Cultural mentalities

-A quantitative study of expected organizational support and work-life balance among students, from an international perspective

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Abstract

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Background and purpose: In a globalized world, one can question whether cultural differences in the work life still exist. The aim of this study is therefore to provide a better understanding of how university students are affected by cultural attitudes regarding work- and home life.

Methodology: Four University exchange groups were asked to participate in a quantitative study of their expectations regarding their first employer after graduation. Hofstede’s cultural dimension (masculinity versus femininity) was used as a foundation for categorizing countries, the masculinity index scale in particular. The study was then constructed using two variables, perceived organizational support and work-life balance.

Analysis and Conclusion: The empirical results showed a significant difference in mentality between respondents from masculine countries versus respondents from feminine countries in both variables. Therefore our main conclusion was that the respondents from feminine countries do value perceived organizational support and work-life balance higher than respondents from masculine countries.
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**FEL! BOKMÄRKET ÄR INTE DEFINIERAT.**
1. Introduction

This chapter is dedicated to provide a background where the topic is introduced and the general structure of the thesis is presented.

According to the OECD library, an estimated 4.3 million students are currently receiving their university diploma from a university outside their home country. This is more than a 50 % increase from the year 2000 when that number was 2.1 million (Sood, 2012). That does not include the thousands of students going on international exchange programs each semester. In this globalized world a new kind of citizen emerges, one that is a citizen of the world rather than just a citizen of one country. When these individuals one day join the workforce, managers within organizations will be faced with the challenge of managing culturally diverse groups of people. The aim of this study is therefore to provide a better understanding of how people are affected by cultural attitudes regarding work- and home life.

Hofstede’s cultural dimensions include several factors that are used to define cultural patterns. In this study the factor that will be focused on is the masculinity versus femininity dimension. Masculine countries are defined as more competitive and goal oriented versus feminine countries, which are defined as more relationship focused, valuing quality of life (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). According to Clark, work organizations and families are the two foundations that are most central to people (Clark, 2001). For that reason we chose to use variables relating to work organizations and family life when examining cultural mentalities. The first variable that is used in this study is perceived organizational support, briefly defined as the degree to which employees believe that their organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002). The second variable that is used is work-life balance, briefly defined as the satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home with minimum of role conflict (Clark, 2000).

We will use a quantitative research method for this study and conduct a web-based survey to gather our data. The aim is to reach students from across the world from as many different countries as possible. The scale used to define countries’ masculinity
level will be the same as Hofstede, (the Masculinity index) and countries will be categorized accordingly (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). The perceived organizational support variable will be measured using a scale developed by Professor Eisenberger (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002). The work-life balance variable will also be measured using an existing tool of measurement, a scale developed by Professor Campbell Clark (Clark, 2001).

This thesis introduces the topic and aims to give an overall view in the introduction section. This will be followed by the theoretical framework where all the main theories will be presented. After that the methodology chapter follows. The structure of our survey and analysis of it will be explained here. In the result section the gathered data is presented and summarized. The analysis chapter is connected to the results and this is where the data is discussed. Finally, the last chapter provides a conclusion of the thesis, which is linked to the main purpose of the study.
2. Research question

In this chapter, the research question is presented and followed by the research model that we will use throughout the thesis.

2.1 Research question
Does a masculine versus feminine society affect university students’ expectations of future employers regarding work-life balance and perceived organizational support?

2.2 Research model
The research model, which is shown below, demonstrates the foundation for our research. The masculinity versus femininity score will be used as a tool for categorizing countries and the two variables that will be examined are work-life balance and perceived organizational support.
3. Theoretical framework

In this chapter the empirical literature that is the foundation for our study is introduced. The chapter is divided into three sections, the first presenting Hofstede’s cultural dimensions, the second presenting the organizational support theory and the third presenting work-life balance.

3.1 Hofstede’s cultural dimensions - masculinity and femininity

3.1.1 Definition of model
In 1984 Professor Gert Hofstede published a book called Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind. This book, which is based on extensive surveys conducted on a large scale during the 1960s and 1970s at IBM, was aimed to categorize and define how cultural factors impact the way people and societies think and operate. The research was based of 4 major areas, which included: Social inequality, the relationship between the individual and the group, concepts of masculinity and femininity and ways of dealing with uncertainty. These four areas were defined as cultural factors and given the following names: power distance, collectivism versus individualism, femininity versus masculinity and uncertainty avoidance. Each country was then given a score on each of these dimensions and the scores can be pictured as points along a line (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010).

3.1.1.1 Power distance
This cultural dimension is meant to define the level of social inequality in a society. Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov define this dimension as "the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally." (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010, p. 61). Societies with more clearly defined hierarchies where people feel bound to stay within in those limits are therefore defined as having a higher power distance. This dimension also includes factors such as wealth distribution and power distribution. Each country is given a score based of a survey including three parts; employees afraid, boss autocratic and thirdly employee preference. The result of this survey is called Power Distance Index
(PDI) and can then be compared with the score of other countries (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010).

3.1.1.2 Individualism versus Collectivism
This cultural dimension is meant to define the relationship between the individual and the group. Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov explain this dimension as follows:

“Individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose, everyone is expected to look after him- or herself and his or her immediate family. Collectivism as its opposite pertains to societies in which people from birth onward are integrated into strong cohesive in-groups, which throughout people’s lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty.” (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010, p. 92).

This dimension is measured through a survey where the respondent is asked to evaluate the importance of 14 work goals ranging from very important to not important at all. This scale is also used when determining the masculinity versus femininity dimension, which is discussed further down. These two dimensions are not however measured directly by using the score from the survey the way power distance index is. The results from the survey are instead recalculated using a factor system which means the final score ranges between 0 and 100 where 0 is a very collectivistic country and 100 is a very individualistic country (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010).

3.1.1.3 Femininity versus Masculinity
This cultural dimension is meant to define concepts of masculinity and femininity in a society. Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov define this dimension as the following:

“A society is called masculine when emotional gender roles are clearly distinct: men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success, whereas women are supposed to be more modest, tender and concerned with the quality of life. A society is called feminine when emotional gender roles overlap, both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life.” (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010, p. 140).
As mentioned above this dimension just as the individualist dimension is calculated using a factor system where the score is determined through a survey where the respondent ranks 14 work goals after how important they are for them as an employee. The result is then recalculated and a score between 0 and 100 is obtained for each country. A result of 0 indicates a very feminine society and a score of 100 indicates a very masculine society (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010).

