

THE EFFECT OF CULTURAL DIMENSIONS OF UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE TO THE
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORKPLACE CONDITIONS AND PREFERENCE OF
HAVING A BABY FOR WORKING WOMEN



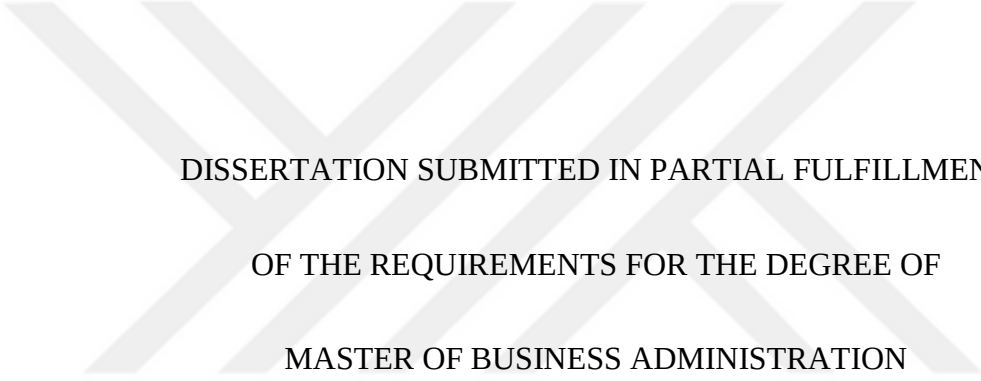
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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORKPLACE CONDITIONS AND
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BY

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PLAGIARISM

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Sema Gultekin

03/02/2021

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to understand the effect of uncertainty avoidance dimensions of the Hofstede's cultural dimensions to the relationship between workplace conditions and preference of having a baby for working women. The objectives of the study are making additional literature on this topic and contributing to the field of human resources by providing guidance to the senior management to be aware of the concepts when they are determining work conditions and policies, especially for the women.

This study used survey method and responders was white-collar private sector working women between the ages of 18 and 45. This study will use a quantitative research method. Type of the design is explanatory, correlational. SPSS was used for analyzing the results and finding the correlations.

This study expects to prove followings hypothesis:

- Workplace conditions has an impact on working women's preference of having baby.
- Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between workplace conditions and working women's preference of having baby.

The study proved the hypothesis that working conditions have an impact on working women's preference of having a baby. The highest impact caused by the two sub factors of working conditions, "management style and working conditions" and "friendship environment".

Our other hypothesis that "uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between workplace conditions and working women's preference of

having baby” was not proved on the all sub factors of the working condition concept, but it was supported on the same strongest two sub factors.

This study will contribute for companies to adapt their policies and work conditions to increase working their women employees’ preference of having a baby, so they can feel secure about returning to work after having a baby. Governments may use the results of the study for setting up new laws and policies. This will be very important information for the professionals who are responsible for establishing the organizational structure and policies for their organizations.



Özet

Bu çalışma Hofstede'nin kültürel boyutlarından belirsizlikten kaçınma boyutunun, çalışma koşulları ve çalışan kadınların bebek sahibi olma tercihleri arasındaki ilişkiye olan düzenleyici etkisini anlamayı amaçlamıştır. Bu çalışma ile literatüre bu konuda yeni bilgiler eklemek ve insan kaynakları alanında üst yönetime özellikle kadın çalışanlar için koşulları ve politikaları belirlerken kılavuzluk yapmak hedeflenmiştir.

Bu çalışma anket yöntemini kullandı, cevap verenler 18-45 yaş arası beyaz yaka kadın çalışanlardır. Sonuçlar üzerindeki ilişkileri ve etkileri analiz etmek için SPSS uygulaması kullanıldı.

Bu çalışma aşağıdaki iki hipotezi ispatlamayı hedeflemiştir.

- Çalışma koşullarının çalışan kadınların bebek sahibi olma tercihi üzerinde etkisi vardır.
- Belirsizlikten kaçınmanın çalışma koşulları ile çalışan kadınların bebek sahibi olma tercihi arasındaki ilişkiyi düzenleyici etkisi vardır.

Bu çalışma, çalışma koşullarının çalışan kadınların bebek sahibi olma tercihlerine etkisini savunan hipotezi kanıtlamıştır. En büyük etkinin olduğu iki alt faktör “yönetim şekli ve çalışma koşulları” ve “arkadaşlık ortamıdır”.

Belirsizlikten kaçınmanın çalışma koşulları ile çalışan kadınların bebek sahibi olma tercihi arasındaki ilişkiyi düzenleyici etkisi ile ilgili olan diğer hipotez tüm alt faktörlerde doğrulanamasa da, daha önce en büyük etkinin görüldüğü iki alt faktörde kanıtlanabilmiştir.

Bu çalışma şirketlerin politikalarını ve çalışma koşullarını kadın çalışanlarının bebek sahibi olma tercihlerinin artmasına adapte etmelerine katkıda bulunacaktır. Böylece bebek sahibi olduktan sonra işe dönme konusunda daha güvende hissetmelerini sağlayacaktır. Devletler bu çalışmanın sonuçlarını yeni yasa ve politikaları belirlerken kullanabilir. Bu çalışma ayrıca şirketler için organizasyonel yapıları ve politikaları hazırlayan profesyoneller için de çok önemli bilgiler sağlar.



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Introduction

The social and organizational lives of working mothers are really close. Therefore, it is clear that many factors affecting working life affect the decision of working women to become a mother and have children. In these days, working women face risks related to working life when planning to have a baby. Difficult working conditions such as heavy lifting, overtime, shift system etc. force women employees reevaluate their decision on the dilemma of having a baby. Not just difficult working conditions, but different career opportunities and career development conditions also affect the decision of having a baby. For example, an opportunity of getting promotion may affect this decision if their decision would be supported by their employer.

