

Work–Life Balance Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment: Moderating Role of Employees’ Cultural Values

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ABSTRACT

This paper examined the moderating role of cultural values on relationships between work–life balance satisfaction (WBS) and employee’s organisational commitment (OC) for example affective commitment (AC), continuance commitment (CC), and normative commitment (NC). A total of 1594 employees of Bharat Sanchar Nigam Limited, a Government of India Public Sector Undertaking, providing telecommunication services and practising uniform HR practices across India participated in this study. It was found that WBS is positively related to OC (AC, CC and NC); and relationship is moderated by employees’ cultural values at individual level. The form of moderation reveals a positive significant effect on relationship between WBS and NC for employees high in individualism/collectivism, low in masculinity/femininity and power distance. However, no significant moderating effect has been observed on relationship between WBS and OC (AC, CC and NC) for employee having low or high uncertainty avoidance.

Keywords: Human resource management, HR practices, Organisational behaviour, Work–life balance satisfaction, Cultural values, Organisational commitment

INTRODUCTION

The increasing trend towards globalisation of business activities provides a compelling reason for understanding the cultural context of employees’ behaviour. Organisations operating in a multi-ethnic country or involved in international ventures across cultural boundaries need to be particularly sensitive in understanding influence of the cultural context in the study of employees’ satisfaction with human resource management (HRM) practices and organisational commitment (OC).

Since Hofstede (1980b) published his seminal work on cultural dimensions of work values, the interest of researchers have increased to study impact of culture on organisational performance (Singh and Mohanty, 2011; Francesco and Chen, 2000). Initially, the cultural concept was applied at the societal level, but more recent research

work has been concerned with measuring cultural aspects of behaviour at the individual level (Maznevski and DiStefano, 1995).

Many established theories and practices of management were developed in western countries, particularly in the United States; however, there is evidence that because the dominant cultures in other countries differ markedly from that in the United States, not all of these theories apply universally (Hofstede, 1980c).

When the cultural heterogeneity within a country is large, the terms – national culture or national character – improperly describe the true cultural characteristics of the individuals in the country due to wide variations and exceptions to the national character (Yoo *et al.*, 2001). The concept of intra-national cultural variation unveils the reality that very few national cultures are homogeneous, and that different subcultures within a

country may reflect the substantial differences among its people in terms of characteristics and behaviours (Lenartowicz and Roth, 2001).

India is a federated country having differences in language, law, education, societal culture, and so forth, showing regional differences. Organisations operating in a multi-ethnic country like India or involved in international ventures across cultural boundaries need to be particularly sensitive to the cultural diversity of their employees because employees' satisfaction with HRM practices impacts their OC [affective commitment (AC)] (Kinnie *et al.*, 2005; Kooij *et al.*, 2010). A number of studies have noted weaknesses of analysing employment practices through management eyes and called for greater focus on employee perceptions of HRM (Marchington and Grugulis, 2000; Guest, 2002; Grant and Shields, 2002). All these reinforce the needs for research to focus on employee perceptions of HR practices as experienced by them (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004) and suggest that employee reciprocation will be related to the utility of particular HR practice to them. Thus, it is important to study causal accounts in a context of OC, because some action can be quite simple and cost-effective for managing employee's perceptions about HRM practices.

Work-life balance is defined as 'satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home with a minimum of role conflict' (Clark, 2000). Work-life balance policies and practices ease the reconciliation of both dimensions of workers' lives and influence OC (Silva *et al.*, 2015). A mismatch between family and work roles can be disadvantageous for ever-increasing numbers of workers bearing major responsibilities at home and meeting higher job expectations and heavier demands at work (Glass and Finley, 2002; Lieke *et al.*, 2012). Conflict can arise if employees might work so hard that they hardly have time for off-work duties related with domestic responsibilities.

This conflict has been in the focus of researchers for several decades; surprisingly, little is known about the influence of different **cultural values** on work-life balances and imbalances (Georgellis and Lange, 2007), and the possible effect of cultural values on work-life balance remains under-addressed. We have proposed a model using Hofstede's framework of cultural dimensions, and individual level cultural values construct developed by Dorfman and Howell's (1988) is depicted in Figure 1.

This study aims to extend existing research by investigating the role of employees' cultural value orientation on

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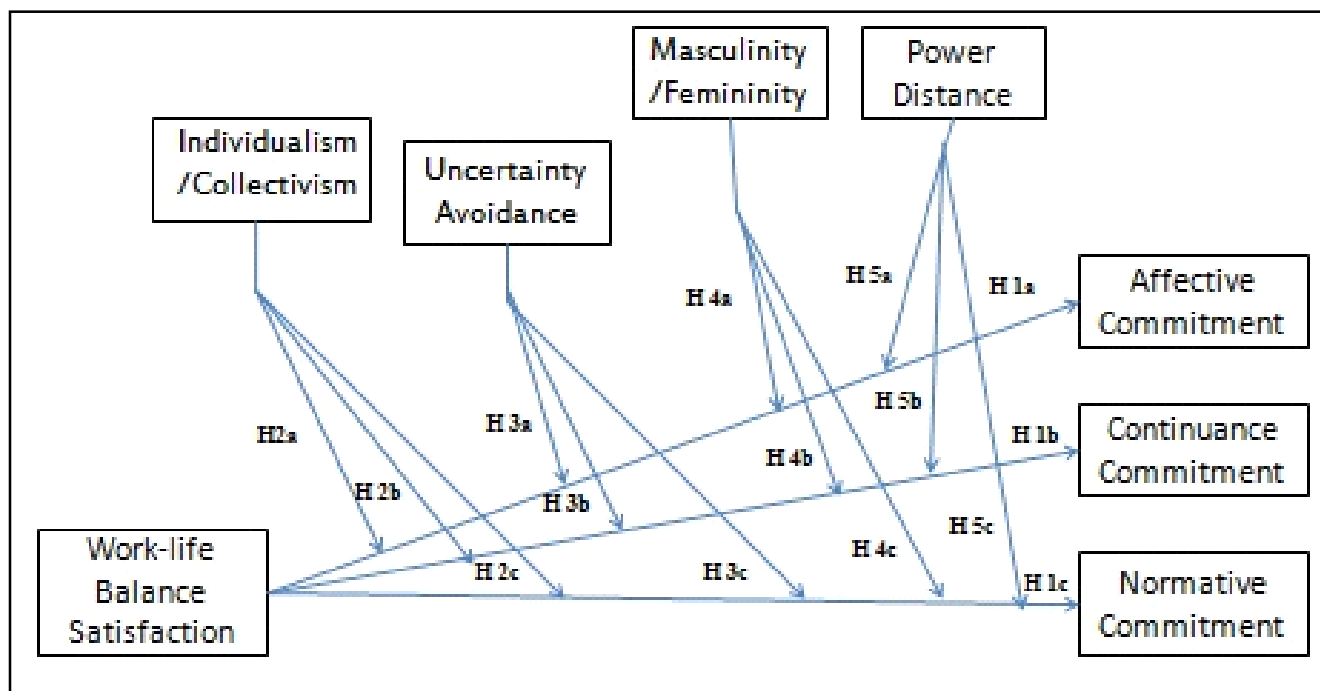


Figure 1: Hypothesised relationships for work-life balance

relationship between work–life balance satisfaction (WBS) and OC. It assists managers to adapt, refine and operationalise effective work–life balance practices and policies in a cross-cultural HRM context. Thus, this study represents a bridge to previous HRM research literature and study of cultural values, and contributes both theoretically and empirically to the literature by examining relationship between employees’ satisfaction with ‘work–life balance practice’ (one of the important HRM practices) and OC [AC, continuance commitment (CC) and normative commitment (NC)] and moderating role of employee’s cultural values on the said relationship.

THEORITICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

In the last decade, researchers have given more focus towards employee perception towards HR practices and concluded that employee perception of HRM can give insight how HRM can contribute to organisational outcomes (Riet, 2011). Prior research at the individual level of analysis supports the notion that the management practices of an organisation influence individual employee feelings of commitment (e.g. Konovsky and Cropanzano, 1991; Meyer and Allen, 1997).

Kinnie *et al.* (2005) state that HRM policies can add value to the organisation when employees are satisfied with HR practices. By investing in HR satisfaction organisations attempt to influence attitudes and behaviour of employees in a positive way. Crucial is whether and to what extent employees are aware and experience HR practices. This awareness depends on the perception of the practices and the way employees interpret the HR practices (Riet, 2011).