3.1.1.4 Uncertainty avoidance
This cultural dimension is meant to define the ways of the dealing with uncertainty in a society. Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov define this dimension as “the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations.” (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010, p. 191). The main issue of this dimension is how a culture chooses to handle the fact that the future can never be known, either try to control and plan situations as much as possible or to simply let the future happen. The level of this dimension in a culture is defined using a so-called Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI), which is calculated using a survey in three parts. The first part is the level of job stress, the second part is the employees’ inclination to follow rules in all situations, and thirdly how long the employee envisioned to stay with the company. The index is then calculated by looking at the correlation between these questions (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010).

3.1.2 Additions to the original model
In 1991 and then again in 2010 the original four piece model was extended with a further dimension. They will not be discussed as closely as the original four, however a short description is stated below (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010).

3.1.2.1 Long Term Orientation versus Short Term Normative Orientation
This dimension is defined as follows by Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov: "Long-term orientation stands for the fostering of virtues related to the past and present- in particular, respect for tradition, preservation of face and fulfilling social obligations.” (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010, p. 239).
3.1.2.2 Indulgence versus restraint
This dimension is defined by Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov as:

“Indulgence stands for a tendency to allow relatively free gratification of basic and natural human desires related to enjoying life and having fun. Its opposite pole, restraint, reflects a conviction that such gratification needs to be curbed and regulated by strict social norms.” (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010, p. 281).

3.1.3 Femininity and masculinity in depth
Since the femininity versus masculinity dimension is the one that will be used in the survey this section is meant to give a deeper understanding and a better overview of the cultural dimension as a whole.

3.1.3.1 Definition
When presenting the masculinity versus femininity dimension Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov use a list of work goals that are associated with being of great importance in a masculine society respectively a feminine society. For masculine countries earnings, recognition, advancement and challenges are defined as the most important factors. In a feminine society factors such as manager relationships, cooperation, living area and employment security top the list (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010).

3.1.3.2 Scale
The result of the masculinity index is a value between 0 and 100 where a higher number indicates a more masculine society. This grading system makes comparisons between countries easy to conduct. The index is designed in the way that scoring a number in the middle (50) defines the country as neutral, not showing signs of being more masculine or more feminine. Therefore any scores above 50 can be defined as masculine and all scores below 50 can be defined as feminine (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010).

3.1.3.3 Comparing countries
Using the MAS index one can easily compare levels of masculinity versus femininity between countries. Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov extend a list of all 76 countries in their book and at the very top of the list and therefore the most masculine country we find Slovakia reaching the maximum of score of 100. In contrast to that, at the very bottom of the list we find Sweden scoring only five (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010).
3.2 Perceived organizational support

3.2.1 Definition
According to the organizational support theory, created and developed by Eisenberger and Rhoades, perceived organizational support (POS) can be defined as the degree to which employees believe that their organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being and fulfills socio-emotional needs (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002). To further explain the POS term it can be divided into three subparts: Fairness, Supervisor support and Organizational rewards and job conditions.

3.2.2 Fairness
As Greenberg writes in his article regarding organizational justice: “Procedural justice concerns the fairness of the ways used to determine the distribution of resource among employees” (Greenberg, 1990). He also emphasizes the difference between structural and social aspects of procedural justice where structural factors include formal rules and policies that affect the employees, such as input and general voice in the decision making process. Social factors on the other hand, also referred to as interactional justice, include being treated with respect and dignity by superiors (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002).

3.2.3 Supervisor support
Supervisor support can be defined as “employees’ general views concerning the degree to which supervisors value their contributions and care about their well-being.” (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002, p. 698). Eisenberger claims that supervisor behavior is an important aspect of how the subordinate will perceive organizational support since the supervisors act as agents, carrying out the decisions made by the company’s upper management (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002). Employees who view their supervisors as abusive are more likely to take part in counterproductive work behavior. This can be aimed at both the organization and the supervisor (Shoss, Eisenberger, Restubog, Zagenczyk, 2013). However research also shows that supportive behavior from supervisors leads to positive outcomes, for instance less stress at the workplace and increased performance. In addition perceived supervisor support should create a feeling of obligation to assist their supervisors reaching work-goals (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2006).
3.2.4 Organizational rewards and job conditions
This category includes factors such as pay and promotions, however also factors like job security and organizational size. Rhoades and Eisenberger claim that these human resource practices have a significant impact of how employees perceive the level of support they receive from the organization. In essence they claim that an organization that take action to make employees feel recognized and safe in their job position will feel a higher level of organizational support (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002). Performance rewards are said to lead to employees caring more about doing their job well, compared to performance feedback with out a reward. In addition, another consequence of having performance-based rewards may include the perception of increased competence (Cameron, Rhoades & Eisenberger, 1999).

