Promoting Work–Family Balance Through Positive Psychology: A Practical Review of the Literature

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Balancing work and personal life roles has become a major focus of research and is a practical concern for individuals and organizations. This article draws from positive psychology, work–family, and leadership literatures to provide guidelines for managers to promote work–family balance. Recent research documents the value of positive psychology in work–family literature with novel constructs such as enrichment. Informal leadership practices including positive communication, role-modeling, and relationship building offer promising directions for work–family intervention. In particular, work–family balance is considered from an authentic leadership perspective, emphasizing self-care as an ethical concern. Training (i.e., cognitive and PsyCap) and appreciative inquiry are offered as formal intervention strategies for promoting work–family balance at individual, group, and organizational levels.

Keywords: work–family balance, work–family enrichment, positive psychology, authentic leadership, PsyCap

In the last several decades, research has proliferated to document the impact of individuals' involvement in work and nonwork or family life

roles[1] (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). For example, spillover between work and family roles has been linked with numerous work-related, individual, and health outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, life satisfaction, well-being; Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Karatepe & Bekteshi, 2008; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman, & Combs, 2006). Given the constellation of work–family outcomes that have emerged, striving for work–family balance for one's self and one's subordinates is an important concern for psychologist-managers. As Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, and Hammer (2011) asserted in their recent meta-analysis, supervisor support for work–family issues has become a mainstream supervisor role expectation.

While work–family research in and of itself has provided relatively few practical implications for mitigating work–family conflict (Kossek, Baltes, & Matthews, 2011), leadership research and theory, as well as other tools from the psychological literature, provide numerous implications for facilitating work–family balance (Major & Morganson, 2011a). The purpose of the present article is to draw from the psychological literatures concerning positive psychology, leadership, and work–family balance to provide research-based instructions for managers to employ to foster work–family balance. Figure 1 presents a heuristic model that synthesizes the key terms and research concepts we will discuss throughout the manuscript. As depicted, work–family specific resources, training, and appreciative inquiry are essential inputs for creating a positive work–family culture and achieving individual-level work–family balance. Below we provide an overview of positive psychology before applying it to work–family and management practice.

FRAMEWORK FOR POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY

Positive psychology focuses on positive human development and functioning (Seligman, 1998). Compared with traditional approaches to psychology, which concentrate on how human development and behavior can falter and be remedied, positive psychology utilizes theory, research, and applied techniques to promote and facilitate positive states of well-being (Seligman, 1999). Accordingly, positive psychology has been researched to improve leadership, initiate positive organizational change, build individuals' psychological resources, improve job satisfaction, and enhance work-related engagement and well-being (Donaldson & Ko, 2010). At its foundation, posi-

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[1] As in prior literature (Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011), the term "family" will be used to broadly refer to nonwork roles.
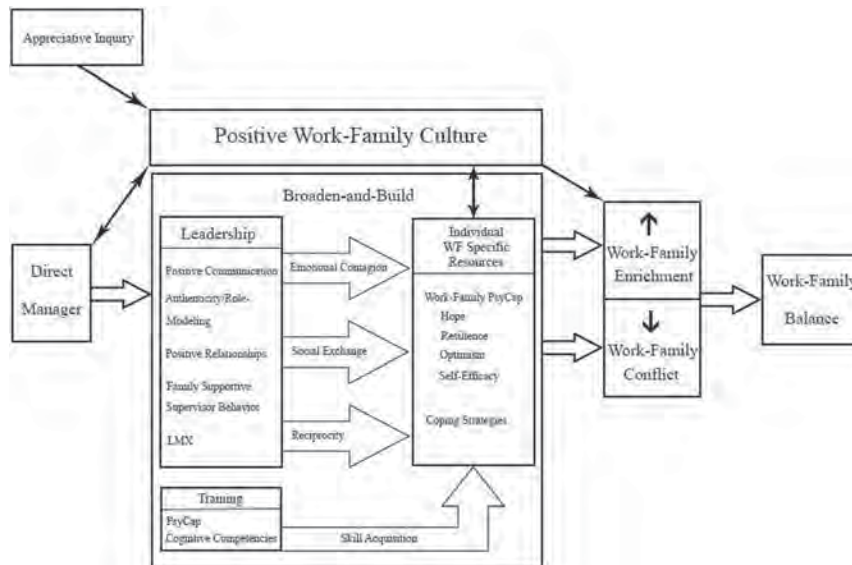
Figure 1. A summative model to represent how positive psychology may be applied to promote work–family balance in the workplace.

tive psychology is an attempt to understand the nature of human happiness and well-being (Seligman, 1998; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000); as such, it is an ideal fit for leveraging work–family balance (i.e., feeling effective and satisfied in both work and personal life domains; Greenhaus & Allen, 2011).