According to some previous studies suggest that using physically demanding work, prolonged standing, long work hours, shiftwork, cumulative work fatigue when guiding the development of workplace policies to protect pregnant women employees. (Somers, 2000). Discriminating against pregnancy is another risk. Even though, discrimination due to pregnancy are forbidden in U.S. by Pregnancy Discrimination Act, 1978, charges of pregnancy discrimination still exist, often with expensive consequences for employers. (Lusky, 2015)

Working conditions play an important role in decision of having a baby for working women. Having working conditions which are regulated according to the working women is a supportive situation for women when having this dilemma. For example; paid maternity leave, longer maternity leave, paternity leave, milk time leave after birth. etc. A lot of countries such as Canada, Mexico, France, Democratic Republic of the Congo, all, have decent policies for maternity women. In the USA, even though maternity is covered in the Family and Medical Leave Act in 1993, the

country still needs to do more. A study of two universities, Harvard and McGill, found only 5 of 173 countries, including USA, do not have paid maternity leave. (Grady, 2007).

Culture plays a crucial role in decision of having a baby for working women. In cultural diversity, the task of women is perceived differently on different cultures. For instance, in eastern cultures, women are required to stay home and look after family and children, while in western culture, they have more career-focused role in society. (Jamali, Sidani, & Safieddine, 2005) studied the limitations for women in Lebanon who are in management roles. Their study showed that, the biggest limitations for women when improving their career is caused from these cultural roles and view point towards their role, which put women in a role as a mother or housewife (Arar, Shapira, Azaiza, & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 2013). Even though some women can reach the highest positions, their role in the society still considered to raise the family and children. (Omair, 2008)

Culture also shapes working conditions. Depending on the above expectations, business conditions are also built according to these cultures. The cultural dimensions informs about cultural values, perceptions of life events by people and their responses to these events in their social lives. There are many studies that are focuses on cultural similarities and differences. One of the most famous studies is the Hofstede's studies of cultural dimensions (Yahyagil, 2011).

Hofstede puts cultural dimensions in six dimensions. They are uncertainty avoidance, individualism, power distance, masculinity, and long-term versus short-term orientation and indulgence v. restraint (Winter & Liebreinz-Himes, 2015) (Yahyagil, 2015) This study will focus on only uncertainty avoidance. Uncertainty

avoidance shows the readiness of the employees to accept uncertainty (Mukherjee, Hanlon, Kedia, & Srivastava, 2012), Hanlon, Kedia, & Srivastava, 2012).

Masculinity shows if male members are more dominant than women in their civilization. Masculine societies are regulated by men for men. (Rinuastuti, Hadiwidjojo, Rohman, & Khusniyah, 2014). According to Hofstede Insights, Turkey is in feminine side with score of 45. This means that Turkish people values softer aspect of culture. (Hofstede Insights, 2020). Masculinity dimensions of Turkey may be important for this study since the data collected in Turkey. Individualism shows how much connection exists between the members of a society. When the individualism is high, members would look after only their selves and immediate family members. Hofstede describes the concept of “power distance” as in what degree the power is distributed, between less and more powerful members of a society. The long term orientation indicates how much further a member wants to know of their future. (Yoo, Donthu, & Lenartowicz, 2011). Hofstede’s sixth dimension is “indulgence versus restraint”. This dimension is also known as “happiness research”. Indulgence indicates how much a society allows for human desires while restraint indicates in what degree a society controls or regulates their desire. (Minkov & Hofstede, 2011), (Maali & Al-Attar, 2017)

The purpose of this study is to have a better understanding the effect of cultural dimensions of perceived uncertainty avoidance to the relationship between workplace conditions and preference of having a baby for working women.

The motivation behind this study is to help HR and senior management of the companies who are responsible for establishing the organizational structure and policies for their organizations, when they set or update their organizational policies for their women employees who may want to have a baby during their employment.

The studies tell us there is a relationship between preference having a baby and work conditions. They also show that the culture effects preference of having baby and perception of working conditions for working women based on current literature. However, there is only limited information on whether culture influences the relationship between preference having a baby and work conditions.

This study will try to answer the question whether if the relationship between working conditions and women's preference having a baby positive or negative by making above contribution. The cultural influences and the relationship will also be examined.

This study will contribute to literature by adding following concepts:

- Companies may adapt their policies and work conditions to help women with baby to return work easier after giving a birth.
- Even if the relationship between workplace conditions and maternity is known, the right moves cannot be made without knowing how the cultural characteristics' effect to this relation.
- This will be very important information for the HR and senior management of the companies who are responsible for establishing the organizational structure and policies for their organizations.
- There is not much study on cultural effects on work conditions and preferences of having a baby for working women. This study will be contributing to the literature for the researchers.

2. Literature Review

The aim of this part is to review literature for the effect of cultural dimensions to the relationship between workplace conditions and preference of having a baby for working women. The first part under this section explains the workplace conditions. In this section, workplace conditions for working women will be discussed. The second part will detail the preference having a baby for working women. This section will explain the conditions that are effective when working women who want to have a baby have this decision. The third part will detail the cultural concepts used in this study.

The relationship of these concepts; including relationship between workplace conditions and preference having a baby for working women, and cultural effect of uncertainty avoidance to these concepts will be discussed in these three parts. The fourth and last part will list the hypothesis of the study which will be tested in the conclusion.

2.1. Workplace conditions

According to International Labor Organization, workplace conditions include many concepts from working style, such as work and rest times, and schedules, to equal pay, from conditions of work place and expectations in the workplace (Somers, 2000).

Labor force participation rate by woman has been always increasing since 1976. Studies show that woman will be responsible for about 47% of the civilian labor force by 2006. Women's participation to labor force directly related to the workplace conditions such as:

- ❖ Long work hours
- ❖ Prolonged standing
- ❖ Physically demanding work
- ❖ Shiftwork
- ❖ Cumulative work fatigue

Many studies suggest to use these for guiding the development of workplace policies to protect women. (Somers, 2000)

An important factor for women planning to have a baby is discriminating against. Discrimination due to pregnancy are forbidden since the Pregnancy Discrimination Act, 1978 in USA. However, there are still occurrences of pregnancy discrimination charges (Lusky, 2015). Long working hours are an important factor about workplace conditions for working women. Overall job satisfaction of women usually decreases with the increase in working hours when, compared to men. Therefore, women are more likely to have an urge to reduce their working hours (Kodz et al, 2003).