3.2.5 Organizational support today
Evidence claims that employees with high levels of perceived organizational support value their jobs more positively, i.e. increased job satisfaction, reduced stress and are therefore more involved in their organization. This leads to increased performance and reduced turnover (Chen, Eisenberger, Johnson, Sucharski & Aselage, 2009). Eisenberger and Rhoades also define a list of consequences that perceived organizational support entails. The first one is organizational commitment, briefly described as “POS should create a felt obligation to care about the organization’s welfare”. (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002, p. 701). This is said to produce a strong sense of belonging to the organization for the employee. The second consequence that is stated is job-related affect, which Eisenberger and Rhoades define as following: “employees’ general affective reactions to their job, including job satisfaction and positive mood.” (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002, p. 701). This is said to be created by meeting socioemotional needs and the availability of aid when needed. The employees’ general mood is also said to have an impact on the job-related affect consequence, however it cannot be tied to one specific object but rather the overall environment. The third consequence is defined as job involvement, briefly described by Eisenberger and Rhoades as “identification with and interest in the specific work one performs” (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002, p. 702). This is said to be achieved by creating perceived competence for the employee (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002).
The fourth consequence is stated as *performance* and described by Eisenberger and Rhoades as “POS should increase performance of standard job activities and actions favorable to the organization that go beyond assigned responsibilities” (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002, p. 702). These actions can include helping fellow employees, protecting the organization from risk and gaining knowledge beneficial to the organization. The fifth consequence described by Eisenberger and Rhoades is called *strains* and they define it as “POS is expected to reduce aversive psychological and psychosomatic reactions (i.e., strains) to stressors by indicating the availability of material aid and emotional support when needed to face high demands at work” (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002, p. 702). In short, perceived organizational support should decrease level of stress for employees. The sixth consequence is defined as *desire to remain* and can naturally be described as “the relationship between POS and employees’ desire to remain within the organization.” (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002, p. 702). This should however not be confused with the feeling of being trapped because of high costs of leaving but rather the propensity to leave the organization for a slightly higher better job etc. The seventh and last consequence that Eisenberger and Rhoades states is withdrawal behavior, which is defined by them as “the employees’ lessening of active participation in the organization”. This behavior includes tardiness, absenteeism, and voluntary turnover (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002).

**3.2.6 Organizational support in the future**

When looking at the future for the research of perceived organizational support, an article written by Eisenberger et al. can be found relevant. In this article the original perceived organizational support theory, (the organizational commitment aspect of it in particular) is combined with the leader-member exchange concept, which can be defined as “the quality of the exchange relationship that develops between employees and supervisors.” (Eisenberger et al., 2010, p. 1085). This new concept is called supervisor’s organizational embodiment (SOE) and refers to “the extent to which the employees identifies their supervisor with the organization.” (Eisenberger et al., 2010, p. 1085). In the article the SOE concept can either be high, when the employees views the supervisors actions and words as part of the organization, however when it is low the supervisors words and actions are viewed as done on their own behalf and does not necessarily correlate with the organization (Eisenberger et al., 2010).
3.3 Work-life balance

3.3.1 Background
Work-life balance can be described as: “satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home with a minimum of role conflict” (Clark, 2000, p.751). The term balance supposedly exists between the work we get paid for, and the life outside our job (Taylor, 2002). A conflict may occur when demands from the work and non-work are equally irreconcilable (Sturges & Guest, 2004).

The issues revolving work-family and work-life balance have received extensive attention over the past two decades. This is due to a number of reasons, for instance demographic and social changes have caused more women to enter the workforce. Additionally there has been significant technological advancement. Consequently it is now easier for work demands to interfere with personal and family life. There has also been increasing pressure for employees to work long hours in developed countries. As a result, it has become a challenge for many people to manage the boundary between home and work (Jones, Burke & Westman, 2005).

According to Clark, work organizations and families are the two foundations that are most central to people. Clark examines the relationship between three aspects of work culture. The first factor is temporal flexibility (flexible work scheduling), i.e. the levels of influence employees have over their work schedule. It is often suggested that employers find that flexible scheduling increases productivity; this might be due to reduced stress among employees and lower absence and turnover. The second factor is operational flexibility; it can be seen as the extent to which employees can control their conditions at work. This also involves the ability to decide how the work is done without excessive monitoring and regulations. Some research claims that employees with autonomy and higher involvement in the work processes will experience satisfaction with their work while others claim that this relationship is dependent on the situation and the attitude of the individual. The third factor is supportive supervision, which ultimately demonstrates the organization’s support for individuals with family responsibilities (Clark, 2001).
One of the key components in the work-life balance equation is time. John Monk, the Trades Union Congress general secretary, explained time as “when we work, for how long and how we are able to balance working time with our time outside of work” (Taylor, 2002, p. 9). The perceived workload, as well as the work intensity (combined with other factors) has increased in recent years. The time spent at work differ greatly between countries. For instance the increase in intensity is greater in the UK than in other European countries and working hours in the UK are longer than it is for its neighbors (Sturges & Guest, 2004).

Another factor that has influenced the changing nature of work is globalization; it has defined what organizations require to stay competitive in the market. The self-perpetuating, 24/7 service on demand model are a consequence from the growing service industry (Jones, Burke & Westman, 2004). There has been an increase in demand coming from consumers as well, adding pressure on organizations to produce high quality products and services delivered right when customers want them. Thus it is often argued that men and women are required to work at a more intensive pace than in the past. Consequently a conflict can occur when work roles interfere with non-work roles and home life (Taylor, 2002).

3.3.2 Work-life balance today
As previously mentioned, the workplace today can be seen as more stressful and demanding than a decade ago. We mentioned how the number of hours spent at work can be linked directly to feelings of work-life imbalance and conflict. Taylor states that in reality, people’s work life and home life often over-lap and interact. In addition many people value their job and the work-life balance is closely linked to family responsibilities and household circumstances (Taylor, 2002).

In most working environments today, it is essential for employees and employers to be flexible and find innovative solutions in order to maximize profit and productivity, while still maintaining employees’ well being (Jones, Burke & Westman, 2005). Taylor suggests that that finding work-life balance in general is important but is especially important among younger people, the early years are vital in terms of establishing the individual commitment and meeting organizational expectations. Furthermore there can
be pressure caused by competition and working long hours ultimately demonstrates commitment in the early stages of the career (Taylor, 2002).

Even though time is one of the main variables in the work-life conflict dilemma, other factors are also significant. One example is the psychological contract, which can be defined as an individual's beliefs, which are shaped by the organization in terms of a mutual understanding between the individual and the organization. Furthermore, expectations coming from the employer regarding working hours and workload, associated with the psychological contract. Thus the role of the organization and their policy in helping employees to manage their relationships between work and non-work, additionally the development of the organization’s commitment in supporting younger workers (Jones, Burke & Westman, 2005).

Jones, Burke and Westman discuss how there has been a change in the psychological contract between employers and employees. Two of the main forces behind the new contract are the rise in global competition and advances in information technology. The previous psychological contract was portrayed by the paternalism of employees toward their employers. The old contract was signified by employers offering a lifelong career in a single organization in exchange for continued loyalty in service from the employees. The psychological contract today however is characterized by the perception that the employee and employer share responsibility to sustain the relationship for as long as it is mutually beneficial (Jones, Burke & Westman, 2005).