In general, people may be predisposed toward noticing and remembering unpleasant phenomena more than positive phenomena. This *negativity bias* is found across a variety of psychological literatures including research on everyday events, social network patterns, interactions, and learning processes (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001; Rozin & Royzman, 2001). Negativity bias is likewise characteristic of the work–family literature, which has traditionally defined work and family roles as conflicting and competing for resources (Greenhaus & Powell, 1999).

According to *broaden-and-build theory*, overcoming negativity requires conscious focus upon the positive aspects of one's environment (Fredrickson, 2001, 2004). Positive emotions broaden an individual's momentary awareness and scope of attention (Fredrickson, 2001, 2004). Positive emotions such as being hopeful or optimistic will increase the likelihood of seeking new ways to be successful in the future (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001). These positive emotions can also increase flexible, innovative, and creative thought processes (Rhoades et al., 2001), which may provide super-

visors with more resources to address employees' work–family needs. In contrast, negative emotions induce narrow and reflexive survival-oriented actions, such as the fight-or-flight response. Over time, the broadened mode of thinking and acting that positive focus creates allows one to build personal resources that act as adaptive benefits (Fredrickson, 2004; Fredrickson, Cohn, Coffey, Pek, & Finkel, 2008). These accumulated personal resources endure beyond the transient emotional state in which they were acquired.

Thus, a positive focus broadens an individual's range of thoughts and actions to choose from and negative emotions constrict an individual's thought-action repertoire (Fredrickson, 1998, 2001, 2004). In turn, adopting a positive perspective is much more consistent with creative work–family management. Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, and Hanson (2009) described creative work–family management as a type of family supportive supervisor behavior involving proactive and innovative actions such as restructuring work and addressing work–family issues proactively. As illustrated in Figure 1, broaden-and-build theory is an encompassing framework and is central to our practical model with implications for leadership practice, training, and work–family culture (elaborated below).

VALUE OF POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY IN THE WORK–FAMILY LITERATURE

Positive psychology has infused the work–family literature in the last decade. For example, in contrast to conceptualizing the work and family domains as conflicting, work–family spillover can also refer to the transfer process of positive experiences, moods, and attitudes between the work and family domains (e.g., Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, & Schilling, 1989; Frone, 2003). In addition to a focus on positive associations between the two domains, research on positive work–family spillover has largely concentrated on identifying factors that facilitate role functioning across one's work and personal life (e.g., Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Kinnunen, Feldt, Geurts, & Pulkkinen, 2006; Stevens, Minnotte, Mannon, & Kiger, 2007). Multiple positive work–family constructs have surfaced in the extant literature, including work–family enrichment (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), facilitation (Frone, 2003; Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004), and enhancement (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Conceptually, the positive work–family constructs overlap quite considerably, with the main distinction being the nature of the positive experience that transfers between domains.

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) and Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, and Grzywacz (2006) promoted the use of work–family enrichment in research

literature as this construct represents the most inclusive and comprehensive definition of positive work–family spillover. *Work–family enrichment* refers to "the extent to which experiences in one role (i.e., work) improve the quality of life in the other role" (i.e., home; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 72). This process primarily occurs when resources generated in one role directly enhance one's performance in the other role or indirectly improve performance through the impact of the resources on one's positive affect. One example of a resource generated at work includes planning skills, which may enhance the family domain through money management or effective scheduling practices at home. Though conceptually and empirically distinct from work–family conflict, work–family enrichment does not represent its counterpart, but rather both act as antecedents of work–family balance (Frone, 2003). Thus, Figure 1 depicts both work and family conflict and enrichment as separate entities, predicting work–family balance.

Carlson et al. (2006) defined and validated three dimensions representing how involvement in the work role can enhance performance in the family role. *Work–family affect* refers to when one's participation in work leads to positive emotions or attitudes that facilitate his or her performance as a family member. For example, work can make an individual feel happy, which leads them to be a better family member. *Work–family development* is defined as when participation in work results in the attainment or enhancement of an individual's perspectives, skills, knowledge, or behaviors that facilitate increased performance at home (e.g., work can help an individual learn negotiating and listening skills, which help them in the family domain). Finally, *work–family capital* refers to when participation in work promotes gains in psychosocial resources that facilitate familial performance (e.g., work can instill confidence and a sense of security that impacts the family domain).