Wright *et al.* (1994) viewed human resource practices as the means through which employee perceptions, attitudes and behaviours are shaped. Employees’ satisfaction can be seen as an important predictor of discretionary behaviours like innovative behaviour, as theory suggests that whether employees give their efforts whole heartedly to the organisation and produce up to their potential depends to a large part on the way they feel about their job and work environment (Scott and Bruce, 1994).

According to the ‘values as moderators’ framework, Oishi *et al.* (1999) and Chen *et al.* (2008) have asserted that

not all employees react to the same incentive in the same way as there are different values which impact on employees’ work behaviour (Hofstede, 1984). So, research based on the values-as-moderators framework has helped reach a better understanding of different employees’ attitudes and behaviour for example subjective well-being (Oishi *et al.*, 1999). So, it may be expected that the use of this framework could provide new conclusions regarding the effects of specific HR practices, such as work–life balance, on employees’ well-being in an organisation (Lucia-Casademunt *et al.*, 2015).

Employees’ Satisfaction with Work–Life Balance Practices

Work and family are two central domains in most adults’ lives; therefore, research into the links between these two domains has greatly intensified due to changes in the demographic composition of the workforce (Edwards and Rothbard, 2000), such as the entry of women, dual-earner couples and single parents (Parasuraman and Greenhaus, 1997). Accordingly, there has been an evolution in human resource research. Academics have assumed that work conditions affect employees in their domestic context, but the reverse also happens (Clark, 2000; Frone, 2003). Moreover, employers require high employee commitment, and they often assume that employees should give priority to their professional life instead of their personal life (Hughes and Bozionelos, 2007). Employees’ OC is linked distinctively to their satisfaction with work–life balance practices (Kinnie *et al.*, 2005).

The Social Identity Theory (Tajfel, 1978) proposes that individuals build different identities based on their interactions as members of specific social groups. As organisations are relevant social groups that condition an individual’s personal identity, this identity is likely to relate to work–life issues (Frone, 2003) and work–family role conflicts (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). Therefore, much of the literature on work–life issues draws on role theory (Kahn *et al.*, 1964). Specifically, work–life conflict is ‘a form of inter-role conflict in which role-pressures from work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect’ (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985, p. 77). Thus, the term work–life balance emerged to indicate employees’ needs to balance their work and life domains.

The work–life balance is defined as the balance between work and family demands, as well as the balance between work and other role expectations and responsibilities in private life for example sport, charity, education and others (Hämmig *et al.*, 2009). According to Frone (2003), work interferes with family more than the opposite. Thus, research stated the need to create and implement HRP that let employees balance personal and professional domains. These HRP are thought to benefit employees and organisations (e.g. Aryee *et al.*, 2005; Hughes and Bozionelos, 2007) and are termed work–life balance. They are based on the recognition of the relevance of both domains for employees and on the relevance of reaching a suitable ‘balance’ (Hämmig *et al.*, 2009) that minimises the conflicts between them (Clark, 2000; Lin *et al.*, 2013).

Work–life balance has taken on great relevance in HRM literature (McCarthy *et al.*, 2010) and the practices focused on this balance are considered the most relevant in organisations at present (Fleetwood, 2007). Specifically, in this study, the need for managing working hours to let employees fulfil their professional and family responsibilities is highlighted. This is very relevant in very fast-changing present lifestyle in globalised industrial environment in society, where, husband and wife both are working to meet necessities of the lifestyle and struggle to face long hours in rotating shifts and night shifts, which also extend to weekends and holidays (Harris *et al.*, 2007). The negative effect of these working conditions on work–family balance has been extensively documented by previous research (e.g. Keith and Schafer, 1980). Thus, when organisations offer work conditions satisfying employees’ work and family needs, it influences OC positively. However, the work–life balance practices implemented organisations do not always attain the desired effect. When observing the organisation, it is possible to find that HR managers and employees have different perspectives on HR practice applications (e.g. Khilji and Wang, 2006) because HR managers’ opinions on the practices being implemented can be quite different from the experience of employees with respect to such practices. So, individual differences do matter and can be relevant when studying the reasons behind employees’ satisfaction. In this respect, Samnani and Singh (2013) warn researchers about the need to gather information from those bearing the brunt of HR practices, that is, the employees. Based on the above, our research analyses the WBS at employee level.

The Relationship between ‘Work–Life Balance Satisfaction (WBS)’ and Organisational Commitment (OC)

We identify employee attitude and behavioural intention that is likely to be affected by an organisation’s work–life balance practice, that is employees’ OC. Meyer and Allen (1991) concluded that an employee’s commitment reflected a desire, need and obligation to maintain membership in an organisation. Consequently, commitment manifests itself in three relatively distinct manners:

AC refers to employees’ emotional attachment, identification with and involvement in the organisation. Employees with a strong *AC* stay with the organisation because they *want to*.

CC refers to employees’ assessment of whether the costs of leaving the organisation are greater than the costs of staying. Employees who perceive that the costs of leaving the organisation are greater than the costs of staying remain because they *need to*.

NC refers to employees’ feelings of obligation to the organisation. Employees with high levels of *NC* stay with the organisation because they feel they *ought to*.

It is the attitude of the employee which can influence work related behaviour and HR practices are the lever of employee attitude (Wright *et al.*, 2003). Wright *et al.* (1994) viewed HR practices as the means through which employee perceptions, attitudes and behaviours are shaped. HRM practices influence a number of employees’ attitudes and behaviour such as intent to leave, levels of job satisfaction and OC (Lee and Heard, 2000).

Work–life balance is about effectively managing the juggling act between paid work and all other activities that are important to people such as family, community activities, voluntary work, personal development and leisure and recreation (Dundas, 2008). Greenhaus *et al.* (2003) define work–life balance as the extent to which an individual is equally engaged in – and equally satisfied with – his or her work role and family role. Thus, employees who experience high work–life balance are those who exhibit similar investment of time and commitment, to work and non-work domains (Virick *et al.*, 2007).

Family-friendly policies are defined as any benefits and working conditions that an organisation has in place to assist an employee balance their work and life (Bardoel *et al.*, 1999). Some researchers showed the impact of family-friendly policies on employee’s turnover intention. Employees, who had access to family-friendly policies showed significantly greater OC and expressed significantly lower intention to quit their jobs (Grover and Crooker, 1995).

Availability of work–life balance practices, independent of actual use, appears to produce similarly positive results in terms of work-related attitudes. For instance, the availability of organizational resources, including flexible work hours, has been linked to job satisfaction and OC for women and for all employees with family responsibilities, regardless of whether or not these resources are being used (Nelson *et al.*, 1990; Scandura and Lankau, 1997).

Employees become strongly attached to their organisations when their needs and expectations are satisfied (Meyer *et al.*, 1993). The experience of work–life balance satisfies employees’ psychological demands to maintain the balance between work and life. Several empirical studies have supported that employees’ experience of work–life balance contributes to favourable evaluation of their organisations and AC (Muse *et al.*, 2008). Literature does not support influence of work–life balance practices on continuance and NC very explicitly. However, organisation in the context is practising uniform work–life balance practices across India, this may also influence continuance and NC, as it is important to recognise that organisations, through their management practices, can influence employees’ CC and NC as well (Meyer and Allen, 1997, p. 67). In concert with these, we hypothesise that:

Hypothesis 1a: There is a positive relationship between WBS and AC.

Hypothesis 1b: There is a positive relationship between WBS and CC.

Hypothesis 1c: There is a positive relationship between WBS and NC.

Moderating Role of Employee’s Cultural Values on the Relationship Between WBS and OC

As past research and even simple intuition suggest that when our values and priorities match the values and

priorities of a particular organisation (e.g. in the form of HRM practices); we are happier and more likely to maintain an association with that organisation (Meir and Hasson, 1982; Geare *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, a number of studies have been conducted to examine the value orientations of individuals and the impact of national culture on HR practices (e.g. Nyambegera *et al.*, 2000; Ralston *et al.*, 1997; Sparrow and Wu, 1998; Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003; Woldu *et al.*, 2013); and to better understand cultural influences on employees’ satisfaction with HR practices, it is necessary to extend the literature beyond the country boundary by connecting culture with individual level cultural values.