It is questionable how much employees can choose between the length of time they spend at work and how much time they can spend on other activities. It is debatable how much of a free choice there really is, the norm of having a hard work ethic remains strong in our society. The work-life issue needs to be put in a wider perspective in our political economy, thus acknowledging the social inequalities and how it continues to exist in many workplaces (Taylor, 2002).

Organizations have tried to become more employee-, personal-, family- and life-friendly over the past decade by creating policies that are supportive of work-life and work-family balance. However these policies do not guarantee that they will be utilized or
effective as a consequence of organizational culture that support long working hours. In addition they might discourage employees from taking advantage of these policies. (Jones, Burke & Westman, 2005).

**3.3.3 Work-life balance in the future**

There is much discussion about the impact of having lack of work-life balance, although less is known about how to improve it. However, Jones, Burke and Westman refer to information from organizational psychology research that recommends factors that might improve work-life balance for employees. An essential requirement for work-life balance is that employees have control and a say over conditions at work, it is a vital factor in both improving employee motivation and reducing stress. In addition, having control over timing and location of work affect the ability to improve work-life balance (Jones, Burke & Westman, 2005).

Most people find that there is no clear-cut distinction that can be established between the world of work and the world of friends and family (Taylor, 2002). Sturges and Guest state that the word balance signifies the existence of an equilibrium which can be achieved between paid work and non-paid work. The big challenge will be how far we can go integrating lives outside of our occupation without damaging corporate profitability and productivity performance (Sturges & Guest 2004).

Negotiated voluntary agreements between employers, trade unions and employees have also played an important part in ensuring workers are not compelled to work excessively long hours and enjoy limited holiday breaks and do secure at least some mutually acceptable control over the pace and content of their work (Taylor, 2002).
4. Methodology

The methodology chapter is aimed to explain the method used to conduct our study. This chapter includes; selection of sample, examined factors and survey structure.

4.1 Research approach/method
We have chosen to follow a deductive research method in this thesis. Therefore our hypotheses are based on theoretical literature where the main objective is to test whether that theory can be proven by testing it on a sample through an anonymous survey. The result of the survey will then determine whether we can confirm our reject the hypotheses (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

According to Bryman and Bell, a quantitative research method can be viewed as a research strategy that emphasizes quantification of gathering and analyzing of data. They also explain that a quantitative method focuses on the gathering of numerical data and that the relationship between theory and research is of a deductive sort.

The quantitative method therefore allows generalizations and statistical analysis to be made. For these reasons we have chosen to adopt a quantitative research method. A qualitative research method would provide a deeper insight of gathered data than a quantitative research method; in addition it gives more descriptive and more detailed answers. However the qualitative research method is limited as it makes it harder to do a generalization with a larger sample. Thus we thought a quantitative research method was more suitable (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

We chose to conduct an anonymous survey for a number of reasons. Firstly, given the limited amount of time an anonymous survey allowed us to gather a significant amount of responses in a short period of time. Secondly, anonymous surveys eliminate the risk of losing objectivity and consistency. Furthermore the respondents have the benefit of answering sensitive questions in private without feeling exposed. However, there are negative aspects of having an anonymous survey as well. For instance there is no opportunity to further explain questions if something is not clear. In addition there is a limitation to how extensive the survey can be made without the respondents losing interest before finishing (Bryman & Bell, 2011). After weighing the positive aspects
against the negative we found that a quantitative method was still the most suitable for this thesis.

4.2 Sample

4.2.1 Population and sample
The aim of this survey is to examine university students’ expectations of future employers and determine whether the students’ nationalities impacted those expectations. In order to reach students from a wide variety of nationalities we chose to conduct a study on a group of exchange students at a selected university. We decided to extend this to four exchange university groups in order to extend the size of our study. The four international exchange student groups used in the study are from two North American and two European schools. By combining all the exchange students from these four schools we reached a total population of 565 students from countries all over the world. The exchange student groups were studying abroad during 2014, two during the fall semester and two during the spring semester. The North American schools used in the study were University of Michigan-Flint in the United States of America (Spring 2014) and Queens University in Canada (Fall 2014). The European schools included in the study were Nova Business School in Portugal (Spring 2014) and France Business School-Poitiers in France (Fall 2014).

The goal was to reach as many different nationalities as possible in order to gain a better understanding of how responses differ across nations. Since we could not reach people directly with our survey we could not control the number of respondents from each country. This however does not have a negative impact on our results since we are not looking at country-specific results. Since our population is spread out all over the world we realized that the most effective way of reaching them was through the social media network Facebook. Since each university has a Facebook group for the incoming exchange students each semester, we made our survey public on all four of these groups. Our initial plan was to only include business students in the survey, however we chose to extend the survey to all university students within these groups when we came to the realization that it had no significant impact on our research. This enabled us to reach a greater number of people of a larger national diversity.
4.2.2 Sample size
When determining the sample size necessary to conduct a reliable statistical analysis, a larger sample size increases validity of the results and therefore assures that they will be representative of the population as a whole. The size of the sample is affected by numerous factors such as time available and budget restraints (Bryman & Bell, 2011). According to Cochran, the model used to determine sample sizes consists of four variables. These four variables are t-value, p-value, q-value and d-value. We used an alpha value of 5%, which corresponds with a t-value of 1.96 according to the recommendations of Bryman and Bell. We used a default value of 0.5 for our p-value (Cochran, 1977) and therefore our q-value also equals 0.5. The p-value represents the proportion of factors in a sample that either do or do not have a certain characteristic. The q-value however is simply computed by (1 − p-value). The d-value represents the acceptable margin of error and since this study is designed to examine patterns we chose to use a d-value of 10%. If we had used a d-value of for instance 5%, that would have decreased our margin of error. However it would also have required us to increase our sample size (Bartlett, 2001). Our population size is 565, the total amount of incoming exchange students in the conducted study.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Values: } & \quad t\text{-value} = 1.96 \quad p\text{-value} = 0.5 \quad q\text{-value} = 0.5 \quad d\text{-value} = 0.10 \quad \text{Population} = 565 \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
n_o &= \frac{t^2 \times pq}{d^2} = \frac{1.96^2 \times 0.5 \times 0.5}{0.10^2} = 96.04
\end{align*}
\]