Women starts to experience differences in their work environment after they become pregnant. Although being a mother does not justify the whole wage discrimination, studies show that mothers are paid less compared to the women without children, who have closer earnings to men. Another aspect for discrimination may be policies. Laws impose duty on employers can increase the discrimination of women by making it less appealing to employers. Reallocating the burden from the employers can help to reduce discrimination. (Palley, 2016)

Workplace conditions must be determined separately for women employees. They should take this into account when determining the organizational structure and policies of workplaces that want to be successful. Somers' study indicate successful workplace policies need collaborative and cooperative interactions that are usually

very difficult to acquire (Somers, 2000). An example of workplace conditions, according to a study conducted with the employees and academic staff of Akdeniz University, working mothers expressed that they do not look for other job opportunities outside the institution they work for and do not plan to leave their jobs (Gürkanlar, 2020). When the relationship between whether having a child or not is evaluated, it is found that women academic staff with children have lower job satisfaction, higher intention to quit, but evaluated the quality of their jobs more appropriate for flexibility (Gürkanlar, 2020).

We mentioned above that the overworked workforce has affected the working life. This can also affect the desire of working women to make babies. Working hours are a significant factor in managing work-life balance. Excessive working hours can create an imbalance which negatively affects personal and social life of an individual (Bielby, 1992). With around 49 hours a week on average working hours in Turkey is clearly higher than OECD average, which is 40 hours per week. Besides, the arrangement of working time also affect the workplace conditions. These arrangements include flexible working times, working from home and ability to choose from the fixed schedules (OECD Statistics, 2020).

Abbasoglu (2009) examines the long-term relationship with the female labor force participation and fertility in Turkey. She shows that there is a long-term and negatively correlated relationship between fertility and women's employment. In general, when the women's employment increases, fertility level decreases.

Family-friendly workplace practices can be either classified in institutional or structural aspect such as how flexible working time agreements are set and home-

office (working from home) opportunities. These dimensions show how employment and fertility affect each other (Abbasoğlu Özgören, 2015).

There are some supporting behaviors of pregnancy in the workplace. Social support is the key for providing healthy pregnancies as well as reducing the effects of stress and it can be seen in 3 forms: emotional support, informational support and instrumental support. Apart from the pregnancy period, women who received more support during their pregnancy experienced better progress in labor. (Hackney & Perrewé, 2018).

Maternity Leave has positive effects on perinatal outcomes and the countries which have better maternity leave policies have lower LBW (Low Birth Weight) baby percentage compared to the others. Implementing mother-protective conditions for better employment also have an impact on reducing the adverse pregnancy outcomes (Kwegyir-Afful, Adu, Spelten, & Räsäne, 2017).

Improving women's working conditions is very important in determining their career goals. For example, the equal salaries of female employees and male workers, the role of women in management, and the absence of discrimination in promotion situations will support the career of women. According to a survey that is studied by University of Phoenix and published as Business Wire article, every three in four Americans finds working conditions for women as improved. In admission of International Women's Day, University of Phoenix issued its results from a recent poll revealing varying levels of progress for women in the workplace. The survey realize the larger part of respondents (75 percent) accepted that working conditions for women have improved in the past decade; however, In the case of leadership roles and compensation, women are left behind. Only one of the three women who

participated in the survey said they make the same amount of money as men working the same or similar jobs at their company (Heisel, 2017). Although another study's finding indicates a slight decline in the number of employees working 50 hours and according to ILO standards, the decline is not satisfactory, (Mubeen & Rashidi, 2014).

The policies also play a crucial role in influencing the workplace conditions for women with or without children. According to (Neyer, 2013) and (Andersson, Kreyenfeld, & Mika, 2014), there are two dominant family models available, first is the traditional male-breadwinner model and second is the dual-earner model, which increased in the last few decades. In societies that support first model, women's employment is probably to be negatively related to fertility. However, in the second model, which is the dual-earner model, this correlation may be positive (İlkkaracan, 2010). Family models are defined by the welfare state institutions in the society and a dimension of welfare state is the policies about the family. Family policies can be separated in two segments: Active family policies and passive family policies (Bozçağa, 2012).

Cash transfer policies are criticized for emphasis of the patriarchal family model and decreasing dual-earner model, by removal of mothers from the employment compared to the policies supporting public child care services (İlkkaracan, 2010). Unproductive effects of cash benefits also exemplified in the study by (Raute, 2019). In this study, 2007 Germany maternity leave reform's effects are analyzed. This reform helped to increase the fertility rate of Germany, especially among the high earning women, which had higher opportunity cost while previously given a flat benefit during the leave. New policy offers women maternity leave benefits proportional to their wages, and this helped to change the structure among

different education status and highly educated women became more probable to have the first or the additional second child. This reform also reduced the gap between women with high education status who had significantly lower fertility rate compared to the women with low education status. The results indicate that this policy change in Germany raised the average birth rate by 2.1%. When the decline of general fertility linked with the increasing education level is considered, then earnings-based maternity leave policies can reduce the baby gap (Raute, 2019).

Additionally, a research reveals that pro-natal policies by the South Korean government will not be as effective as it intended to be, because of the job security issues among young and low- and medium-income groups. To be able to reach these goals, social and educational changes that improve the social and gender equality are required with more actions to involve the fathers in childcare and child-raising responsibilities (Kim, Oh, Bae, Park , & Jang, 2019).

In this study, the working conditions was measured using working conditions measurement instrument, developed by Erdil et al. (2004) with inspiration from Minnesota job satisfaction instrument. The working condition on this instrument covers four sub factors; management and working conditions, friendship environment, sense of appreciation, and job satisfactions. (Guchan, 2019)

Management style and working conditions measured as a single factor in this study. Management style effects employees job satisfaction in overall. Management may encourage employees to participate in the decisions about them. This would help employees to have self-respect. Management may also create good relation with their employees by supporting them and put them in the center of decision base. Those type

of management styles would make employees happy, otherwise, they may search this in other workplaces. (Erdil et al. 2004)

Family and friends have an influencer effect in our lives. An employee usually spends most of their time with their colleagues. Similarly, the team and friendship environment which the employees are in, will affect their behaviors and emotions, therefore their job satisfaction level. An employee, working in a high-performing and successful team that has a similar world-view with him/her, would have more job satisfaction than an employee who was working in an opposite type of team. (Erdil et al. 2004)

The studies show that appreciation or recognition is one of the important factors that increase job satisfaction. Recognizing an employee after a successful task or a positive behaviour would support the success even further. Employees feel the sense of appreciation when their manager praises them on time and on the spot. Sense of appreciation or recognition increases job satisfaction. (Erdil et al. 2004)

Employees start new jobs with some initial expectations. They satisfy from their job when their expectations are met. Therefore, their performance and effectiveness increase with the level of the expectation met. Unmet expectations would reduce the job satisfaction therefore the performance and effectiveness of the employees. Performance decrease, ineffectiveness and turnover should be tracked in case of low job satisfaction level. (Erdil et al. 2004). All of those four factors are in focus of this thesis study.