There have been many definitions of culture. Hofstede’s definition is most predominantly cited in organisational management studies (Michael, 1997; Smith, 1998). Hofstede (1980a) defines culture as ‘the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another’. Hofstede (1980a) initially proposed four dimensions of national culture as Inkeles and Levinson (1969) defined four basic problem areas of national culture, and Hofstede (1980a) empirically identified four dimensions of national culture: Individualism/collectivism (I/C), power distance (PD), uncertainty avoidance (UA) and masculinity/femininity (M/F), later on added long-term orientation (Hofstede and Bond, 1988), Indulgence versus Restraint (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010).

Hofstede’s (1980b) research was conducted at the ecological (country) level of analysis, and research has indicated that in addition to existing at the national level, Hofstede’s dimensions also exist at the individual level (Dorfman and Howell, 1988; Triandis *et al.*, 1988). Many researchers have applied Hofstede’s framework at individual levels (Oyserman *et al.*, 2002). One reason for doing this is that many cross-cultural explanations work both at the national and the individual levels (Leung, 1989). A high congruence between individual level and cultural-level (cross-cultural factors) analyses has been reported (Leung and Bond, 1989), indicating the generalise ability from individual level results to country is justifiable. There are a number of models of national cultures created by authors such as Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1999) and Hall (1976) but by far the most cited model in most of the cross-cultural management reviewed is that of Hofstede (1980a, 1984).

Hofstede's (1980a) framework is comprehensive and shows meaningful relationships with important demographic, geographic, economic and political indicators of a society (Kogut and Singh, 1988). Second, Hofstede's works have been confirmed empirically through replications (e.g. Shackleton and Ali, 1990) and has been heavily cited as the most important and popular theory of culture types (Sondergaard, 1994; Sivakumar and Nakata, 2001).

Despite the fact that Hofstede's cultural work has received criticism, his work is still one of the most widely used in cross-cultural studies. To overcome the criticism, only Hofstede's (1980a) frame work has been adopted in this paper to study individual level cultural values of employees, using constructs developed by Dorfman and Howell (1988), because they extended this line of inquiry by developing scales assessing all four of Hofstede's dimensions of I/C, PD, UA and M/F at the individual level.

Individualism/collectivism (I/C): The fundamental issue addressed by this dimension is *the degree of interdependence a society maintains among its members*. It has to do with whether people's self-image is defined in terms of 'I' or 'We'. In individualist societies, people are supposed to look after themselves and their direct family only. In collectivist society's people belong to 'in groups' that take care of them in exchange for loyalty (Hofstede, 1980a).

The family continues to be one of the basic units of Indian society.

... Help of family members and friends is often sought, and provided, in dealing with personal problems and crises. (Chhokar, 1999)

The ability to balance one's work and family lives is a more important in individualistic cultures than in collectivistic cultures. This is consistent with prior literature which has posited that work-family conflict is less likely in collectivistic cultures because hard work is seen as a means to increase the well-being of the family (Aryee *et al.*, 1999; Grzywacz, *et al.*, 2007; Yang *et al.*, 2000), and hard work is seen as integral to family well-being, experiencing work-family conflict is less likely to be perceived as stressful (Spector *et al.*, 2004), and work-life balance practices may not affect OC (AC, CC and NC) of employee with high collectivist cultural values.

Research studies have supported the notion that in collectivistic societies, family perceive that work activities are in support of their welfare activities leading to less conflict. Individuals in individualistic cultures might benefit from this knowledge. In particular, if individuals are able to alter their own perceptions of work-life balance and instead adopt a more collectivistic approach to work-family conflict by viewing work as contributing to the well-being of the family, it may reduce the incidence of work-family conflict (Andreassi *et al.*, 2012) and increase OC (Poelmans and Sahibzada, 2004; Poelmans *et al.*, 2005; Lapierre *et al.*, 2008). Thus, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2a: The relationship between WBS and AC is moderated by IC.

Hypothesis 2b: The relationship between WBS and CC is moderated by IC.

Hypothesis 2c: The relationship between WBS and NC is moderated by IC.

Uncertainty avoidance (UA): The dimension uncertainty avoidance has to do with the way that a society deals with the fact that the future can never be known: should we try to control the future or just let it happen? This ambiguity brings with it anxiety and different cultures have learnt to deal with this anxiety in different ways. *The extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations and have created beliefs and institutions that try to avoid these* is reflected in the score on uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 1980a).

In India,

Attempts to reduce the unpredictability of future events are quite common.

... Religious beliefs and practices arising out of them are a major source of attempts to reduce uncertainty of the future.

(Chhokar, 1999)

The desire to avoid taking risks prevents employees from carrying out actions to reach short-term benefits in case they could lead to risky situations in the future (García-Cabrera and García-Soto, 2011). They will not freely miss work to solve personal and family issues if such an absence is not formally accepted by the HR practices of work-

life balance, and so employee well-being will decline. Instead, they need norms formally provided by work–life balance HR practices to be able to take this time off during work hours to resolve or care for personal or family issues. So, in the cases of cultural values of high UA that condition employees’ desires to avoid risks and remain in the firm, the influence that work–life balance HR practices may have on employee well-being increases in importance (Lucia-Casademunt *et al.*, 2015) and increased importance to employee well-being practices influences employees’ WBS which may lead to OC of individuals high in UA values positively.

On the other hand, when UA values are low, uncertain situations do not cause employees any anxiety so that their need for avoiding risks drops (Hofstede, 1984). In this case, the rules and norms of the authority in the firm are of minor importance for regulating and formalising employees’ actions (García-Cabrera and García-Soto, 2011), and employees could use their personal self-control and discretionary behaviour to undertake actions to balance work and family, thus increasing their perception of well-being. This is so because of the fact that their low UA values would make them comfortable with adopting a risk approach (García-Cabrera and García-Soto, 2011), and work–life balance construct may not be an effective construct affecting OC of individuals low in UA values. Thus, we propose the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 3a: The relationship between WBS and AC is moderated by UA.

Hypothesis 3b: The relationship between WBS and CC is moderated by UA.

Hypothesis 3c: The relationship between WBS and NC is moderated by UA.

Masculinity/femininity (M/F): Cultures high in masculinity have strong gender stereotypes for men and women and value material success, assertiveness, heroism and strength; feminine cultures have more overlap in the social roles of men and women and value to a greater extent quality of life, relationships, caring for the weak and modesty (Dipboye and Johnson, 2008).

A high score (masculine) on this dimension indicates that the society will be driven by competition, achievement and success, with success being defined by the winner/best in field – a value system that starts in school and

continues throughout organisational life. And a low score (feminine) on the dimension means that the dominant values in society are caring for others and quality of life. A feminine society is one where quality of life is the sign of success and standing out from the crowd is not admirable. ***The fundamental issue here is what motivates people, wanting to be the best (masculine) or liking what you do (feminine)*** (Hofstede, 1980a).

In India,

There are specific provisions in law for compensation for injuries at the work place.

... Whenever an individual suffers a personal or family tragedy, neighbours, friends and acquaintances always offer and do help.

(Chhokar, 1999)

Masculine cultures favour acquiring money and material gain (Gomez-Mejia and Welbourne, 1991; Hofstede, 1980c). Masculine cultures place a high value on money, wealth, admiration, recognition, high-level advancement (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010), competition, assertiveness, valour, material gain, meritocracy, decisiveness and strong leadership (Mercado *et al.*, 2004). Work is central in these cultures and people live to work.

In contrast, feminine cultures attach greater importance to social needs, personal relationships, caring for the weak, work–life balance, harmony, nurturing and quality of relationship (William and Zinkin, 2008).

M/F cultures differ in their values around achievement versus work–life balance. People in femininity cultures believe that they can have successful careers and have a life. In high femininity cultures, people work to live, rather than living to work. Therefore, WBS may influence OC as several studies have confirmed that work–life balance policies can increase OC (Poelmans *et al.*, 2005; Lapierre *et al.*, 2008). In concert with these findings, we hypothesise:

Hypothesis 4a: The relationship between WBS and AC is moderated by M/F.

Hypothesis 4b: The relationship between WBS and CC is moderated by M/F.

Hypothesis 4c: The relationship between WBS and NC is moderated by M/F.

Power distance (PD): This dimension deals with the fact that all individuals in societies are not equal – it expresses the attitude of the culture towards these inequalities amongst us. PD is defined 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, 1980a).

Indian society is quite structured and stratified

... There are 'powerful' families in every village, town, and city, and their power is generally accepted by most other residents'.