Cochran’s sample size formula, which is illustrated above, where \( n_o \) indicates the minimum sample required, can only be used when \( n_o \) does not exceed 5% of the total population. Since our sample exceeds that percentage (565*0.05 = 28.25 %) we therefore had to use Cochran’s correction formula. As seen the calculation below, the formula gives us a required minimum sample size of 83. The value is rounded up to 83 due to fact that it is not acceptable to fall below the calculated value.
\[
\frac{n_1}{n_0} = \frac{96.04}{1 + \left( \frac{96.04}{565} \right)} = 82.09 \approx 83
\]

4.3 Examined factors
Our research question is examining whether Hofstede’s cultural dimensions, the masculinity factor in particular, affect university students’ expectations of perceived organizational support and work-life balance from their first employer. In order to test this we needed to find suitable frameworks to define each of those concepts. In this section each of the concepts are defined and their relevance is explained.

4.3.1 Masculinity
The masculinity factor in Hofstede’s dimensions is based of a so-called Masculinity Index (MAS index). The index is based of 14 work goals that together make up a score between 0 and 100. A high score of up to 100 indicates a very masculine country and a low score of down to 0 indicates a very feminine country. A score below 50 is defined as more feminine and a score above 50 is defined as more masculine. Using this definition we have been able to categorize respondents depending on what country they are from and what MAS index score that country has. Therefore two subgroups will be formed, one with the respondents from a country with a score lower than 50 (feminine countries) and one with the respondents from a country scoring above 50 (masculine countries) (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010).

4.3.2 Perceived organizational support
After completing our theoretical framework on perceived organizational support (POS), we found that using a scale to measure POS that was created by Professor Eisenberger himself would be most suitable considering his recognition and experience in this field. In much of his research either an 8-piece model or a more extensive 36-piece model is used to determine a respondent’s level of POS. Since this is a smaller survey we chose to use the 8-piece model as the foundation of our survey questions. In appendix 1 you find the 8-piece model in its original form without any modifications as it was used in Eisenberger’s, Huntington’s research. In order to assure that as many respondents as possible would take time and finish the survey we concluded that five questions per variable was the suitable amount for our survey. The three questions that were excluded
were done so because they were similar to some of the other questions and did therefore not make a significant difference to our survey as a whole. In addition to excluding three questions from our survey we also had to slightly alter the statements so they would suit our purpose. In essence that means that we made them more suitable for a respondent to evaluate how well they fitted with their own expectations.

4.3.3 Work-life balance
Our survey questions for the work-life balance variable are based on a study that examines the relations between three aspects of work culture (Clark, 2001). After completing our theoretical framework we came to the conclusion that her article was the most suitable to use as a base for our survey questions. The nature of her survey was similar to the objective of our survey. One of the main benefits of using existing survey questions is that the questions are reliable, since the original author has validated them.

We based our questions on the following factors, Temporal Flexibility (flexibility of working hours), Operational Flexibility (flexibility of work itself) and Supportive Supervision. Clark examined how these aspects are affected by individuals’ ability to balance work and family. Clark explains that temporal flexibility signifies the level of influence employees have over their work schedule. Operational flexibility can be seen as the extent to which employees can control their conditions at work. This also involves the ability to decide how the work is done without excessive monitoring and regulations. The third factor is supportive supervision, which ultimately demonstrates the organization’s support for individuals with family responsibilities. In Appendix 2 you see that Clark had 5 questions under Temporal Flexibility, 3 under Supportive Supervision and 5 under Operational flexibility. However, we chose to include only 5 of those questions in our study due to the limitation in size of our survey. We chose one question from temporal flexibility, two from supportive supervision and two from operational flexibility. The survey questions in Clark’s study were asked to current employees but since our respondents are students we slightly modified each question, to better suit our purpose (Clark, 2001).
4.4 Survey

4.4.1 Survey structure
We conducted our survey online using a web-based questionnaire. We used SurveyMonkey as the platform for our survey and we made the link available to all people in the four exchange groups. In order to receive responses from the right demographic of people we promoted the survey in carefully chosen social media groups. In addition to the 10 questions related to the two variables (work-life balance and perceived organizational support) we also added three questions regarding demographics. They were gender, occupation and most importantly country of origin. The last question was the basis for further analysis regarding the MAS index. The other two questions were there for several different reasons, however mainly to better understand the nature of our sample. We made the decision to put these demographic questions in the end of the survey with the intention of not taking away focus from the main questions. We chose to exclude age and marital status from the survey since we selected a segment of society for our sample that is very homogenous on those points. Since the differences among the group in those areas are so small, it had no impact on the sample as a whole.

For the 10 main questions we constructed our survey by using statements and each statement was followed by a Likert scale where the respondents were asked to choose between five options, ranging from Strongly agree to Strongly disagree (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986). The advantage of using closed questions is that they can easily be coded and transferred into numerical values and that makes them more suitable for statistical analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

4.4.2 Survey statement questions- Perceived organizational support

1. The organization will care about my well-being.
2. My organization will care about my general satisfaction at work.

Statement one and two are designed to examine the level of perceived supervisor support, which is a part of the general perceived organizational support. The respondents’ expectations of support from a supervisor will determine if they give a higher score, indicating more expected support and a lower score indicating less expected support.
3. My organization will not appreciate any extra effort from me.
This statement is constructed to evaluate the respondents’ expectations of rewards and job conditions. If the respondents believe that extra effort will be rewarded appropriately they will indicate a higher level of perceived organizational support. This is a reversed question and therefore a higher score indicates less expected perceived organizational support.

4. The organization will ignore any complaint from me.
In this statement, the respondents are asked to evaluate how much input and general voice they believe they will have from their future employer. This is a reversed question and therefore a high score indicates a low level of expected future perceived organizational support.