In addition to the positive work–family gains described, work–family enrichment has been associated with increased employee performance, organizational productivity, job and family satisfaction, and psychological well-being (Carlson, Ferguson, Kacmar, Grzywacz, & Whitten, 2011; Carlson et al., 2006; McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010). Beyond these direct individual and organizational benefits, employees' spouses may also benefit from work–family enrichment. Work–family enrichment accounted for marital satisfaction above and beyond work–family conflict (van Steenbergen, Kluwer, & Karney, 2014) and was linked with both employee and partner affective commitment (Wayne, Casper, Matthews, & Allen, 2013). Initial research suggests that managers and organizations can promote work–family enrichment. Odle-Dusseau, Britt, and Greene-Shortridge (2012) found support for a mediational model in which family supportive supervisor behaviors predicted work–family enrichment, which in turn predicted commitment, intentions to quit, and job satisfac-

tion. Family supportive organizational perceptions have also been identified as an antecedent to work–family enrichment (Wayne et al., 2013). Thus, the application of positive psychology as a framework is integral to understanding work–family outcomes.

• Concepts from positive psychology can be applied in organizations to leverage positive individual and organizational outcomes, including work–family balance.

IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP ON WORK–FAMILY BALANCE

Positive leadership is a central mechanism through which managers may build work–family resources and impact work–family balance (see Figure 1). Positive leadership broadly encompasses a management style which increases positive affect through avenues such as commitment, dignity, will to action, authentic community, social support, and communication (Lloyd & Atella, 2000). Positive leadership may increase both manager and subordinate performance (Luthans, Luthans, Hodgetts, & Luthans, 2001) and its components have also been shown to elicit desirable, tangible outcomes such as hopeful leaders have increased work-unit performance, subordinate retention, and higher job satisfaction (Peterson & Luthans, 2003). Additionally, optimistic management styles are correlated with employee optimism, engagement, and project performance (Greenberg & Arakawa, 2007).

Positive leadership practices may be used to promote well-being and work–family balance in employees because, as the work–family literature has documented, managers play an essential role in facilitating subordinates' ability to balance their work and personal life roles. Managers are perceived to be an important source of support for work–family balance because of their communication of organizational information about available work–family practices (e.g., subsidized child care, parental leave, working from home), and their relationships with employees in framing and role modeling work–family balance (Budd & Mumford, 2006; Todd & Binns, 2013). In a recent meta-analysis, Kossek, Pichler et al. (2011) found that supervisor support for work–family was a better predictor of work–family conflict than general supervisor support. Moreover, supervisor support for work–family was related to work–family conflict both directly and indirectly after controlling for organizational support for work–family. Below we describe how leaders can use positive psychology to support work–family balance through communication, authentic role modeling, and relationships.

Positive Communication

Both positive psychology and work–family literatures emphasize the importance of managers communicating support and attending to subordinate emotional needs. Leaders can transfer positive emotions to followers through *emotional contagion*, setting the tone for positivity in the workplace, which improves cooperation and decreases conflict (Barsade, 2002; Cherulnik, Donley, Weiwel, & Miller, 2001). The impact of leaders communicating positivity to followers has been supported empirically in an experimental field study. Specifically, subordinates who were randomly assigned to a positive leadership condition reported higher positivity than those assigned to a low leader positivity condition. Moreover, subordinates in the positive leadership condition generated more original solutions and a higher quantity of solutions to problems (Avey, Avolio, & Luthans, 2011). Adopting an optimistic explanatory style (how people explain the cause of events that happen to them) allows setbacks to be viewed as external and temporary and successes as internal and long lasting (Seligman, Abramson, Semmel, & von Baeyer, 1979). Likewise, a positive optimistic style increases resilience to adverse events (Seligman & Schulman, 1986) and correlates with performance in challenging occupations (Corr & Gray, 1996). In contrast, a manager or employee with a pessimistic explanatory style may be socially isolated, which reduces the opportunity for them to provide or receive social support (Peterson & Steen, 2009).

Because managers are important contributors to perceptions of work–family culture (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999), it is important that they focus their communication with subordinates on the positive interface between work and personal life roles rather than on conflict. Work tasks may be framed as opportunities for personal and professional growth, representing an optimistic explanatory style. For example, in response to hearing that his or her manager is having a second child, an employee comments on how challenging it must be to balance family responsibilities with a supervisory role. The manager can use positive communication to elucidate the synergy between the roles by inspiring his or her employee(s) to reflect upon job-related skills (e.g., patience, perseverance, stress management, interpersonal, and negotiation skills) that are acquired and enhanced by having a family. Similarly, managers can encourage employees to consider how their work and family circumstances may facilitate each other when making career-related decisions.

Through positive communication, managers may empower employee engagement in positive thinking work–family coping. Rotondo and Kincaid (2008) linked positive thinking coping strategies, which emphasize finding

meaning and positivity even in challenging circumstances, to facilitation between work and family life roles. The authors provide the example of an employee who has to work long hours choosing to think of their situation as an opportunity to earn additional money. Through effective, positive communication, employees will also be better suited to take advantage of work–family balance policies, and managers will be more adept at understanding and supporting individual needs.