2.2. Preference of having a baby for working women

For long time, women have experienced problems with social and workplace equality. Some laws have attempted to reduce and remedy these problems, but they were not successful for eliminating the social, legal, economic, and workplace problems for women who prefers to have a baby. Candis Riggins who is Walmart employee says: “I was forced to choose between a healthy pregnancy and my paycheck. No pregnant worker should have to make that decision.”

According to Marcum and Perry’s study, there are two types of workplace conditions are accordance by pregnant employees. The first of these can easily be done. Working habits of pregnant workers change during pregnancy. For example, a pregnant employee would drink more water or go to the bathroom more frequently. The second type of work conditions that is required by these employees are that their employer is to change work requirements of the employment such as a limitation on lifting. In addition, some employees request short-term leave from the workplace with the assumption of returning to their work. (Marcum & Perry, 2015)

Many working women are afraid of losing their jobs during pregnancy. This may cause the woman to have to make a choice between her desire to be a mother and keeping her job. Governor Pat Quinn of USA who signed the proposal into law, says “Women should not have to choose between being a mother and having a job”. “This new law will provide important protections and accommodations for working mothers-to-be so that they can continue to provide for their family without risking their health or the health of their child. These common-sense accommodations will

provide peace of mind, safety and opportunity for moms-to-be and also help strengthen our workforce across the state.” (McDaniel-Ogletree, 2015)

90% of working women become pregnant while employed. They face identity management concerns and challenges at all stages of the pregnancy about others’ acceptance of their pregnancy. Acceptance, or lack of acceptance may lead to momentary psychological distress and experienced discrimination (Jones, 2017). Mentioned challenges that have seen in the workplace can lead revising the decision for having a baby.

Working pregnant women are limited to carry heavy items at work, so they may ask for adaptation from their supervisors. The employers try to take optimal decision in case of when a pregnant women worker notifies her manager that she has a limitation for handling heavy equipment and requires an accommodation due to this limitation. (Willis & Scully, 2015). An area that often leads to chaos for employers is what pay and advantages have to be protected during maternity leave. According to International Labour Organizations (ILO) Conventions Nos. 3 and 103, employers should not be responsible for the cost for maternity benefits, and the benefits should be paid payable to their pregnant employees by using social insurance or other public sources (Addati, Cassirer, & Gilchrist, 2014).

When a women considers to take a maternity leave, they think their career may be in risk if they use it and do what they want in their personal life (De Vita, 2015).

An executive coach says that “A good line manager can make the difference between someone leaving or staying”. Staying quite is one of the biggest issues of the

managers when their employee tells about her pregnancy first time, even though they don't want to say wrong thing, they should not be quite then. (De Vita, 2015)

Preference is also about how important they see the work. One hardship that working women face during pregnancy is the conflict of professional image vs. demands that pregnancy brings. They try to meet every job tasks or meetings, but they also should go to regular doctors' appointments, child-birth classes and reduce their stress level and workload (Hackney & Perrewé, 2018).

A recent study that is focused on South Korean working women indicates that, women from low and medium income who experience gender discrimination in the workplace have significantly lower pregnancy plans compared to the women do not experience that. Namely, there is a correlation between gender discrimination in the workplace and pregnancy planning (Kim, Oh, Bae, Park , & Jang, 2019).

In this study, the working conditions was measured using working conditions measurement instrument, developed by term includes all of management and working conditions, friendship environment, sense of appreciation, and job satisfactions.

2.3. Culture

Organizational culture, which is expressed in the literature with concepts such as “institution”, “organization”, “firm” and “company culture”, has been studied as a theoretical phenomenon at first. Organizational culture is defined by Schein as the belief that a group's coherence with the external environment, members' acceptance of the group, and the beliefs they transfer to their new members, and it is defined by Deshpande and Webster, as the organization's values and beliefs that support the

perception of the organization and show the behavior of the organization (Çakır, 2019).

Organizational culture has an important effect on the formation of the goals, policies and strategies of businesses and helps to reach these goals easily.

Organizational culture enables organizations to be an outlier from their counterparts, build identity to their organization and its employees and helps them gain strategic advantage in a global competitive environment (Çakır, 2019).

Strong organizational culture ensures that crisis times or troubled periods with uncertainty are overcome with minimal damage and can keep up with change.

Organizational culture has several elements such as unity, solidarity, establishing healthy relationships and ensuring loyalty among its employees. The organization has important functions such as accepting the organizational goals at a high level, creating a sense of employee engagement and ensuring employee compliance with the setting (Çakır, 2019).

The cultural dimensions show information about people's perceptions, the way of thinking and their effects on the life style. There are many studies that are focuses on the cultural dimensions. One of the most popular study is the Hofstede's study (Yahyagil, 2011).

This study will use the two of the six cultural dimensions proposal in the Hofstede's studies. Hofstede's six dimensions are masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, power distance, long or short-term orientation and indulgence v. restraint (Winter & Liebrech-Himes, 2015) (Yahyagil, 2015). This study will focus on masculinity, uncertainty avoidance.