5. The organization will take pride in my accomplishments at work.
This statement is constructed to evaluate the respondents’ expectations of rewards and job conditions. If the respondents believe that doing a good job will be rewarded appropriately they will indicate a higher level of perceived organizational support. Therefore a higher score indicates more perceived organizational support.

4.4.3 Survey statement questions- Work-life balance

6. There will be no flexibility in my schedule, my supervisor will control my working hours.
In this statement, temporal flexibility is examined by how much influence the respondents believe they have over working hours and general schedule. This is a reversed question where a high answer indicates a low expectation of future work-life balance.

7. My supervisor will understand my family needs.
8. My supervisor will acknowledge that I have obligations as a family member.
In these two statements, supportive supervision is examined by how the respondents value their expectation of support from their future supervisor. In this statement family
can be interpreted as both future family, such as spouse and children as well as current family, such as parents and siblings. The scale indicates that a high score means that the respondents’ have high expectations of future work-life balance and so on.

9. I will be in charge of my activities at work.
10. I will have a say in what goes on at work.

In these two statements, operational flexibility is examined by the extent to which the respondents believe they will be in control of their own conditions at work. Thus a high score indicates a belief in more control over work-conditions and a low score indicates a belief in less control over work-conditions.

4.4.4 Survey respondents
After sending out our survey to the entire population via Facebook and having the survey open for 5 days we received a total of 105 responses. Since we already exceeded the minimum necessary sample size we did not need to send out any reminders or find new ways of reaching our population.

4.5 Reliability and validity
According to Bryman and Bell, reliability relates to the question whether the results from a survey would be the same if the study was to be made again. By that definition it debates whether the results are just a random outcome or consistent. In order to test the internal reliability of our gathered data, we performed a Cronbach alpha test, which will be presented in chapter 6. Since we chose to conduct our survey with a sample size of 18.6 % of the entire population we can claim that is representable with an error margin of 10 %. We can however not claim that our results will be applicable on entire cultural societies. According to Bryman and Bell, a web-based survey reduces the risk of human interference influencing the results and for that reason can increase reliability (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

One of the main reasons for using already existing survey questions for measuring our variables was to ensure that our survey questions would be valid. If we had chosen to write our own questions we might have been able to aim our results closer to our main purpose. However this would have given us a new set of problems, which would include
validating the questions used in the survey. By using the existing questions we could then be certain they relate to our variables (Bryman & Bell, 2011).
5. Hypotheses

In this chapter our hypotheses are presented. They were constructed using the empirical literature, which can be found in chapter 3.

The two hypotheses are constructed using Hofstede’s Masculinity Index as a foundation for examination. The two variables are then tested in one hypothesis each.

1) University students from a masculine society value expected perceived organizational support lower than students from a feminine society.

2) University students from a masculine society value expected work-life balance lower than students from a feminine society.
6. Results

This chapter is dedicated to present the results we received through our survey.

6.1 Internal reliability (Cronbach alpha)

According to Bryman and Bell, Cronbach alpha is commonly used to measure internal reliability. The measurement is used to calculate the mean of the reliability coefficient using a split half method, hence it randomly divides the questions in two groups which are compared to each other. The alpha coefficient varies between 1 (perfect internal reliability) and 0 (no internal reliability) and scores above 0.7 are defined as reliable (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

We conducted 4 Cronbach alpha tests, one for each variable, divided between respondents from masculine countries versus respondents from feminine countries. All Cronbach alpha results from SPSS can be found in appendix 3 and will be discussed below. The first Cronbach alpha test was regarding the perceived organizational support variable from feminine country respondents. We received a score of 0.68, which is slightly below the 0.7 limit. When conducting the same test on the respondents from masculine countries, we received a score of 0.63, which is also slightly below the 0.7 limit.

For the work-life balance variable we also conducted a Cronbach alpha analysis to verify the internal reliability. Firstly we conducted the test on all respondents from feminine countries and received a score of 0.83, which means that it falls above the lower limit of 0.7 for internal reliability. We also conducted the Cronbach alpha test for respondents from masculine countries and then received a score of 0.77, which verifies the internal reliability for this category.

6.2 General overview

We received a total of 105 responses out of our population of 565 students. This gave us a response rate of almost 19 %, which exceeded our minimum required sample size of 83. The gender distribution is demonstrated in the graph below and it shows a frequency of 76 % female respondents and 24 % male respondents.
The respondents came from a total of 27 countries, from 6 continents (Africa, Asia, Europe, North America, South America, Oceania). See appendix 4 for extensive list of responding countries. The distribution of respondents from feminine countries versus masculine countries is shown in the graph below and as can be seen there were 59 % respondents from masculine countries and 41 % respondents from feminine countries.

**Country of origin**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>59%</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the frequency tables below, an overview of the distribution among respondents is given. There was an overrepresentation of female respondents (76 %) and an underrepresentation of male respondents (24 %). A seen in frequency table 1 below, the distribution between masculine and feminine responding countries among men was relatively even (46 % -54 %). There was however a slight overrepresentation of masculine country responses.
Frequency table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Feminine country of origin</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>46 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine country of origin</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>54 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in frequency table 2 below, the distribution between feminine and masculine responding countries was uneven (39 % - 61 %). There was an overrepresentation of masculine responding countries among female respondents.

Frequency table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Feminine country of origin</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>39 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine country of origin</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>61 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The survey included three questions of a descriptive nature. The two first are presented above (gender and country of origin), however the third included current occupation. It was used to confirm that all respondents were still students (all other occupations would have been excluded from the survey), this was however not necessary since all respondents stated themselves as students.

6.3 Perceived organizational support

The first five questions in our survey were related to the perceived organizational support variable. In the table below the overall mean is presented to the far left, the mean of all respondents from masculine countries is presented in the middle column and to the right the mean of all respondents from feminine countries. A deeper analysis is given below.
**Table 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement questions</th>
<th>Overall Mean</th>
<th>Masculine Country Mean</th>
<th>Feminine Country Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The organization will care about my well-being.</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>4.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My organization will care about my general satisfaction at work.</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>4.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My organization will not appreciate any extra effort from me.</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>4.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organization will ignore any complaint from me.</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>4.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organization will take pride in my accomplishments at work.</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>4.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To begin with, looking at the overall means that are shown in the table above, they all exceeded a score of three (neither agree nor disagree), which indicates that the respondents have a positive expectation of future perceived organizational support. When looking at the table one can observe that question 1 and 4 received a mean of over 4 (Moderately agree), which are the highest means of the survey. The first question explored future expectations for how the organization would care about the employees’ well-being. The fourth question was a reversed question where the respondents were asked about their future expectations on organizations ignoring complaints from them as employees.