Particularly when managers are unable to provide resources and tangible accommodations, communication with subordinates is essential in order to boost subordinate morale and remediate distress (Lauzun, Morganson, Major, & Green, 2010). Emotional support has been shown to foster positive emotions and coping strategies that are focused on resolving the source of distress (Collins, 2008; Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). Emotional support is a family supportive supervisor behavior, which refers to perceptions that the employee's feelings are being considered and that their work–family balance needs can be communicated (Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2009). Hammer et al. (2009) define supervisor emotional support as "the extent to which supervisors make employees feel comfortable discussing family related issues, express concern for the way that work responsibilities affect family, and demonstrate respect, understanding, and sensitivity in regard to family responsibilities" (p. 841). Individualized consideration and empathy in leaders are essential for understanding the needs of followers (Choi, 2006) and communicating this understanding allows managers to better support their employees' familial responsibilities.

- Through positive communication, managers can support and attend to subordinates' work–family balance needs.

Role Modeling

Authentic leadership emphasizes positive role modeling or leading by example. An authentic leader demonstrates "transparent decision making, confidence, optimism, hope and resilience, and consistency between their words and deeds" (Avolio & Gardner, 2005, p. 326), which increases these characteristics in followers. As a form of positive leadership, authentic leadership promotes subordinate positivity (Avey et al., 2011), an increase in employees' psychological capital (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007), and increased evaluations of leader effectiveness and trust (Norman, Avolio, & Luthans, 2010). Beneficial to employees' and leader's work–family balance, authentic leadership is a natural framework for leaders to encompass and disseminate positive, constructive behaviors.

In parallel to the concept of authentic leadership, role modeling has emerged as a type of family supportive supervisor behavior (Hammer et al., 2009; Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, & Daniel, 2007). As Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, and Daniel (2007) described, supervisors might elect not to send e-mails outside of business hours because they do not want their subordinates to feel pressured to do so. Supervisors might leave work early to attend to personal life needs, in effect, normalizing such behavior for subordinates. Likewise, a manager who communicates his or her use of a parental leave policy to employees also conveys that one's work schedule can be conducive to family circumstances. Managerial role modeling of work–family balance is important because it may impact organizational culture (cf. Thompson et al., 1999). Kwan, Mao, and Zhang (2010) found support that linked mentor role modeling with subordinate work–family enrichment; the effect was transmitted through personal skill development. Likewise, Carlson, Ferguson, Kacmar, Grzywacz, and Whitten (2011) found that supervisor enrichment was transmitted to subordinates through perceptions of greater schedule control. In sum, leaders may foster confidence in their employees through effective role modeling of positive work–family management. By demonstrating that leaders are effectively able to balance their own competing work and family demands, they may instill hope and optimism in their employees through role modeling effective balance practices.

Because many aspects of managerial work are associated with work–family conflict (e.g., responsibility for others, interpersonal conflict, interdependence; Dierdorff & Ellington, 2008), serving as an authentic role model for work–family balance may require conscious effort. The notion of taking care to avoid work–family conflict in one's self in order to help one's subordinates is consistent with the concept of *self-care* (e.g., Barnett, Baker, Elman, & Schoener, 2007). Self-care comes from clinical literature and recognizes that failure to attend to one's own wellness needs can lead to impaired functioning such as compassion fatigue (Figley, 2002). Barnett, Baker, Elman, and Schoener (2007) described self-care as a form of well-functioning and distinguished it from selfishness. They asserted that failing to focus on one's own needs can result in harm to one's profession, one's self, and to the lives of others. On the other hand, caring for one's personal needs can have a positive impact. As an example of how self-care applies to managing work–family issues, consider a manager who had an argument with his or her spouse on the morning of a subordinate's annual performance review meeting. The manager reschedules the meeting to prevent negative family work spillover from affecting his or her communication of the employee's performance. In the rescheduled meeting, the manager is able to genuinely convey the praise and accompanying positive emotion that the employee deserves in his or her performance review.

As Barnett et al. (2007) discuss, the APA ethical code (which applies to psychologists working in a variety of roles including nonclinical settings; American Psychological Association, 2010), requires that members ". . . strive to be aware of the possible effect of their own physical and mental health on their ability to help those with whom they work" (p. 3). The code goes on to discuss standards of competence including the following statement regarding personal problems and conflicts:

> (a) Psychologists refrain from initiating an activity when they know or should know that there is a substantial likelihood that their personal problems will prevent them from performing their work-related activities in a competent manner. (b) When psychologists become aware of personal problems that may interfere with their performing work-related duties adequately, they take appropriate measures, such as obtaining professional consultation or assistance and determine whether they should limit, suspend or terminate their work-related duties. (American Psychological Association, 2010, p. 5)

Although self-care comes from clinical literature, it aligns with the components of authentic leadership (i.e., self-awareness, balanced decision making, transparency, and ethical moral reasoning; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008).