Masculinity is known as how much the masculine values are more dominant. In masculine cultures, success and competition is focused and accepted as masculine value. In non-masculine cultures, life quality, relationships etc. are more important (Ardichvili, 2001). Hofstede (1997) indicates that in "masculine" societies the differences between the men's and women's roles are larger than in "tender" ones. Masculinity shows if male members have dominant role in the society. (Yoo, Donthu, & Lenartowicz, 2011). In societies with feminine characteristics, sociality, thinking and protecting others are important rather than financial success, and the health of people and relationships are prioritized. The manager who makes a decision by providing consensus is appreciated, and the resolution of conflicts through negotiation and reconciliation is welcomed. Masculine countries include Japan, Austria, Venezuela and Italy, and Sweden, Norway, the Netherlands and Denmark are the examples of feminine countries. Turkey ranked 30th (1 = high masculine values, 40 = high feminine values) and is defined as more feminine culture (Hodgetts & Luthans, 1996). According to current Hofstede scale, Turkey scores 45 and feminine side of the scale, which means softer aspects of culture are valued and encouraged (Hofstede Insights, 2020).

Uncertainty avoidance defines how much ambiguity and uncertainty an organizational member wants to avoid. Members high on uncertainty avoidance would like to have clear goals and guidelines for the tasks they are doing (Mukherjee, Hanlon, Kedia, & Srivastava, 2012). Cultures high on uncertainty avoidance are not likely to take risks. Individuals in these cultures prefer stability in their lives and careers. (Hofstede, 1980), (Baker & Carson, 2011).

In cultures with the high degree of uncertainty avoidance, organizations have many written rules and procedures and reward managers who avoid risk. Hofstede

cited France, Japan, Greece and Peru as examples of countries with high uncertainty avoidance, and Denmark, America, Hong Kong and Sweden as examples of countries with low uncertainty avoidance, while Turkey was ranked 16th in this index. (1 = most uncertainty avoidance; 40 = least uncertainty avoidance) (Sözer, 2006).

According to current Hofstede scale, Turkey scores 85 and that means there is a huge need for laws and rules. In order to reduce anxiety, people make use of a lot of rituals and traditional social patterns to ease tension (Hofstede Insights, 2020).

It is possible that in men's predominant cultures, the business conditions and policies are in accordance with men. When the level of uncertainty avoidance is high for a woman, she may not want to have a baby because she will not be sure for her career. Some cross-cultural studies on women managers indicates some similar terms that is shared by them. (Ader & Izraeli, 1994), (Omair, 2008).

The studies on women managers in the Arab world overcome the existence of barriers to careers for women, with eight articles writing on such topics. Work-family issues were defined in four of them. Reasons for working were reported in three studies and role models in two studies. Attitudes towards women was discussed in six articles. The majority of the research revealed cultural factors that affect Arab women in government. Jamali et al. (2005) studied constraints for women managers in Lebanon. The study defines that, the strongest barriers to career advancement for women is caused from cultural expectations and patriarchal attitudes towards them, which emphasizing the role of women as mothers (Jamali, Sidani, & Safieddine, 2005). Women can want and have the potential to reach the management positions, but the most important and role of a woman should continue to revolve around the family (Omair, 2008).

Many researchers focus on cultural perspective when comparing attitudes of women. For example, study of Damji and Lee (1995), tested the gender roles of identity and perception. Although the comparison of Muslim men and women is thought to be complex, the women in this sample tended to resemble other women in demonstrating a more feminine identity and a more liberal outlook toward gender rules than the men (Mostafa, 2003).

It is important to study women's careers, through a framework of cultural orientations, because of the connection between cultural expectations and job performance (Bullough, De Luque, Abdelzaher, & Heim, 2015). According to Maddock and Parkin's study, male managers think that the main reason for women's lack of presentation in management was their ambition problems and that this was due to their commitment to domestic life. Many male managers still suspected that women manager candidates might become pregnant and leave and so they rejected or ignored them (Maddock & Parkin, 1993). In the modern days, increasing number of women are contributing to the marketplace more than ever. Much of this increase is due to mothers participating in the labor force. In fact, 61% of all mothers are working within three years after their child's birth, and Klerman and Leibowitz (1990) find that about half of these mothers return to work within the first three months after giving birth. Many pregnant women employees return to work earlier after giving birth to keep their jobs, taking only a brief period of time off. (Baum, 2005)

While maternity leaves have gotten considerably easier since the passage of the Family and Medical Leave Act in 1993, USA still has a long way to go. A recent study by Harvard and McGill universities surveyed 173 countries and found only five did not guarantee some kind of paid maternity leave. The United States brings up the rear in maternal and parental leave policies, sharing the honor with Lesotho,

Swaziland, Liberia and Papua New Guinea. Some other family amenities, available over the border or across the pond:

--Canada: Canadian government's policy pays expectant mothers 55 percent of their salary (up to \$413 a week) for 15 weeks. Expectant mothers (or partners) are also eligible for an additional 35 weeks of paid parental leave.

--Mexico: For all the furor over working conditions and wages, the Mexican government's policy pays workers 100 percent of salary for a 12-week maternity leave.

--France: Sixteen weeks of full salaried maternity leave; rising to 26 weeks for the third child. Italy: Twenty-two weeks (two before birth) at 80 percent of salary.

--Democratic Republic of the Congo: 14 weeks at 67 percent of salary.

Some companies, like Thiel's, offer paid maternity leave. (Grady, 2007)

3. Method

In this part of the study, the subject, purpose, hypotheses of the research, the universe and sample of the research, data collection tools and statistical analysis of the data are explained and the findings obtained from the research are interpreted at last section.

3.1 Sample

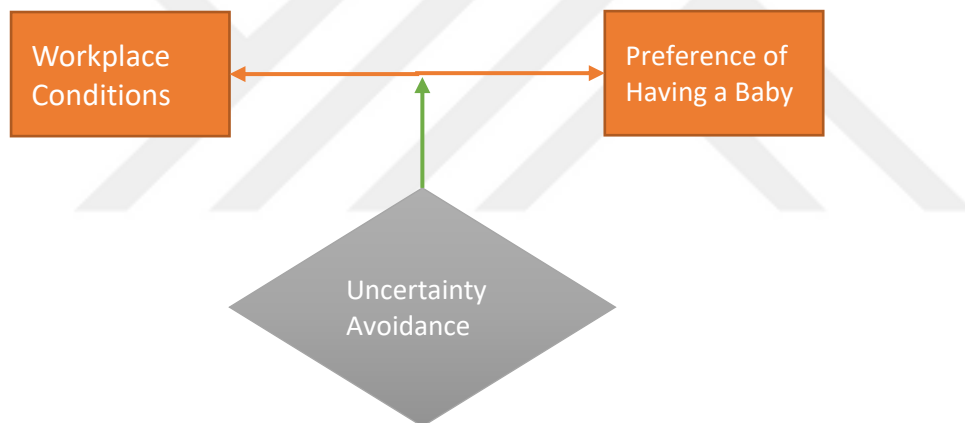
This study does not focus on any sector, was conducted among employees working in private sector. The sample data for this study was acquired from white color women employees working in various companies and in total of 249 samples

were collected and all of the data are expected to be collected from women employees.