When looking at the columns in the middle and to the right we observe a difference in means between the groups. This shows that the respondents from feminine countries consistently answered the survey with higher scores than respondents from masculine countries. The largest difference in means was observed in question 2, which studied the
expectations of the level of care that organizations will take regarding general satisfaction for the employee, where the difference between country groups was 0.49.

6.4 Work-life Balance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement questions</th>
<th>Overall Mean</th>
<th>Masculine Country Mean</th>
<th>Feminine Country Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There will be no flexibility in my schedule, my supervisor will control my working hours.</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My supervisor will understand my family needs.</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>3.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My supervisor will acknowledge that I have obligations as a family member.</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>3.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will be in charge of my activities at work.</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will have a say in what goes on at work.</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When looking at the table above and specifically the overall means, which are shown in the column to the left, they all exceeded a score of three (neither agree nor disagree), which indicates that the respondents have a positive expectation of future work-life balance. The highest overall mean for this variable was given in question 9 with a mean of 3.79. This statement related to whether the respondents believed that they would be in charge of their activities at work.
When looking at the columns in the middle and to the right we observe a difference in means between the groups. This shows that the respondents from feminine countries consistently answered the survey with higher scores than respondents from masculine countries. The largest difference in means was observed in question 10, which examined whether the respondents expected that they will have a say in what goes on at work, where the difference between country groups was 0.45.

6.5 T-test analysis

Corinthas and Black explain a t-test as the process where population means are compared. It is most commonly used with small sample sizes with two sample groups, a normal distribution and unknown variance. When conducting a t-test, the t-statistic, t-distribution and degrees of freedom are used to determine a p-value, which will reveal if the population means differ. A result where the p-value is below 0.05 signifies that the difference is statistically significant. This test can therefore be used to test hypotheses (Corinthas & Black, 2012).

In order to perform a t-test on our sample size we needed to categorize the group according to masculine country of origin and feminine country of origin. We also had to separate the responses according to the variable examined. The first t-test was performed on the perceived organizational support variable and the result was a p-value of 0.007363, which is significantly below the value of 0.05. This therefore verifies the difference in means that we found when comparing the two sample groups.

The second variable tested was work-life balance where we obtained a result of p-value equal to 0.020652, which is also significantly below 0.05. The two results can therefore be used to verify that our survey results are significant. An analysis of this test and what it signifies will be provided in the analysis.
7. Analysis and Discussion

This chapter is aimed to analyze and discuss the results that were presented in the previous chapter.

7.1 General overview

The masculinity dimension is meant to define concepts of masculinity and femininity in a society. As Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov state, countries with a high masculinity score value work goals such as earnings, advancement and recognition whilst feminine countries value work goals such as manager relationships, cooperation and employer security. When applying these values to our two variables (perceived organizational support, work-life balance) a clear difference in mentality can be detected. These two variables will be analyzed according to the result in the following two sections below. Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov distinguishes the feminine countries from the masculine by using s scale from 0-100, where zero is absolute femininity and 100 is absolute masculinity. The line between the two is drawn at 50 where a country is defined as neutral. When looking at our results we found that 59 % of our respondents came from countries with a score above 50 and therefore fell into the category of masculine countries. 41 % of our respondents came from countries with a score of below 50 and therefore fall into the category of feminine countries (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010).

7.2 Perceived organizational support

Our hypothesis for this variable was that university students from a masculine society value expected perceived organizational support lower than students from a feminine society. The hypothesis is based on work goals that are stated by Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, hence feminine countries should have higher expectations of perceived organizational support from their future employer.

Overall for the five questions related to perceived organizational support, we received a mean value above 3.0, which indicates that the respondents have a positive expectation perceived organizational support. This includes respondents from both feminine and masculine countries.
The highest mean for this variable was question 4, receiving a mean of 4.10. This question relates to what Eisenberger and Rhoades state regarding perceived organizational support. Hence it proves that the students expect to be recognized and not ignored when voicing a complaint (Eisenberger & Rhoades, 2002). The lowest mean for this variable was question 2, with a mean of 3.80. Eisenberger and Rhoades state that the employee’s general satisfaction at work, which question 2 relates to, is an important part of perceived organizational support. Even though this was the lowest mean for the perceived organizational support variable, it was still significantly above 3, which shows that the overall expectation is still positive.

Using the t-test analysis we were able to confirm that there is a statistical difference \( p-value = 0.007362897 \) between respondents from masculine countries and respondents from feminine countries within our sample. This result can therefore be used to confirm our hypothesis regarding perceived organizational support, that university students from a masculine society value perceived organizational support lower than students from a feminine society.

The Cronbach alpha result regarding this variable fell slightly below the 0.7 limit and therefore further studies will need to be made to completely secure that these results are valid.

7.3 Work-life balance
Our hypothesis for this variable was that university students from a masculine society value expected work-life balance lower than students from a feminine society. We based this hypothesis from the work goals that Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov stated and that are mentioned above. According to this, feminine countries should have higher expectations of work-life balance from their future employer (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov). Overall for the five questions related to work-life balance, we received a mean value above 3.0, which indicates that the respondents have a positive expectation of work-life balance. This includes respondents from both feminine and masculine countries. This corresponds with Sturges and Guest who claim that younger people stress the importance between finding balance between working and living more than previous generations (Sturges & Guest, 2004).
The question with the highest mean within the work-life balance variable was question 9 regarding control of activities at work. This result conforms to Taylor’s research that states that an essential requirement for achieving and maintaining work-life balance is that employees have control and a say over conditions at work. It is a vital factor in both improving employee motivation and reducing stress (Taylor, 2002). Question 6 regarding temporal flexibility, essentially working long hours in order to achieve success, received the lowest overall mean among the five questions in this variable. This can be explained according to Sturges and Guest as a result of the concern that young employees feel for their career and therefore are willing to work long hours to show commitment (Sturges & Guest, 2004).