Literature on coping can provide a foundation for managers seeking to practice work–family self-care. Drawing from Lazarus and Folkman (1984), Thompson, Poelmans, Allen, and Andreassi (2007) differentiated episodic coping (i.e., resolving work–family conflict on a case-by-case basis as it occurs) from preventive coping (i.e., taking proactive actions to prevent work–family conflict from occurring in the future). Self-care can be viewed as a maintenance strategy to prevent episodic work–family conflict from occurring. Preventive coping strategies, which involve taking action before a conflict occurs may be ideal (Major, Lauzun, & Jones, 2013). In a study of clinical practitioners, Kramen-Kahn and Hansen (1998) identified numerous "career sustaining behaviors" including self-care strategies such as finding positive meaning in their work, maintaining a balance between time by self and social activities, use of leisure activities to relax, and use of breaks between sessions. For a review of the literature on work–family coping strategies see Morganson, Culbertson, and Matthews (2014). As discussed below, positive cognitive and PsyCap training may likewise be beneficial avenues for work–family self-care.

• By engaging in self-care strategies and role-modeling effective work–family management behaviors, managers can facilitate subordinates' own work–family balance.

Positive Relationships

Shamir and Eilam (2005) differentiate authentic leaders from authentic leadership, emphasizing that leadership has a relationship focus. They em-

phasize the notion of authentic followership, arguing that followers will follow authentic leaders for authentic reasons such as sharing beliefs and values. Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, and Walumbwa (2005) proposed a model in which authentic leadership leads to authentic followership via positive role modeling. In turn, the process of authentic leadership and followership is posited to lead to subordinate outcomes including trust, engagement, and well-being outcomes, as well as performance (Gardner et al., 2005). Thus, authentic leaders, who practice work–family balance and self-care may elicit followership and foster trusting, productive relations with employees who value work–family balance.

The importance of leader–subordinate relationships has been underscored in the work–family literature. A strong leader–member (subordinate) relationship is critical to many outcomes in the workplace, including the promotion of work–family balance. Major and Morganson (2011b) proposed leader–member exchange (LMX) theory to describe how supervisors facilitate subordinate coping with work–family conflict. When the supervisor–subordinate exchange relationship is high, supervisors may facilitate strategies for addressing the conflict (e.g., benefit utilization). The relationship provides negotiating latitude; that is, high LMX supervisors may provide work–family balance support as a currency of exchange for reliable, high performance from subordinates (Major & Morganson, 2011b). For example, an employee may be granted schedule flexibility to accommodate family demands in exchange for his or her reliable high performance. In empirical research, LMX has been negatively linked with subordinate work–family conflict (e.g., Golden, 2006; Major, Fletcher, Davis, & Germano, 2008). A positive relationship between supervisors and employees will better allow supervisors to provide instrumental work–family support for subordinates.

As a proximal representative of the organization, managers are in a critical role to provide work–life balance through daily interactions with employees. Hammer et al. (2009) described how supervisors provide instrumental support in their daily transactions with subordinates, for example, by managing work schedules and responding to scheduling requests. Likewise, in a qualitative study of 1,150 employee requests for work–family balance accommodations (Lauzun et al., 2010), requests received by managers were diverse and included altering daily work assignments, granting schedule changes and time off, and allocating resources. According to the reciprocity norm in organizational support theory, providing added resources to increase employee well-being will encourage reciprocal behavior, eliciting increased affective commitment and obligation to organizational welfare (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001). Social exchange is likewise a basis of LMX theory and has been advocated as a strategy for providing individualized family friendly flexibility (Major & Lauzun, 2010; Major & Morganson, 2011b). Exercising positive leadership to promote constructive

interaction and consider all sides of a situation, managers are able to increase employee and organizational well-being.

- By developing positive relationships, managers are better positioned to support subordinates' work–family balance needs.