3.2 Research Design

A quantitative research method is used for this study. Type of the research design is explanatory, correlational. Explanatory studies purpose at explanation of the nature of the relationship between different concepts.

Figure 1 Research Model



Independent variable is Workplace Conditions.

Dependent variable is Preference of Having a Baby for working women.

Moderating variable is Perception of Uncertainty Avoidance.

The study will use surveys to measure the concepts explained in the previous sections.

Three different questionnaires were used to collect data from white-collar employees working in various companies.

3.3 Data analysis

According to the theoretical framework section following hypotheses are formulated as follows, and they were tested in this study:

H1: Workplace conditions has an impact on working women's preference of having baby.

H1a: Management style and working conditions has an impact on working women's preference of having baby.

H1b: Friendship environment has an impact on working women's preference of having baby.

H1c: Sense of appreciation has an impact on working women's preference of having baby.

H1d: Job satisfaction has an impact on working women's preference of having baby.

H2: Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between workplace conditions and working women's preference of having baby.

H2a: Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between management style and working conditions and working women's preference of having baby.

H2b: Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between Friendship environment and working women's preference of having baby.

H2c: Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between sense of appreciation and working women's preference of having baby.

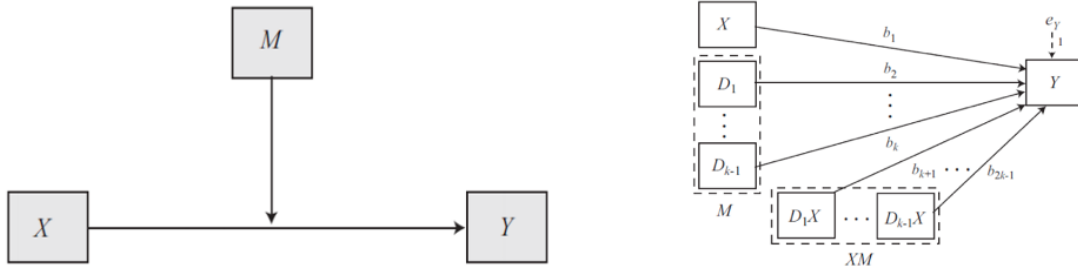
H2d: Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between job satisfaction and working women's preference of having baby.

3.4 Data analysis

The program used for statistical analysis is IBM SPSS Statistics tool's version 24.0. For the descriptive analysis and for the relationship between the concepts used in the study were analyzed using "Linear Regression" analysis in SPSS. The descriptive statistical methods give mean, standard deviation, median, frequency, rate, minimum and maximum statistics. The moderator effect was analyzed by using the "PROCESS" macro of SPSS 24.0. The PROCESS macro is based on the estimation of ordinary least squares (OLS) regression model, used for estimation of model parameters by Hayes. It allows to test approximately 76 different have mediation and moderation effects in research models (Hayes, 2013). We have used Hayes model 1 for testing the moderating effects in this study. Significance values were evaluated at $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.05$ levels in the study.

In order to analyze moderating effect of uncertainty avoidance, model 1 is used. There is a moderation effect of concept M on the relationship between two other concepts X and Y if their relationship's size or sign depends on the M. The moderator effect of M on the relationship between independent and dependent variables, X and Y, is shown on the following (Hayes, 2013). For our study the moderator, uncertainty avoidance concept, effect the relationship between workplace conditions and working women's preference of having baby concepts. This moderation effect is also known as interaction effect.

Figure 2 Hayes Model 1 - Conceptual and Statistical Diagram



$$\text{Conditional effect of } X \text{ over } Y = b_1 + b_{k+1}D_1 + \dots + b_{2k-1}D_{2k-1}$$

(Multicategorical M with k categories – PROCESS v2.14 or later)

3.5 Measurement Instruments

The study will use surveys to measure the concepts explained in the previous sections. This study will use survey which cover white-collar private sector working women between the ages of 18 and 45. Four different questionnaires were used to collect data from the sample.

First questionnaire contains five demographic questions which aim to collect some demographic information from the sample.

Second questionnaire aims the get preference of women employees for having a baby. It was adapted from “Desire to Avoid Pregnancy (DAP” instrument. Original instrument has two sub categories. The first one has five questions to measure if candidate wants be pregnant in three months, and the second one has nine questions to measure if candidate prefers to have a baby in the next year. (Rocca, Ralph, Wilson, Gould, & Foster, 2019). This study only uses the second section with modification of getting preference for the next five years instead of next year.

Third questionnaire measures the workplace conditions. Workplace conditions is measured by using the “workplace conditions scale”. This scale is developed by Erdil et al (2004), by inspiring from Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale. It consists of 18 questions under four categories. Scores are calculated for each category by summing up the scores of each questions under that category. These categories are:

- Management Style and Working Conditions
- Friendship Environment
- Sense of Appreciation
- Job Satisfaction

The Turkish version of this questionnaire, which was used in this thesis, was validated in Redil et al.’s study ($\alpha > .70$, $p < 0.01$) (Erdil, Keskin, İmamoğlu, & Erat, 2004).

The fourth and the last questionnaire contains five questions to measure perceived uncertainty avoidance level. Uncertainty avoidance was measured by CVSCALE, Dorfman and Howel Scales (1988). The scale is contains 22 items (Dorfman & Howell, 1988) . Uncertainty avoidance has 5 related CVSCALE questions. (Yoo & Donthu, 2002) Since this study only focuses on uncertainty avoidance, only these 5 questions are used in this study.

