture and therefore experience more stress.

Employees with 1-10 years of work experience differ from 21-30 in the domain of job abstract of job satisfaction. 1-10 years of work experience and 31-40 of work experience have different levels of psycho-social. 1-10 years of work experience 21-30 and 31-40 of work experience have different levels of the total score of job satisfaction maybe because the employees with less experience are expecting more from their job compare to those with more level of experience, therefore, they have less job satisfaction during these difficult times. Thus, the biographical variable of tenure does influence the job satisfaction of employees.

Orkibo and Brandt (2015), conducted a study to investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and optimism. They suggested that positive characteristics would help individuals balance their work and personal roles and thereby experience greater job satisfaction.

One study (Bonner, 1997) discovered that overtime, benefits, transport and medical allowance had a positive relationship with the job satisfaction of certain employees. As evident in the participant's whose score in optimism was 9 and 78 on job satisfaction, job satisfaction can also exist in the absence of optimism. Studies (Clark and Keating, 1995) show that interacting with their students is identified as one of the most satisfying aspects for teachers, a factor that does not necessarily correlate with optimism. However, further research is required to involve more variables in order to provide a wholesome picture of the factors promoting job satisfaction.

### **XI. LIMITATIONS:**

The present results are based on a relatively small size of the sample- it might be a task for future researchers to replicate these findings.

The generalization of results is another limitation of this study. More research is needed to determine if the results could be generalized to workforces that are more diverse.

This study covers only four variables- work motivation, organizational role stress, emotional intelligence, and job satisfaction which might ignore many such variables which might determine job outcomes like optimism, burnout, organizational commitment, etc.

This study is cross-sectional. One cannot draw causal inferences from the results. There could be alternative explanations for the findings.

Due to cost and time constraints, the geographic coverage of the study is limited.

Moreover, quantitative methods were employed for the study that may not adequately represent to elicit the true characteristics of the participant's behavior.

### **XII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH:**

More variables can be included to explore psychological correlates of the population chosen.

Sample size can be increase to reflect better and make correct predictions about the population chosen.

The qualitative research method used to know more and delve deeper into the population chosen.

Further researches should also see the correlation between various variables.

Further research should consider the role of additional mediators and moderators as well as the role of differing organizational level and cultural contextual factors that influence employees' positive states and how they manifest and affect performance and macro-level organizational change.

Though Railways are giving adequate training and trying to impart knowledge transfer of so many new modern techniques and systems, yet the reachability to the residual personalities is not to the required value. Railways may intensify the training and knowledge transfer along with so schemes for their uplift their living environment, status, stability, along with other opportunities for their higher positions.

### **XIII. IMPLICATIONS:**

The integration of positive psychology and psychological constructs into the field of organizational behavior has provided many opportunities for researchers to learn how to leverage individual-level constructs for improving organizational-level outcomes.

Psychological constructs of the employees like optimism, job satisfaction, and work-life balance can have a great impact on the organization as it has the potential to directly affect the job performance of the employees. If the organization does not pay attention to these psychological constructs of the employees, they might have to face consequences like low optimism, low work life balance low job satisfaction of the employees resulting in low productivity.

The results of the study can help future researchers and practitioners to further study these constructs in a more detailed manner by including more variables and using more research methods like qualitative methods to explore more about their behavior in the organization. The researchers can further explore the factors contributing

to and affecting the employees' optimism, job satisfaction, work-life balance and other behaviors of the employees in an organization.

The results of this study can help organizations to the employees' needs and accordingly they can take actions and implement strategies to meet their needs and take care of their mental health and raise their level of motivation to stay in the organization. This way the organizations can also curb turnover intention, high level of stress, insecurities of the employees and raise their level of motivation to stay committed in the organization.

This research can also help practitioners and organization to know the group of employees, which needs the higher level of attention during this time of pandemic as they are all serving the nation and their psychological constructs and behavior will have a direct impact on the work they are performing and ultimately affect the people they are serving. The results of the study will help them to know their level of these psychological constructs and predict their behavior in the future and accordingly provide them with enough resources to meet their needs and help them do their best in what they are performing.

A motivated workforce is an asset to the organization. Lack of incentive, poor working conditions, etc. can bring down the motivation of its employees. Organizations should try to solve the motivation and morale problems of their staff. There should be growth opportunities in career, learning opportunities, proper allocation of responsibility in the organization, and assigning varying activities to break the monotonous nature of work. Organizations must understand that their levels of motivation and satisfaction influence employees' work outcomes.

A high level of stress causes wear and tear of the body. Organizations must pay attention to the level of stress their employees are going through and the resulting poor job outcomes. Organizations can assign goals that can only achieved in teams and encourage them to work in teams. They should also pay attention to their interest and capabilities before assigning their task otherwise it might result in stress. During these difficult times, organizations and people, in general, must support them as much as possible to keep them healthy and secure.

#### **XIV. CONCLUSION**

There is positive correlation between optimism and success, and an inverse relationship between optimism and failure.

Work life balance is an important issue for employees and the organization. They have to balance their work and family responsibilities. When they fail, the problem arises. In this study, the researchers found that there are seven factors, which give work-life balance among teachers. They are workload working hours, stress management, marital relationship, working conditions, and family relationship. It is the responsibility of the organization, that they should facilitate a good atmosphere with good working conditions, working hours, autonomy, and policies to have a work-life balance of teachers.

Overall optimism have a positive correlation with job satisfaction and work-life balance.

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