WORK–FAMILY SPECIFIC POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL

One of the major constructs in positive organizational scholarship is positive psychological capital (PsyCap). PsyCap as the combination of four positive psychological resources operationalized by (a) self-efficacy or confidence; (b) present and future optimism; (c) goal perseverance (hope), and the ability to redirect paths toward goals; and (d) resiliency to problems and adversity to attain goals (Luthans et al., 2006; Luthans et al., 2007). PsyCap refers to one's positive developmental state, where positive psychological resources enhance employees' ability to cope with challenges, stress or strain (Luthans et al., 2006), including work and family interrole conflicts. Interestingly, research has found that even when work demands cannot be reduced, job resources, including positive psychological capital, may be more salient and buffer negative relationships between job demands and employee outcomes (e.g., Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). Theoretically, an employee with higher levels of PsyCap should think more positively in the face of incompatible interrole demands and thus feel more capable of managing and/or coping with this conflict due to greater perceived work and family psychological resources. In turn, employees who report high PsyCap should perceive more work–family resources and be better prepared to deal with work–family conflicts that may arise. Should an unexpected work–family conflict arise, PsyCap will provide imperative psychological resources: confidence to effectively handle a family emergency, optimism to view the situation as a mere temporary setback, hope to handle the conflict in different ways to eventually achieve resolution, and the resiliency to bounce back and reduce work negative work interference.

The extant literature has provided support for the positive impact of PsyCap on the work–family interface. One of the most consistent findings is that individuals with more available resources are better able to manage and cope with various stressors and demands (e.g., Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). Researchers have proposed the importance of psychological resources in managing competing work and family role demands in the extant work–family literature. For example, psychological job resources (e.g., respect and meaningful work) enhance personal well-being,

which may then spill over to the family domain and promote work–family facilitation and enrichment (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Voydanoff, 2004).

Past research has linked self-efficacy, a PsyCap dimension, to reduced work–family conflict (e.g., Erdwins, Buffardi, Casper, & O'Brien, 2001). Furthermore, Cinamon (2006) found one's work–family specific self-efficacy to negatively predict individuals' perceptions of future work–family conflicts. Related research has linked core-self evaluations (a metaconstruct including self-efficacy and self-esteem) with heightened work–family enrichment (Baral & Bhargava, 2011) and reduced work–family conflict (Hennessy & Lent, 2008).

PsyCap, specifically when related to managing one's work and family demands, may act as a positive resource in the facilitation of work–family balance and reduction of work–family conflict. PsyCap has been studied in relation to work–family outcomes in two studies of Chinese workers. PsyCap mediated the relationship between work–family conflict and burnout/exhaustion in a study of Chinese doctors (Wang, Liu, Wang, & Wang, 2012). Additionally, Siu (2013) found PsyCap to predict employees' perceptions of work-related physical and psychological well-being and work–family balance five months later. PsyCap may act to increase employees' work–family psychological resource bases, and improve psychological well-being which transfer between domains and improve functioning in each.

Research shows that PsyCap can be specific to a particular context or domain, including academia, interpersonal relations, and health (e.g., Luthans, Luthans, & Avey, 2014; Luthans, Youssef, Sweetman, & Harms, 2013). Defined as a state rather than a trait (Luthans et al., 2006; Luthans et al., 2007), the development of PsyCap specific to work–family balance may be trainable through workplace interventions and coaching. This is an important implication for organizations and employees alike, as the development of work–family specific PsyCap may counteract the psychological costs attributed to incompatible work and family demands, ultimately enhancing role performance in both domains (Voydanoff, 2004). For example, an employee high in PsyCap would report high confidence in their ability to manage their competing work and family demands, and may actively pursue work *and* personal life endeavors due to his or her assuredness that he or she would be well-equipped with resources to resolve future conflicts. As summarized in Figure 1, work–family PsyCap is impacted by leadership practice and training. The presence of PsyCap among individuals in the workgroup promotes positive work–family culture and culminates in employee work–family balance.

- Positive psychological capital (PsyCap) is an important resource that facilitates coping and proactively managing multiple role demands.

TRAINING AND INTERVENTION

As shown in Figure 1, training is a tool for building resources and skills that will garner work–family resources. Leadership confidence, or self-efficacy, refers to the personal belief of how effectively one's abilities can be enacted in a specific situation (Luthans et al., 2001). Positive leadership literature emphasizes that highly self-efficacious leaders are likely to welcome challenges, contribute the necessary effort to be successful, and persevere in the face of conflict (Luthans et al., 2001). Because self-efficacy has been strongly related to performance improvement, its training and development is critical in effective leadership (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Likewise, training is important for employees. Training increases self-efficacy by giving employees skills they need to believe in their ability to be successful on the job (Lyons, 2008).

Cognitive Training

Shatte, Reivich, and Seligman (2000) outlined a cognitive training model for corporate competencies, utilizing positive psychology to increase positive avenues of thought. This training includes techniques such as self-disputing, putting it in perspective, focusing, scheduling time to address negative beliefs, and mental games to promote positive imagery. For example, one focusing technique is to visualize a stop sign when negative thoughts are encroaching. Visualization helps to address negative thoughts and quickly replace them with accurate, positive thoughts to foster positive affectivity. The cognitive training model gives employees resources to combat cognitive work–family spillover. For example, when faced with intrusive thoughts about work stressors during family time, using the stop sign focusing technique can help reduce the instances of negative spillover. Additionally, cognitive training may improve performance in both domains by increasing general positive affect.