Example of the items included in this scale are “Standard operating procedures are helpful to employees on the job”, “Managers expects employees to closely follow instructions and procedures”. Five Likert point scale ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree” (Yoo, Donthu, & Lenartowicz, 2011).

4. Results

In this part of the study, the results of the research was shown. Starting from each concept, hypothesis test result was measured.

4.1. Analysis of the Variables Used in the Study

4.1.1 Uncertainty Avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance data was collected from the sample by their responses to the 5 questions of CVSCALE, originally published in Dorfman and Howel Scales (1988). This scale has 22 items (Dorfman & Howell, 1988) measuring the 5 dimensions of Hofstede's 5 cultural dimensions . This study uses the only five related CVSCALE questions (Yoo & Donthu, 2002).

Table 1 KMO ve Bartlett's Test Results for Uncertainty Avoidance

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	0.883
Chi-Square	758,741
Df	10
Sig.	<0.000

Table 1 illustrates the measure of Kaiser-Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test for Uncertainty avoidance. KMO measured for this study is 0.883. This value is considered as (appropriate value) for our study.

Table 2 Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for Uncertainty Avoidance

Factors/Items	Factor Loading	Eigen value	Explained Variance (%)
Uncertainty Avoidance			
It is important to have instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I'm expected to do.	0,772		
It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures.	0,909		
Rules and regulations are important because they inform me of what is expected of me.	0,915	3,906	78,124
Standardized work procedures are helpful.	0,882		
Instructions for operations are important.	0,931		

Table 2, according to the results of explanatory factor analysis, the items of the scale formed in one factor which we renamed them as Uncertainty Avoidance. This was expected since we have used only 5 question related to uncertainty avoidance. The eigenvalues, variance explanation ratios of factors and the factor loadings of each item is also given in Table 2. The total variance explanation ratio of these one factors is calculated as 78.124.

Table 3 Cronbach's Alpha Results for Uncertainty Avoidance

	Cronbach's Alpha
Uncertainty Avoidance	0.927

Table 3 illustrates the Cronbach alpha results for the study. The item loading is 0.9 which demonstrates that internal consistency of our result is good (acceptable), in other word they are reliable.

4.1.2 Preference of Having Baby

The Preference of women employees for having a baby was measured by the questions adapted from “Desire to Avoid Pregnancy (DAP)” instrument. Even though the original DAP instrument has two sets of questions, only the second set was adapted. The first one aims to measure the preference of being pregnant in the three months while nine questions in the second one aims to measure if candidate prefers to have a baby in the next year. (Rocca, Ralph, Wilson, Gould, & Foster, 2019). This study used the second set with modification of getting preference for the next five years instead of next year. The data collected for this concept was from responses of these nine adapted questions.

Table 4 KMO ve Bartlett's Test Results for Preference of Having Baby

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	0.761
Chi-Square	219,883
Df	10
Sig.	<0.001

Table 1 illustrates the measure of Kaiser-Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett Sphericity Test for Preference of Having Baby concept. Based on this study's collected data, KMO value measured as 0.761. This value is considered as (appropriate value) for our study.

Table 5 Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for Preference of Having Baby

Factors/Items	Factor Loading	Eigen value	Explained Variance (%)
Preference of Having Baby			
I want to have a baby in the next 5 years.	0,642	5,359	59,545

Having a baby in the next 5 years will be a positive part of my life.	0,681
Thinking about having a baby in the next 5 years makes me smile.	0,650
If I had a baby in the next 5 years, it would be bad for my life.	0,901
Having a baby in the next 5 years is like the end of the world for me.	0,862
Thinking about having a baby in the next 5 years is stressing me out.	0,775
If I had a baby in the next 5 years, I would lose my freedom.	0,822
If I had a baby in the next 5 years, it would be difficult for me to raise the child.	0,762
I am worried that having a baby in the next 5 years will make it difficult for me to achieve other things in my life.	0,804

Table 5, according to the results of explanatory factor analysis, the items of the scale formed in one factor which we renamed them as Preference Of Having Baby. This is again due to the fact that the data was collected on the only one sub set of questions for the preference of having baby concept. The eigenvalues, variance explanation ratios of factors and the factor loadings of each item is also given in Table 5. The total variance explanation ratio of these two factors is calculated as 59.545.

Table 6 Cronbach's Alpha Results for Preference of Having Baby

	Cronbach's Alpha
Preference Of Having Baby	0.758

Table 6 illustrates the Cronbach alpha results for the study. All our item loadings are between 0.6 to 0.9 which demonstrates that internal consistency of our result is acceptable.

4.1.3 Workplace Conditions

The data for workplace conditions concept was collected by responses from the 18 questions of the “workplace conditions scale”. This scale is developed by Erdil et al (2004), by inspiring from Minnesota Job Satisfaction Scale. The instrument has 18 questions under four categories which are:

- Management Style and Working Conditions
- Friendship Environment
- Sense of Appreciation
- Job Satisfaction

The Turkish version of this questionnaire was used in this study and they are validated in Erdil et al.'s study ($\alpha > .70$, $p < 0.01$) (Erdil, Keskin, İmamoğlu, & Erat, 2004).

Table 7 KMO ve Bartlett's Test Results for Working Conditions

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	0.935
Chi-Square	3414,734
Df	153
Sig.	<0.000

Table 7 illustrates the measure of Kaiser-Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett Sphericity Test. This study determines that KMO measured is 0.935. This value is considered as (appropriate value) for our study.

Table 8 Exploratory Factor Analysis Results for Working Conditions

Factors/Items	Factor Loading	Eigen value	Explained Variance (%)
Management Style and Working Conditions			
The organization's attitude towards the employees	0,802		
Employees' control ability of their work	0,791	11,304	62,802
How the workplace is managed	0,828		
Physical conditions of the workplace	0,672		

Employees' trust in workplace management	0,807		
How workplace management rules are applied in practice	0,834		
Employee participation in decision making	0,798		
Friendship Environment			
Cooperative atmosphere between colleagues	0,804		
Opportunity to establish close relationships with colleagues	0,764		
		1,855	10,306
Sincerity among colleagues	0,722		
Ease of making friends with other employees	0,703		
The way colleagues get along with each other	0,772		
Sense of Appreciation			
Appreciation when work is done well	0,858		
Paying attention to the work done	0,841	0,928	5,158
How to reward the for good work	0,827		
Expression style if the job is done well	0,883		
Job Satisfaction			
Execution of employees' duties with their best effort	0,747	0,743	4,128
Employees' desire to be "the best" in their job	0,780		

Table 8, according to the results of explanatory factor analysis, the items of the scale formed in four factors which we renamed them as management style and working

conditions, friendship environment, sense of appreciation and job satisfaction. The eigenvalues, variance explanation ratios of factors and the factor loadings of each item is also given in Table 8. The total variance explanation ratio of these four factors is calculated as 82,394.