Using the t-test analysis we were able to confirm that there is a statistical difference ($p = 0.020651716$) between respondents from masculine countries and respondents from feminine countries within our sample. This result can therefore be used to confirm our hypothesis regarding work-life balance that university students from a masculine society value expected work-life balance lower than students from a feminine society.

### 7.4 Limitations and Discussion

After completing the analysis of our results and proving our hypotheses, it is important to state that there are limitations to what we have achieved. To begin with there was an overrepresentation of female respondents as well as respondents from masculine countries. Even though the results are calculated using means, the results are still slightly impacted by the fact that there is an uneven distribution among respondents. This is due to not being able to reach our respondents directly, and thereby being able to control the size of each sample group. Having an even distribution would have made our results slightly more reliable since the sample sizes would have been the same.

Secondly, the Cronbach alpha result regarding perceived organizational support fell slightly below the 0.7 lower limit. Consequently the results from this variable have to be viewed with this in consideration.

Our third limitation was the distribution of our sample size among countries. For instance we received 16 responses from the United States of America, compared to only one response from Nigeria. Even though our study is not aimed to look at individual
differences among countries, a more even distribution would have provided a deeper understanding and more nuanced view of the results.

Our fourth limitation regards our chosen method of research. A qualitative method would have given us an in-depth understanding of our sample and provided opportunity for a deeper insight. We however claim that a quantitative method is still more suitable for our purpose since it gives us a more generalized view.

Our final limitation was our sample size. Given that this study aims to look at cultural differences on an international level, a larger sample size is always preferable. However, we consider that the size of our sample is appropriate for the extent of our study.
8. Conclusion

The final chapter gives an overall summation of our results and connects them to our purpose.

8.1 Main findings

Given the population of 565 students, our sample size of 105 is sufficient for us to draw conclusions for the population as a whole. It is however important to clarify that it does not mean that these conclusions are applicable on entire cultural groups. Even though these results may be a good indication of cultural mentalities and patterns it does still not represent entire countries.

We examined the impact that cultural mentalities have on perceived organizational support and work-life balance for students about to enter into the workforce. Thus our aim was to gain a better understanding of students’ expectations when preparing for their first job after graduation. The foundation for this study was Hofstede’s cultural dimensions, which was used throughout the research as a tool of assessment. The two variables (work-life balance and perceived organizational support) were then used as a concrete measurement of expectations for future work-life. Five questions for each variable was used to measure the respondents’ expectations and the score for each variable was then combined in order to receive a total score.

Our results revealed a positive outlook among the majority of students when examining perceived organizational support and work-life balance. Using several tools for our analysis we were able to confirm that there are differences in mentality depending on what country you are from (masculine country or feminine country).

8.2 Research question

Does a masculine versus feminine society affect university students’ expectations of future employers regarding work-life balance and perceived organizational support?
In our main findings we concluded that within our population there is a significant difference in students’ mentality between masculine and feminine countries when examining perceived organizational support and work-life balance. This statement can therefore clearly confirm that cultural dimensions indeed do influence students’ expectations of work-life balance and perceived organizational support. Even though the difference in mean was not always great for every question, the respondents from feminine societies did consistently rank their expectations higher than respondents from masculine societies.

8.3 Further studies

One of the limitations we previously mentioned was that the distribution between respondents from different countries was not completely even. If further studies would be made on this topic a larger sample size with an even distribution among countries would increase applicability and reliability. A possible way to extend this study would be to include other cultural dimensions (such as the ones mentioned in the theoretical framework) and measure their influence on the two variables. Another potential foundation for further studies would be to change the sample group from students to people who are already out in the workforce to see if they have the same mentality. In addition it would also be interesting to do a follow up study to examine whether the students’ expectations corresponded with reality after they have entered into the workforce.
9. References


Appendix 1

Original 8-piece model for perceived organizational support, created by professor Eisenberger.

1. The organization values my contribution to its well-being.
3. The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. (R)
7. The organization would ignore any complaint from me. (R)
9. The organization really cares about my well-being.
17. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice. (R)
21. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.
23. The organization shows very little concern for me. (R)
27. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.
Appendix 2

Original 13-piece model for work-life balance, created by professor Campbell Clark.

Temporal Flexibility

1. I am able to arrive and depart from work when I want.
2. I am free to work the hours that are best for my schedule.
3. There is no flexibility in my schedule. (reverse coded)
4. It is O.K. with my employer if I work at home.
5. I would easily take a day off or work, if I wanted to.

Supportive Supervision

1. My supervisor understands my family demands.
2. My supervisor listens when I talk about my family.
3. My supervisor acknowledges that I have obligations as a family member.

Operational Flexibility

1. Others direct my activities at work. (reverse-coded)
2. I can choose what I do at work.
3. I am in charge of my activities at work.
4. I determine where I place my time and energies at work.
5. I have a say in what goes on at work.
### Appendix 3

**Cronbach alpha results- Feminine countries, Perceived organizational support**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items</th>
<th>N of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.684</td>
<td>.696</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Cronbach alpha results- Masculine countries, Perceived organizational support**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
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<th>N of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.625</td>
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**Cronbach alpha results- Feminine countries, Work-life balance**

<table>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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Cronbach alpha results - Masculine countries, Work-life balance

<table>
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<tbody>
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</table>
Appendix 4

List of respondents’ countries of origin, categorized by each countries’ MAS-index score.

**Masculine countries**
Japan (95)
Austria (79)
Switzerland (70)
Mexico (69)
Ireland (68)
Germany (66)
United Kingdom (66)
Colombia (64)
Poland (64)
United States of America (62)
Australia (61)
Nigeria (60)
Hong Kong (57)
India (56)
Belgium (54)
Canada (52)

**Feminine countries**
Singapore (48)
Turkey (45)
France (43)
Vietnam (40)
Russia (36)
Portugal (31)
Finland (26)
Slovenia (19)
Denmark (16)
Netherlands (14)
Sweden (5)