PsyCap Training

A more specific training model from positive psychology is the PsyCap Intervention (PCI) developed by Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman, and Combs (2006). The goal of this training is to increase each individual dimension comprising PsyCap (hope, optimism, resiliency, and self-efficacy). Training and developing hope and optimism benefits both followers and organizations by increasing resiliency (Norman, Luthans, & Luthans, 2005; Seligman, 1998; Snyder, 2000). Researchers have shown that PCI not only increases the individ-

ual dimensions, but overall effects on PsyCap were greater than the sum of the four dimensions, suggesting synergistic effects (Luthans et al., 2006). PCI can develop these resources by identifying a goal, choosing measurable success points, approaching goal accomplishment, and identifying subgoals to stay motivated (Luthans et al., 2006). These practices are not only beneficial at work, but identifying goals and subgoals outside of work may be a form of work–family development (a facet of enrichment). Likewise, the PsyCap gained through training is a form of work–family capital. By proactively implementing PCI in the workplace, managers will be better able to foster enrichment and be resilient in the face of conflict situations when they arise.

PsyCap can also be trained through Web-based intervention (Luthans, Avey, & Patera, 2008). Because the training takes two hour to complete and is available online, it is highly accessible and practical. Other positive psychology interventions, such as Resilience Online Program or personal effectiveness training, have also been shown to enhance employee well-being and performance, as well as diminish stress and burnout (Meyers, van Woerkom, & Bakker, 2013). The online training course may also increase the feasibility of manager participation. By implementing positive psychology training techniques, such as a cognitive training model or PCI, and also participating in this training to become more effective role models, managers can formally bring attention to and facilitate subordinates' work–family balance.

- Managers can facilitate subordinates' work–family resource development by implementing cognitive and PsyCap training.

CULTIVATING A POSITIVE WORK–FAMILY CULTURE: THE ROLE OF HIGHER LEVELS OF LEADERSHIP

Members of all levels of organizational leadership (e.g., executive-level managers, immediate supervisors) are responsible for upholding a positive work–family culture (Allen, 2001). As depicted in Figure 1, work–family culture is a channel through which managers can exchange positive work–family resources with employees and facilitate positive work–family outcomes. Thompson, Beauvais, and Lyness (1999) defined work–family culture as, "the shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the integration of employees' work and family lives" (p. 394). Perceptions of an organization's work–family culture are composed of three factors: negative career consequences associated with utilizing family friendly policies, organizational time demands that prioritize work over one's family, and work–family specific managerial support (Thompson et al., 1999). These components may be viewed as job resources or demands to the extent they facilitate or hinder employees' work–family balance management.

Leaders at all levels of the organization play an integral role in ensuring that the organization's written rules (i.e., formal work–life policies) align with the organizations' implied principles (e.g., work–family culture; Allen, 2001). Although senior leaders and HR executives are generally responsible for developing formal work–family policies and employee benefit programs, front-line supervisors are typically trusted to empower employees to utilize them (Lauzun et al., 2010). The alignment of support for work–family balance across levels of leadership cannot be understated. Senior leaders should consult with front-line supervisors to encourage positive communication and brainstorming, resulting in impactful and practically useful work-life balance policies. Meta-analytic evidence suggests that organizational work–family support mediates the relationship between supervisor work–family support and work–family conflict (Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011). In addition to ameliorating work–family conflict, perceptions of a positive work–family culture may also generate positive work–family outcomes, including work–family enrichment and enhancement (Baral & Bhargava, 2010; Trull & Prinstein, 2012). Through a supportive and positive work–family culture, psychological resources seem likely to afford employees with self-efficacy to cope with future work–family conflicts and resilience in the face of conflict.

In addition to the subjective (e.g., well-being, balance satisfaction) and the individual levels (e.g., personal coping, capacity for balance), the positive psychology framework has also been applied to the group and team level (Seligman, 2002; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). At the group level, positive psychology is concerned with the strengths within a group of people that motivate individuals to be better citizens through positive altruism, responsibility, and work ethic (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). A positive work–family culture encourages members of the organization to support one another in their work–family endeavors. In fact, research suggests that supportive workplace relationships mediate the relationship between work–family culture and work interference with family.

Organizations seeking to enhance employee perspectives of the work–family culture may engage in organizational change and development. *Organizational change* refers to the process of transitioning employees' collective values and attitudes to a desired future state (Phillips, 1983), which may include the development of a shared work–family vision among members of the organization. An increasingly popular approach to organizational change applied through a positive psychology lens is appreciative inquiry (AI). AI may be implemented in organizations to enhance perceptions of a positive work–family culture. As such, AI is depicted as directly impacting work–family culture in Figure 1. Declared by some as a "positive revolution" (Cooperrider & Whitney, 2005), AI interventions help to identify positive aspects of the organization and build collective energy and vision for change, rather than taking a "problem-oriented" approach (Cooperrider & Whitney, 2001). Thus, AI focuses on build-

ing upon organizational practices that are presently effective (Cooperrider & Whitney, 2005).