(Chhokar, 1999)

Hofstede (1991) suggests that members of high-PD cultures more readily accept interpersonal inequality as compared with low-PD cultures. Relative to their low-power counterparts, subordinates from high-PD cultures more readily accept managerial decisions and demands. Husted (2000) suggests, given the authority premium within high-PD cultures, it is unlikely that subordinates would question managerial intentions or efficacy: such tolerance is unlikely in low-power cultures (House *et al.*, 2004). Employees from high-power distant cultures are more likely to expect organisational and managerial support and guidance in their private lives, whereas those from individualistic and egalitarian cultures would consider this as an invasion of their privacy (Aycan, 2008), and flexible working environment they are free to adopt may lead to satisfaction and OC. This belief can influence employees' expectations of workplace flexibility for example an employee setting his/her own schedule could seem like an affront to a manager in a high-PD culture (Heinen and Mulvaney, 2008), and workplace flexibility may not influence satisfaction and OC of individuals having high-PD cultural values. In concert with these, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 5a: The relationship between WBS and AC is moderated by PD.

Hypothesis 5b: The relationship between WBS and CC is moderated by PD.

Hypothesis 5c: The relationship between WBS and NC is moderated by PD.

METHODS

Study Context

It is seen from an extensive literature review that no research has been conducted in Indian context with reference to the moderating effect of cultural values on relationship between recruitment and selection satisfaction and OC. Therefore, we would like to test the above stated hypotheses in a large PSU like 'Bharat Sanchar Nigam Limited (BSNL)', which practises uniform HRM practices across India, which is a symbolic manifestation of pluralistic India (*Reason for large organisation: There are two independent variables that is WBS and individual level cultural values, and to see impact of individual level cultural values on the relationship between WBS and OC, WBS is required to be uniform, and that necessitated study in a large organisation practising uniform HRM practices across India.*).

The research methodology advances through six basic steps. These include: the literature search; research design; selection of questionnaires; data collection and deduction; data recording and screening; quantitative data analysis and interpretation of results.

Procedure and Samples

Participants to the survey were drawn from all units of BSNL employing more than 300,000 executive/non-executive employees and practising uniform HR practices across India. Data were collected using the web-based tools (surveymonkey.com), postal mail services; distributing questionnaires at main training centres of BSNL. 10,000 questionnaires were distributed using these methods; the response rate achieved was approximately 21.09%. Out of which, 15.94% that is 1594 were found to be valid for analysis, and this was consistent with Malhotra *et al* (1996), Angur and Natarajan (1995), Porter and Whitcomb (2003) and Tingling *et al.* (2003). Further, although the response rate was small, the sample size was large enough for the analysis.

Measures

All items used were in English. All items were measured on 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree) except demographic variables, which were measured as dummy variables.

WBS

This was measured using the single item scale, adapted by Kinnie *et al.* (2005) and Purcell and Hutchinson (2007). Cronbach’s alpha for all 18 items for scale adapted by them was .877, and it stood around .872 if work–life balance item was dropped that is for work–life balance, it was better than .872. We used this questionnaire as it suited work–life balance practices being used in BSNL as generally in routine working hours are well defined and depending on assignment rotational too, a multi-item questionnaire was confusing to employees.

Cultural values

Dorfman and Howell’s (1988) cultural dimensions scales, also used by Clugston *et al.* (2000), was used to measure collectivism–individualism, UA, M/F and PD. These scales were adopted from Hofstede’s (1980b) typology of cultural dimensions and were used to capture the essence of these dimensions at the individual level (Clugston *et al.*, 2000). We used this questionnaire as it was used successfully in studies conducted successfully in India, such as Niranjana *et al.* (2013).

OC was measured on the 18 items of commitment in the workplace questionnaire by Meyer and Allen (1997). We selected this questionnaire as many studies conducted in India have used it; such as Namasivayam and Zhao (2007).

Pretest

In agreement with Zatalman and Burger (1975) and Boyd *et al.* (1977), the pretest of the measures involved checking the content validity of items using a 2-stage process. The first stage included a convenience panel of 20 executives to assess any misunderstandings or ambiguities of expression in the questionnaires. These people were asked to provide feedback on clarity, applicability and contextual relevance of items in BSNL, with a view to amend the questionnaire. In second stage, 30 executives were asked to complete the questionnaires and provide comments on such matters as instructional clarity, item clarity, relevance and time needed for completion. Both groups of respondents provided minor comments and suggestions, prior to amendment of the questionnaires.

In summary, the research instrument used in this study was based on validated scales, and as a result of pretest, a few minor changes and adjustments in the wording and structure of questions were made to ensure that questions were readily understandable to all respondents (Zikmund, 2003).

ANALYSIS OF DATA AND INTERPRETATIONS OF RESULTS

Factor Analysis

Principal component factor analysis of (a) cultural values and (b) OC with varimax rotation was performed on all multiple scale items to determine item retention. Items with loadings greater than or equal to 0.50 on the target construct were retained as long as the items did not produce a cross-loading of 0.35 or greater. The results of this analysis, details of items with factor loading and the reliability coefficients for each scale are presented in Tables 1 and 2.

Cultural Values

To evaluate the overall validity of this measure and to identify the underlying dimensions, all 22 items were entered in a factor analysis, using principal components analysis with orthogonal varimax rotation. This led to the development of the following scales: I/C, UA, M/F and PD. Cronbach’s alphas, factor names, retained items, factor loadings, communalities, eigenvalues and variance and cumulative variance explained by the factor solution are presented in Table 1.

First, the appropriateness of factor analysis was assessed. This meant checking three conditions: (1) the correlation matrix; (2) Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin overall measure of sampling adequacy and (3) Bartlett’s test of sphericity.

Factor analysis using varimax method of rotation was conducted on the 22 items representing employee’s cultural values and comprising Section I of the questionnaire. This process produced a clear rotated component matrix of 4 factors. The criteria in deciding the number of factors to be extracted were based on eigenvalues, scree plot, significance of factor loading, percentage of variance and finally assessment of structure based on theory (i.e. factors were retained when they made sense and disregarded when they became uninterpretable).

Table 1: Factor analysis results with varimax rotation of ‘cultural values’

Q. No.	Item Name	Factor Loading				Communality
		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	
Individualism/collectivism ($\alpha = 0.664$)						
Q01CV	IC 01	–	–	.497	–	.275
Q02CV	IC 02	–	–	.784	–	.619
Q03CV	IC 03	–	–	.476	–	.344
Q04CV	IC 04	–	–	.621	–	.407
Q05CV	IC 05	–	–	.651	–	.425
Q06CV	IC 06	–	–	.545	–	.326
Uncertainty avoidance ($\alpha = 0.677$)						
Q07CV	UA 01	–	.566	–	–	.389
Q08CV	UA 02	–	.573	–	–	.340
Q09CV	UA 03	–	.701	–	–	.508
Q10CV	UA 04	–	.682	–	–	.468
Q11CV	UA 05	–	.707	–	–	.507
Masculinity–femininity ($\alpha = 0.769$)						
Q12CV	M F 01	.459	–	–	–	.345
Q13CV	M F 02	.751	–	–	–	.593
Q14CV	M F 03	.772	–	–	–	.605
Q15CV	M F 04	.644	–	–	–	.504
Q16CV	M F 05	.786	–	–	–	.651
Power distance ($\alpha = .630$)						
Q17CV	P D 01	–	–	–	.492	.326
Q18CV	P D 02	–	–	–	.529	.321
Q19CV	P D 03	–	–	–	.579	.347
Q20CV	P D 04	–	–	–	.605	.419
Q21CV	P D 05	–	–	–	.540	.308
Q22CV	P D 06	–	–	–	.617	.421
Eigenvalue		3.632	2.863	1.638	1.317	–
% Variance explained		16.511	13.015	7.443	5.987	–
Cumulative variance (%)		16.511	29.526	36.969	42.956	–
Cronbach's α		.769	.677	.664	.630	–
Number of items (total = 22)		6	5	5	6	–

Organisational Commitment

The 18 items in Section 3 of the questionnaire were designed to investigate employees' OC behaviours. These items were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 'strongly disagree (1)' to 'strongly agree (5)'. Principal components analysis with orthogonal varimax rotation was used to identify the underlying dimensions. Table 2 shows the results of the factor analysis with: (1) factor

names; (2) the retained items; (3) the factor loading; (4) the communalities; (5) eigenvalues; (6) the variance and the cumulative variance explained by the factor solution and (7) Cronbach's α .