AI facilitates the development of positive relationships within the organization and encourages individuals to build on their potential through four stages (Cooperrider & Whitney, 2001; Cooperrider, Whitney, & Stavros, 2003). A typical AI intervention begins with the *discover* stage, which consists of identifying and appreciating the organizational processes that currently work well. In the discover stage of a work–family oriented AI intervention, managers and employees may work together to identify what formal work–family policies are currently available and what informal work–family accommodations are made across the organization. Next, in the *dream* stage, participants are asked to imagine future work-related processes that might be successful. For example, managers may challenge employees to envision new work–family accommodations that could help them to be more effective in both domains (e.g., flextime policies, daycare and eldercare programs, paid maternity/paternity leave, lactation rooms, dependent care flexible spending account, domestic partner benefits for same-sex couples, 529 plan). Next, employees are engaged in the *design* stage, in which they develop and prioritize processes that will facilitate the desired and shared goal. For example, employees may discuss strategies for developing program funding sources; managers may empower employees to develop a plan-of-action that includes short- and long-term goals in preparation of bringing policy change requests to executive management. Finally, the proposed plan (e.g., to facilitate work–family balance) is implemented in the *destiny* stage (Cooperrider et al., 2003; Powley, Fry, Barrett, & Bright, 2004). This stage occurs after executive management approval, and involves the gradual implementation of the work–family change strategy. For example, management may initially choose to implement more affordable work–family policies, such as flextime. Over time, the organization develops an increasingly positive work–family culture, becoming a more prestigious employer who can afford more expensive family friendly accommodations (e.g., paid leave, on-site amenities). In cultivating a positive work–family culture, an AI approach may help to form a collective vision of a positive work–family culture among all members of the organization.

Meta-analytic findings have revealed that AI interventions designed to change the collective thought pattern of employees result in transformational change outcomes (Bushe & Kassam, 2005). Though no research to our knowledge has examined work–family specific AI interventions, Verleysen, Lambrechts, and van Acker (2014) found AI initiatives generated higher levels of general employee positive psychological capital. Thus, it seems reasonable that organizations seeking to create more positive perceptions of their work–family culture may choose to implement an AI approach to develop work–family specific resources through a positive work–family culture.

- Managers at all leadership levels can facilitate subordinates' development of work–family resources by cultivating and promoting a positive work–family culture and employing appreciative inquiry.

CONCLUSION AND SUMMARY OF IMPLICATIONS

Addressing work–family issues through a positive psychology framework is supported by research and theory and is conducive to positive work–family outcomes. Managers are encouraged to apply positive work–family practices in their organizations because family supportive supervisor behaviors have been linked to heightened organizational commitment, lowered intention to leave, and higher job performance over time (Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012). Utilizing Fredrickson's (1998) broaden-and-build theory, managers may build personal resources through positive thinking and reframing, and reduce negativity bias by focusing on well-being and work–family enrichment (affect, development, capital) rather than conflict.

Adopting an optimistic management approach (e.g., increasing empathy, practicing individualized consideration, having an optimistic explanatory style to reframe work tasks, developing positive relationships with employees through LMX and social capital) will allow managers to better support employee's efforts to balance multiple role demands. An authentic leadership style also allows managers to serve as a role model of work–family balance by engaging in self-care. Managers attending to their own well-being will be able to more effectively function in their demanding roles, as well as be more compassionate for the role demands of their employees (Figley, 2002). Managerial authenticity and cognizance of employee's work–family balance needs will additionally benefit the work–family culture at an organizational level.

Building psychological resources through PsyCap or cognitive competency training, which can be implemented in person or online, will enhance role performance, effective coping strategies, and employee well-being in multiple domains (Crawford et al., 2010). Additionally, positive work–family culture can be cultivated through interventions such as AI to develop work–family specific resources and create solution-oriented group thinking. An example of solution-oriented, group thinking includes managerial staff working together to align written and applied work–family practices (e.g., reducing negative consequences of utilizing family friendly policies, promoting equal policy enforcement across the organization) and managers working with employees to increase job resources to facilitate work–family balance (e.g., reducing work demands after normal business hours, personalizing consideration of each employees' family demands). Positive psychology provides an avenue for work–family issues to be shifted from a conflict-focus

to enhancing balance in the workplace; management practice is the most impactful way to begin this transition.

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