Correlation Analysis

Coetzee (2003) noted that when considering the correlation between the independent variable (WBS) and

Table 2: Factor analysis results with varimax rotation of ‘organisational commitment’

Q. No.	Item Name	Factor Loading			Communalities
		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	
Affective commitment ($\alpha = .720$)					
Q01CM	A C 01	–	.677	–	.521
Q02CM	A C 02	–	.727	–	.528
Q03CM	A C 03	–	.628	–	.422
Q04CM	A C 04	–	.510	–	.283
Q05CM	A C 05	–	.607	–	.394
Q06CM	A C 06	–	.560	–	.401
Continuance commitment ($\alpha = .762$)					
Q07CM	C C 01	.543	–	–	.423
Q08CM	C C 02	.664	–	–	.519
Q09CM	C C 03	.586	–	–	.345
Q10CM	C C 04	.644	–	–	.440
Q11CM	C C 05	.763	–	–	.608
Q12CM	C C 06	.717	–	–	.544
Normative commitment ($\alpha = .679$)					
Q13CM	N C 01	–	–	.468	.356
Q14CM	N C 02	–	–	.475	.226
Q15CM	N C 03	–	–	.666	.461
Q16CM	N C 04	–	–	.674	.489
Q17CM	N C 05	–	–	.557	.378
Q18CM	N C 06	–	–	.713	.520
Eigenvalue		4.548	1.770	1.540	
% Variance explained		25.267	9.835	8.553	
Cumulative variance (%)		25.267	35.102	43.655	
Cronbach’s α		.762	.720	.679	
Number of items (total = 18)		6	6	6	

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the dependent variables (AC, CC and NC), the larger the magnitude of the correlation, the stronger the linear association. Tsui *et al.* (1995) advise that the intercorrelations between each independent variable should be less than .75 to avoid multicollinearity problems. The correlations in this study were less than this level.

Means, standard deviations, bivariate correlations, number of items in the final scales and number of respondents are reported in Table 3. Pairwise and multivariable collinearity were inspected by collinearity diagnostics in SPSS prior to analyses. The lowest tolerance value was .73, which is far from the common cut-off threshold value of .10 (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

Hierarchical Regression Analyses

The five hypotheses were tested via multiple hierarchical regression analysis (Aiken and West, 1991). We tested Hypothesis 1, concerning the direct effect of WBS on AC, CC, and NC (Table 4, Model 3), while controlling age, gender, education, position, tenure, IC, UA, MF and PD (Table 4, Models 1 and 2).

Main effects of work–life balance satisfaction (Hypothesis 1): Table 4 (Model 3) shows that WBS had a significant, positive effect on only two of the OCs: AC ($\beta = .266, p < .001$) and CC ($\beta = .092, p < .001$). Its effect on NC was insignificant ($\beta = .044, ns$). Thus,

Table 3: Mean, standard deviation and correlation

	Mean	SD	WBS	AC	CC	NC	Age	Gen	Edu	Pos	Ten	IC	UA	MF	PD
WBS	3.44	1.02	1.00												
AC	4.06	.63	.299**	1.000											
CC	3.61	.73	.126**	.371**	1.000										
NC	3.17	.77	-.015	.155**	.064**	1.000									
Age	3.73	1.87	.015	.260**	.178**	.062**	1.000								
Gen	1.08	.28	.035	-.002	.003	.063**	-.103**	1.000							
Edu	4.59	1.22	-.068**	-.148**	-.122**	.013	-.406**	.071**	1.000						
Pos	2.66	.73	-.062**	.139**	.092**	.097**	.630**	-.054*	-.056*	1.000					
Ten	4.74	2.58	.008	.248**	.188**	.063**	.943**	-.099**	-.420**	.639**	1.000				
IC	2.04	.59	-.110**	-.202**	-.117**	.070**	-.091**	.006	.097**	-.015	-.093**	1.000			
UA	4.29	.46	.070**	.245**	.140**	.135**	.107**	.029	-.013	.064**	.106**	-.224**	1.000		
MF	2.86	.814	.136**	.062**	.120**	-.277**	.035	-.184**	-.097**	-.056*	.032	-.126**	-.044*	1.000	
PD	2.80	.655	.153**	.087**	.095**	-.336**	.053*	-.040	-.083**	-.038	.057*	-.149**	-.050*	.464**	1.00

Note: Sample Size $N = 1594$, WBS = work-life balance satisfaction, Gen = Gender, Edu = Education, Pos = Position, Ten = Tenure, IC = Individualism/Collectivism, UA = uncertainty avoidance, MF = masculinity/femininity, PD = power distance.

*Correlation is significant at the .05 level

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

The zero-order correlation between:

● WBS and AC, CC and NC were $r = .299$ ($p < .01$), $r = .126$ ($p < .01$), and $r = -.015$ ($p = ns$), respectively.

● WBS and IC, UA, MF and PD were $r = -.110$ ($p < .01$), $r = .070$ ($p < .01$), $r = .136$ ($p < .01$) and $r = .153$ ($p < .01$), respectively.

These measures appeared conceptually and empirically distinguishable.

Hypotheses 1a and 1b were supported and Hypothesis 1c found no support.

These findings indicated that availability of WBS practices has also been related to increased affective commitment and decreased turnover intentions (Chiu and Ng, 1999; Thompson et al., 1999; Wood and de Menezes, 2008) as AC is found having strong influence in this study.

Hierarchical moderated regression was used to test the moderation hypotheses (Cohen and Cohen, 1983). Interaction terms often create multicollinearity problems because of their correlations with main effects. We thus computed the interaction term by entering WBS and IC, UA, MF and PD before multiplying them with each other. In the moderated hierarchical regression analyses, the control variables and cultural variables (IC, UA, MF and PD) were entered, followed by WBS and finally the interaction term.

Hypothesis sets (2–5) are concerning the individual moderating effect of IC, UA, MF and PD, respectively. The relationship between WBS and OC (AC, CC and NC) were tested by four separate moderated regression models

(Model 4 for IC, Model 5 for UA, Model 6 for MF and Model 7 for PD). Results are shown in Table 5.

To further clarify the interaction effects of IC or UA or MF or PD, simple slopes depicting the relationships between WBS and AC or CC or NC was examined. Separate plots were drawn with the help of ModGraph (Jose, 2008), for individuals whose scores on the moderator were one standard deviation below the mean, at the mean, and one standard deviation above the mean (Aiken and West, 1991).

Moderating effects of individualism/collectivism (Hypothesis 2): Table 5 (Model 4) shows a significant moderating effect of IC on the relationship between WBS and NC. Specifically, the beta coefficient for the interaction term (IC*WBS) was statistically significant ($\beta = .080$, $p < .01$) for NC; and was statistically insignificant ($\hat{a} = -.009$, ns) for AC and ($\beta = .016$, ns) for CC. Thus, Hypothesis 2c found support, and Hypotheses 2a and 2b found no support. The positive beta weight states that relationship between WBS and NC is stronger for individuals high rather than low in IC.

Table 4: Regression results testing the direct relationship between WBS and OC (AC, CC and NC)

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	AC	CC	NC	AC	CC	NC	AC	CC	NC
Predictors	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β
Age	.236**	.005	.013	.214**	-.011	.015	.194**	-.018	.012
Gender	.027	.023	.069**	.024	.037	.031	.009	.032	.028
Education	-.044	-.045	.023	-.042	-.039	-.005	-.031	-.035	-.003
Position	-.029	-.033	.086*	-.009	-.012	.044	.011	-.005	.047
Tenure	.028	.188*	.012	.000	.172*	.032	.013	.176*	.035
IC				-.123***	-.055*	.045	-.106***	-.049	.048*
UA				.197***	.116***	.117***	.180***	.110***	.115***
MF				.022	.099***	-.140***	.000	.092**	-.144***
PD				.054*	.035	-.259***	.027	.026	-.263***
WBS							.266***	.092***	.044
R ²	.071	.039	.015	.140	.072	.154	.207	.080	.156
ΔR^2				.069	.033	.139	.067	.008	.002
ΔF	24.170	12.839	4.703	31.806	14.190	65.186	134.591	13.738	3.403
p	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.065

Note: N = 1594; WBS = work–life balance satisfaction.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

As IC is significantly related to NC ($\beta = .055, p < .05$). IC is a so-called quasi-moderator (Sharma *et al.*, 1981).

For NC, the simple slope values were, *positive and significant for high IC group*, positive and insignificant for medium IC group, and negative and insignificant for low IC group. The values were larger for the high IC group (slope = .086, $t = 3.67, p < .001$), and smaller for the low IC group (slope = -.022, $t = -.95, ns$), the medium group fell in between (slope = .031, $t = 1.78, ns$). Figure 2 presents a typical significant interaction effect for IC and its moderation of the relationship between WBS and NC.

The graph in Figure 2 shows that the relationship is positive and significant for the high IC group (slope = .086, $p < .001$), positive and insignificant for the medium IC group (slope = .031, ns); and negative and insignificant for the low IC group (slope = -.022, ns). The above results, taken together, provide support for Hypothesis 2c that is group high in IC improved relationship towards positive.

First, WBS was insignificantly and positively directly related to NC. Second, employees relatively with high I/C responded positively to the relationship between WBS and

normative OC and vice versa. These findings indicate that employees possessing more individualistic that is less collectivist, cultural values are very sensitive towards satisfaction with work–life balance at workplace as it leads to more NC and reduction in employee turnover as NC is negatively related to turnover. Thus, for reduction in employees turnover, employees’ possessing high I/C cultural values are favourable.

Moderating effects of uncertainty avoidance (Hypothesis 3)

Table 5 (Model 5) shows insignificant moderating effect of UA on the relationship between WBS and OC (AC, CC and NC). Specifically, the beta coefficient for the interaction term (UA*WBS) was statistically insignificant for AC ($\hat{a} = .027, ns$), CC ($\beta = .037, ns$) and NC ($\beta = -.006, ns$). Thus, Hypotheses 3a–3c found no support.

Moderating effects of masculinity/femininity (Hypothesis 4)

Table 5 (Model 6) shows significant moderating effect of MF on the relationship between WBS and NC and insignificant moderating effect of MF on the relationship between WBS and OC (AC and CC). Specifically, the

Table 5: Moderated regression analysis (MRA) for moderating effect of cultural values on relationship between WBS and OC (AC, CC and NC)

	Model 4			Model 5			Model 6			Model 7		
	AC	CC	NC	AC	CC	NC	AC	CC	NC	AC	CC	NC
Predictor	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β	β
Age	.194**	-.018	.013	.190**	-.023	.013	.197**	-.018	.022	.196**	-.014	.022
Gender	.009	.031	.025	.009	.033	.028	.008	.032	.024	.008	.031	.026
Education	-.031	-.035	-.002	-.029	-.033	-.003	-.031	-.035	-.003	-.032	-.036	-.007
Position	.011	-.006	.045	.013	-.004	.047	.011	-.005	.047	.012	-.004	.050
Tenure	.014	.176*	.034	.018	.182*	.034	.011	.176*	.027	.010	.171*	.022
IC	-.107***	-.048	.055*	-.105***	-.048	.048*	-.105***	-.049	.051*	-.105***	-.048	.051*
UA	.180***	.111***	.117***	.183***	.114***	.114***	.182***	.111***	.121***	.182***	.113***	.121***
MF	.000	.092**	-.145***	-.001	.091**	-.144***	.000	.092**	-.141***	.001	.094**	-.139***
PD	.027	.026	-.262***	.026	.025	-.263***	.029	.026	-.257***	.029	.029	-.254***
WBS	.266***	.091***	.042	.266***	.091***	.044	.263***	.091***	.034	.264***	.087***	.033
IC*WBS	-.009	.016	.080**									
UA*WBS				.027	.037	-.006						
MF*WBS							-.026	-.006	-.087***			
PD*WBS										-.027	-.047	-.108***
R ²	.207	.080	.162	.208	.081	.156	.208	.080	.163	.208	.082	.167
ΔR^2	.000	.000	.006	.001	.001	.000	.001	.000	.007	.001	.002	.011
ΔF	.150	.414	11.965	1.398	2.265	.073	1.334	.067	13.978	1.451	3.697	21.755
p	.699	.520	.001	.237	.133	.787	.248	.796	.000	.229	.055	.000

Note: N = 1594; WBS = work-life balance satisfaction, IC = Individualism/Collectivism, UA = uncertainty avoidance, MF = masculinity/femininity, PD = power distance.

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

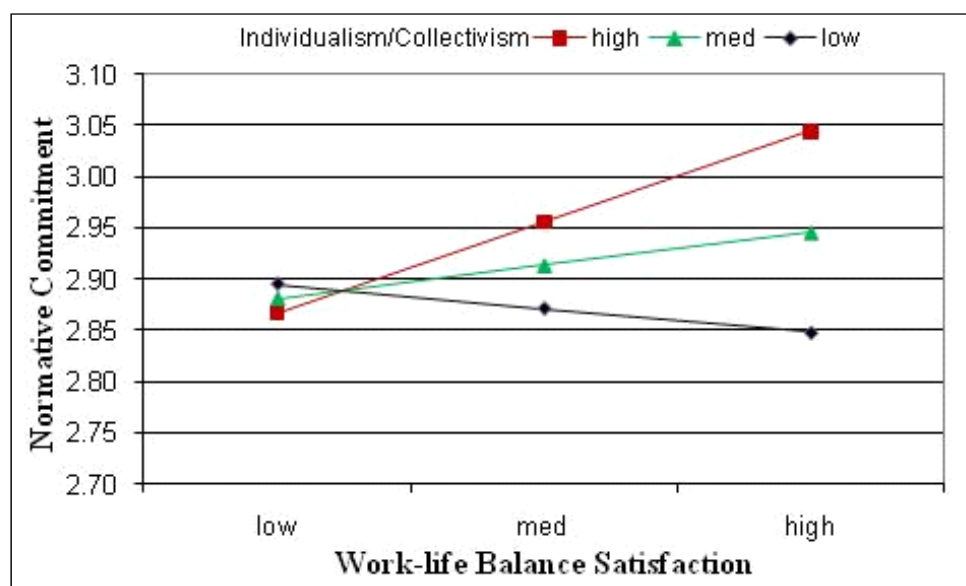


Figure 2: Moderating effect of IC on relationship between WBS and NC

beta coefficient for the interaction term (MF*WBS) was statistically insignificant ($\beta = -.026$, ns) for AC and ($\beta = -.006$, ns) for CC; and statistically significant NC ($\beta = -.087$, $p < .001$). Thus, Hypothesis 4c found support, and Hypotheses 4a and 4b found no support. The negative sign before the beta weight states that relationship between WBS and NC is stronger for individuals low rather than high in MF.

As MF is significantly related to NC ($\beta = -.141$, $p < .001$), MF is a so-called quasi-moderator (Sharma *et al.*, 1981).

For NC, the simple slope values were negative and insignificant for high MF group; and positive and insignificant for medium MF groups, and positive and significant for low MF group. The values were larger for the low MF group (slope = $.088$, $t = 3.81$, $p < .001$), and smaller for the high MF group (slope = $-.036$, $t = -1.43$, ns); the medium group fell in between (slope = $.025$, $t = 1.42$, ns). Figure 3 presents a typical significant interaction effect for MF and its moderation of the relationship between WBS and NC.

The graph in Figure 3 shows that the relationship is negative and insignificant for the high MF group (slope =

$-.036$, ns), positive and insignificant for the medium MF group (slope = $.025$, ns) and positive and significant for the low MF group (slope = $.088$, $p < .001$). The above results, taken together, provide support for Hypothesis 4c that is group low in M/F improves relationship towards positive.

*First, WBS was insignificantly and positively directly related to NC. Second, employees with relatively low M/F responded positively to the relationship between WBS and NC and vice versa. These findings indicate that employees possessing less M/F that is. less task oriented, cultural values are very sensitive towards satisfaction with WBS as it leads to more NC and reduction in employee turnover as employees with NC feel that it is their moral duty to continue to work for an organization (Jaros *et al.*, 1993). Thus, for reduction in employees turnover, employees’ possessing low M/F cultural values are favourable.*

Moderating effects of power distance (Hypothesis 5)

Table 5 (Model 7) shows significant moderating effect of PD on the relationship between WBS and NC, and insignificant moderating effect of PD on relationship

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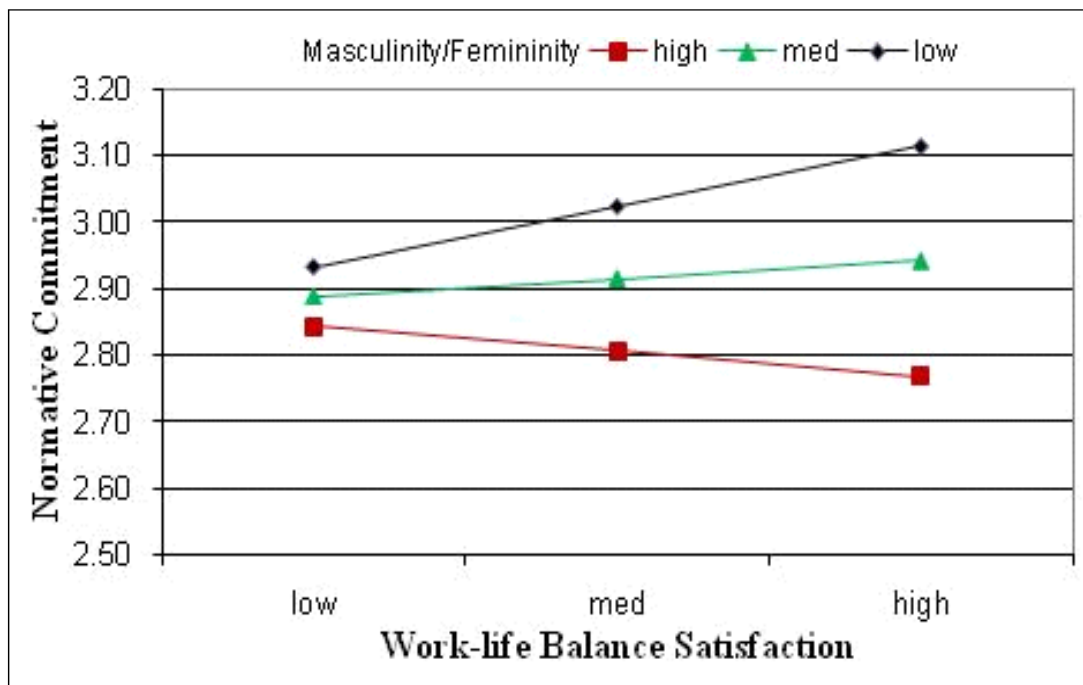


Figure 3: Moderating effect of MF on relationship between WBS and NC

between WBS and OC (AC and CC). Specifically, the beta coefficient for the interaction term (PD*WBS) was statistically insignificant for AC ($\beta = -.027$, ns), CC ($\beta = -.047$, ns) and statistically significant for NC ($\beta = -.108$, $p < .001$). Thus, Hypotheses 5a and 5b found no support, and Hypothesis 5c found support. The negative sign before the beta weight stated that relationship between WBS and NC was stronger for individuals low rather than high in PD.

As PD is also significantly related to NC ($\beta = -.254$, $p < .001$), PD is a so-called quasi-moderator (Sharma *et al.*, 1981).

For NC, the simple slope values were positive and significant for low PD group, positive and insignificant for medium-PD group, and negative and significant for high-PD group. The values were larger for the low-PD group (slope = .102, $t = 4.44$, $p < .001$), and smaller for the high-PD group (slope = -.053, $t = -2.07$, $p < .05$), the medium group fell in between (slope = .024, $t = 1.37$, ns). Figure 4 presents a typical significant interaction effect for PD and its moderation of the relationship between WBS and NC.

The graph in Figure 4 shows that the relationship is positive and significant for the low-PD group (slope = .102, $p < .001$), positive and insignificant for the medium-PD group (slope = .024, ns) and negative and significant for the high-PD group (slope = -.053, $p < .05$). The above results, taken together, provide support for Hypothesis 5c that is group low in PD improved relationship towards positive.

*First, WBS was insignificantly and positively directly related to NC. Second, employees with relatively low PD responded positively to the relationship between WBS and normative OC and vice versa. These findings indicate that employees possessing less PD that is less sensitive to hierarchy are very sensitive towards WBS, as it leads to more normative OC and reduction in employee turnover as employees with NC feel that it is their moral duty to continue to work for an organisation (Jaros *et al.*, 1993). Thus, for reduction in employees turnover, employees' possessing low PD cultural values are favourable.*

The implication for WBS is that organisations need to be sensitive to individual differences in cultural values that may influence important outcomes. In this case, even in

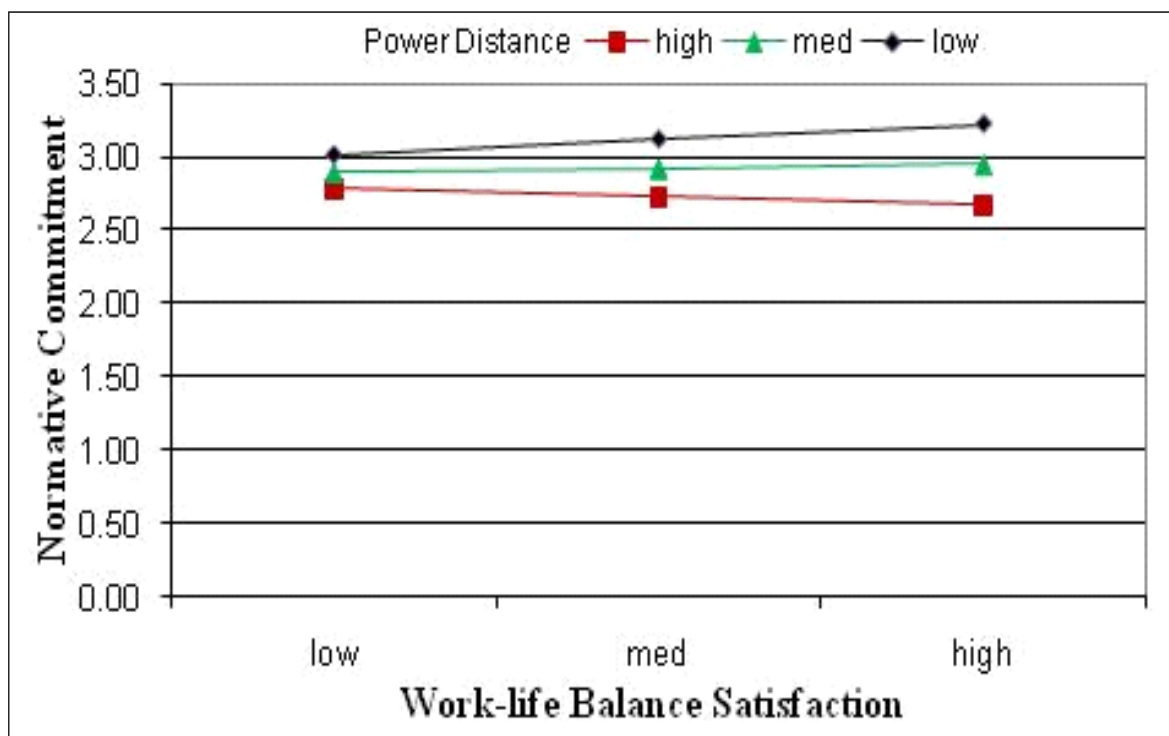


Figure 4: Moderating effect of PD on relationship between WBS and NC

India, a high PD country, individuals with relatively low PD values responded more favourably to WBS.

DISCUSSION

This paper has focused on perspectives of employees’ satisfaction with work–life balance practices that may predict its relationship with OC (AC, CC and NC) and moderating role of employees’ cultural values at individual level; and as such provide some basis for an HRM case. It is the first study that has tested the variety of predictions that these perspectives generate.

Our findings indicated that WBS influences all forms of employees’ OC that is AC, CC and NC with WBS having very strong positive influence on AC as expected; BSNL being a very big organisation, which provides number of welfare schemes to its employees with bundle of family-oriented practices such as housing facilities, assistance in children education, scholarships to meritorious children for higher studies, medical facilities to immediate family and dependents of the employees, compassionate ground appointment to a family member of employee in case of sudden death of employee because of any reason during service of employee, pension and medical facilities to family and dependents after death of employee during service or after retirement of employee and others.

The welfare schemes also include variable working hours to its male/female employees on rotational basis. Rest rooms and crèches are also provided to female employees, and male members are provided with rest room facilities as per requirements of the task. Recreational facilities are provided for the use during break period. The welfare schemes of BSNL share family responsibilities of employees and help them to reduce family conflicts, and employees are in position to maintain a good work–life balance.

BSNL extends a friendly working atmosphere to its employees. Employees are in direct contact with the general public for providing and maintaining telecommunication services across India; they get public recognition and result of their efforts, which gives them work satisfaction.

Employees with very good welfare schemes and satisfying working environment maintain a very good work–life balance. And this gives a very strong *want to work* feeling to employees.

WBS also influences CC positively in our finding; which is different than other research studies available in the literature. It is because BSNL is the unique organisation where employees have a bundle of family welfare schemes as mentioned for maintaining work–life balance; they may not be very satisfied with the welfare measures but it gives a feeling of *need to work* as there are no other organisation providing better family welfare measures compared with BSNL. In our study, there is positive and insignificant influence of WBS on NC; it is because in BSNL family welfare practices available to employees’ give a very strong feeling of belongingness to majority of employees, and they want to be or need to be in the organisation and a very insignificant number of employees who are continuing in the organisation with ought-to-be feelings.

Our findings once again reiterate that work–life balance practices influence very strongly AC, and it is in line with the findings of *Chiu and Ng, (1999), Thompson et al. (1999) and Wood and de Menezes (2008)*. And it puts our findings adequate to test moderating role of employees’ cultural values at individual level on the relationship between WBS and OC (AC, CC and NC).

Perhaps, the most practical and theoretical contribution of our study is the examination of moderating role of employees’ cultural values of I/C, UA, M/F and PD at individual level on the relationship between employees’ WBS and AC, CC and NC. We discussed the moderating role of individual’s cultural values on OC as detailed in the subsequent paragraphs.

Moderating effect of IC on WBC

First, WBS was insignificantly and positively directly related to NC in hierarchical regression analysis. Second, employees relatively with high *IC* responded more favourably to the relationship between WBS and NC and less favourably to the relationship those with low *IC*. This finding indicates that employees possessing more individualistic that is less collectivist, cultural values are very sensitive towards satisfaction with work–life balance practices at workplace as it leads to more NC and reduction in employee turnover as *employees with NC feel that it is their moral duty to continue to work for an organisation (Jaros et al., 1993)*.

Thus, for reduction in employees' turnover, employees possessing high IC cultural values are favourable and organisations should design work-life balance practices to suit to family life of employees high in IC cultural values to increase their NC and retention.

Moderating effect of MF on NC

First, WBS was insignificantly and positively directly related to NC in hierarchical regression analysis. Second, employees relatively with low MF responded more favourably to the relationship between WBS and NC and less favourably to the relationship those with high MF. This finding indicates that employees possessing less MF that is less task-oriented, cultural values are very sensitive towards satisfaction with work-life balance practices as it leads to more NC and reduction in employee turnover as *employees with NC feel that it is their moral duty to continue to work for an organisation (Jaros et al., 1993).*

Thus, for reduction in employees' turnover, employees possessing low MF cultural values are favourable and organisations should design work-life balance practices to suit to family life of employees low in MF cultural values to increase their NC and retention.

Moderating effect of PD on NC

First, WBS was insignificantly and positively directly related to NC in hierarchical regression analysis. Second, employees relatively with low PD responded more favourably to the relationship between WBS and normative OC and less favourably to the relationship those with high PD. This finding indicates that employees possessing low PD that is less sensitive to hierarchy, cultural values are very sensitive towards satisfaction with work-life balance practices as it leads to more NC and reduction in employee turnover as NC is negatively related to turnover (Jaros et al., 1993). Thus, for reduction in employees turnover, employees' possessing low PD cultural values are favourable.

Thus, for reduction in employees' turnover, employees possessing low PD cultural values are favourable and organisations should design work-life balance practices to suit to family life of employees low in PD cultural values to increase their NC and retention.

Note: MF and PD had a statistically (Model 3) significant negative direct relationship with NC ($\beta = -.144, p < .001$) & ($\beta = -.263, p < .001$), respectively. These results raise interesting questions about the basis for this relationship. Perhaps, those with high MF & high PD have more negative attitudes because of the no congruence between their own values and those of the organisation. Although we did not investigate the organisational culture, we would expect that at least to some extent it reflects the Indian national culture.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Contributions

This study shows an innovative direction for research on OC by opening up a debate on the impact of HR practices on OC. Statistically significant correlations were found between WBS and AC and, CC, which demonstrate an understanding that how HR practices can be utilised in managing desirable types of OC.

The study also contributes to our understanding of moderating role of employees' cultural values on the relationship between work-life balance practice satisfaction and OC (AC, CC and NC). *Study findings encourage addition of individual level cultural values test method during recruitment and selection processes to decide HR package for the candidate as per his/her individual cultural values; in MNCs and organisations functioning in multi-ethnic countries having complex cultural values across the country like India.*

As recent research in employee selection has shifted focus from the traditional selection paradigm, that is, the relationship between the predictor and the criterion, towards other important issues as well. For example, there is increased interest in different selection methods (e.g. situational judgment tests), the role of technology and the Internet in recruitment and selection (e.g. video résumés and the effect of social networking websites), the applicant perspective (e.g. trust, fairness and applicant reactions research), the use of new statistical and methodological approaches (e.g. multilevel analysis and diary studies), ethical issues and adverse impact, high stakes selection and so forth (Nikolaou et al., 2012). And in present day recruitment and selection practices, where HR packages are personalised; it is possible.

Palich *et al.* (1995) investigated and found no significant cultural moderation effects. Further, they noted that their data were analysed at the national level and suggested that future validations might use individual scores as it has been shown that individuals’ cultural values differ within national cultures (Triandis *et al.*, 1988). In this study, it is established that cultural values do moderate relationship between HRD practice satisfaction and OC (AC, CC and NC).

The findings are generalisable and adaptable in the present era of personalised HR practices, as organisations operating in a multi-ethnic country like India or involved in international ventures across cultural boundaries need to be particularly sensitive to the cultural diversity of their employees.

Limitations

Although the current study has contributed to existing knowledge about the moderating effect of cultural values on AC, CC and NC, there are several limitations to be noted. First, the study was conducted in only one organisation with a limited sample of employees. And the company was a government owned public sector having business across India. Second, in the current study, all variables were rated by employees themselves. This may result in a problem of common method variance. However, because all of these variables are attitudinal variables, we could not obtain them from other sources. Third, in this study only, Allen and Meyer’s typology has been used and other typologies of OC have not been considered. Fourth, present study adapted only four dimensions of Hofstede’s typology, and no test has been conducted with cultural values typology of other researchers.

Scope for Future Research

The current study has raised some interesting questions for future research. As the individual’s values are important in determining how he or she reacts to different work–life balance practices, to what extent should these be taken into consideration in the selection process? Although many researchers believe that cultural values are enduring (Hofstede, 1980b), they are influenced by socialisation processes. Is it possible, then, through organisational socialisation processes, an individual could change his or

her cultural values? For example, when people choose to work for global companies whose values vary from their own individual level cultural values, over time will the individuals’ values change to be more congruent with the organisations?

In our study, we considered WBS to be the effect of management practice that is congruent with cultural values. We then found that those with

- Higher IC moderated relationship between WBS and NC only.
- UA has not moderated relationship between WBS and OC (AC, CC and NC).
- Low MF moderated relationship between WBS and NC only.
- Low PD moderated relationship between WBS and NC only.

What account for all these? Is it the congruence in values or something else about WBS or other variables, measured or unmeasured in this study, that can explain these results? For example, if we test a management approach that would appear to be consistent with high (rather than low) PD values, such as autocratic leadership, would we find similar interaction effects?

The many questions raised here could form the basis for additional studies of cultural values in the future. It is also interesting to consider the impact of cultural variables both within and between cultures.

SUMMARY

This paper is a pioneering initiative in examining the organisational and individual behavioural phenomena of a leading Indian PSU to establish some significant findings, which have meaningful implications for HRM interventions to reorient individual and organisational behaviour. As HRM managers continue to address increasingly complex business and organisational issues in Indian PSU, they also need to pay close attention to human resources issues with equal fervour. They must also keep in mind that their organisation’s success is directly linked to the effectiveness and productivity of its employees. HRM issues such as WBS and OC must not be pushed to the bottom, but they should be addressed,

head on, with high priority. India is fast approaching a time when the most valuable and desired talent will say 'no' to organisations that do not invest in a high-quality human environment. Therefore, Indian managers have responsibilities and opportunities to improve effectiveness of their organisations by making improvements in the HR practices. And in present time when women have come out from veil in India and competing with male dominated society; organisations have to improve their HR practices to favour women employees to maintain their work-life balance at home and in the organisations.

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