Table 9 Cronbach's Alpha Results for Working Conditions

	Cronbach's Alpha
Management Style and Working Conditions	0.929
Friendship Environment	0,948
Sense of Appreciation	0,754
Job Satisfaction	0,907

Table 9 illustrates the Cronbach alpha results for the study. All our item loadings are

between 0.6 to 0.9 which demonstrates that internal consistency of our result is good (acceptable).

4.2 Demographic Distribution

The demographic distribution of the responders of this study is shown in Table 10, below. The results were obtained from the responses of demographic questions.

Table 10 Demographic Distribution

		n	%
Age	18-24	8	3,2
	25-32	107	42,9
	33-40	101	40,6
	41-45	33	13,3
Total Years of Experience	Less than 1 year	10	4,0
	1-3 years	14	5,6
	4-6 years	53	21,3
	7-10 years	76	30,5
	11-15 years	59	23,7
	16 years or more	37	14,9
Experience in Current Company	Less than 1 year	26	10,5
	1-3 years	67	26,9
	4-6 years	83	33,3
	7-10 years	44	17,7
	11-15 years	10	4,0
	16 years or more	19	7,6
Number of Children	No children	149	59,8
	1 child	74	29,7

2 children	23	9,3
3 children	3	1,2

According to demographic distribution of the responders, shown on Table 10 %83.5 of the responders are between 25-40 years old. 59,8 percent of them don't have any children. All of them are working.

4.3. Testing the Hypothesis

H1: Workplace conditions has an impact on working women's preference of having baby.

	B	S.H.	t	p
Constant	1,933	0,208	9,308	0,000**
Workplace Conditions	0,237	0,060	3,919	0,001**

**p<0,01

The simple linear regression model between the "workplace conditions" considered as an independent variable and the "preference of having baby" considered as the dependent variable was found significant (B = 0.237; p = 0.001; <0.05; Adjusted R2: 0.076). A 1 unit increase in the workplace conditions will result in an increase of 0.237 units in preference of having baby.

H1a: Management style and working conditions has an impact on working women's preference of having baby.

	B	S.H.	t	p
Constant	1,982	0,193	10,267	0,000**
Management Style and Working Conditions	0,227	0,057	3,971	0,001**

**p<0,01

The simple linear regression model between the "management style and working conditions" considered as an independent variable and the "preference of having baby" considered as the dependent variable was found significant (B = 0.227; p = 0.001; <0.05; Adjusted R2: 0.076). A 1 unit increase in the management style and working conditions will result in an increase of 0.227 units in preference of having baby.

H1b: Friendship environment has an impact on working women's preference of having baby.

	B	S.H.	t	p
Constant	1,967	0,212	9,298	0,000**
Friendship Environment	0,207	0,056	3,675	0,001**

**p<0,01

The simple linear regression model between the "friendship environment" considered as an independent variable and the "preference of having baby" considered as the dependent variable was found significant ($B = 0.207$; $p = 0.001$; <0.05 ; Adjusted R^2 : 0.065). A 1 unit increase in the friendship environment will result in an increase of 0.207 units in preference of having baby.

H1c: Sense of appreciation has an impact on working women's preference of having baby.

	B	S.H.	t	p
Constant	2,209	0,167	13,192	0,000**
Sense of Appreciation	0,163	0,051	3,217	0,002**

** $p < 0,01$

The simple linear regression model between the "sense of appreciation" considered as an independent variable and the "preference of having baby" considered as the dependent variable was found significant ($B = 0.163$; $p = 0.002$; <0.05 ; Adjusted R^2 : 0.049). A 1 unit increase in the sense of appreciation will result in an increase of 0.163 units in preference of having baby.

H1d: Job satisfaction has an impact on working women's preference of having baby.

	B	S.H.	t	p
Constant	2,253	0,172	13,059	0,000**
Job Satisfaction	0,144	0,050	2,849	0,005**

**p<0,01

The simple linear regression model between the "job satisfaction" considered as an independent variable and the "preference of having baby" considered as the dependent variable was found significant (B = 0.144; p = 0.005; <0.05; Adjusted R2: 0.038). A 1 unit increase in the job satisfaction will result in an increase of 0.144 units in preference of having baby.

H2: Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between workplace conditions and working women's preference of having baby

	B	S.H.	t	p
Constant	2,737	0,050	54,787	0,000**
<i>Uncertainty avoidance</i>	0,234	0,069	3,384	0,001**
<i>Workplace Conditions</i>	0,142	0,064	2,199	0,029*
<i>Int_1</i>	-0,083	0,048	-1,708	0,089
**p<0,01		*p<0,05		

Uncertainty avoidance does not appear to have a significant effect on the relationship between workplace conditions and working women's preference of having baby ($p>0.05$). According to these results, hypothesis 2: "Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between workplace conditions and working women's preference of having baby" it was rejected.

H2a: Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between management style and working conditions and working women's preference of having baby

	B	S.H.	t	p
Constant	2,734	0,049	55,014	0,000**
<i>Uncertainty voidance</i>	0,240	0,066	3,627	0,001**
<i>Management style and working conditions</i>	0,152	0,057	2,665	0,008*
<i>Int_1</i>	-0,081	0,045	-1,803	0,049*
**p<0,01		*p<0,05		

Uncertainty avoidance does appear to have a significant effect on the relationship between management style and working conditions and working women's preference of having baby ($p=0,049$; $p<0,05$). According to these results, hypothesis 2a: "Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between management style and working conditions and working women's preference of having baby" it was accepted.

H2b: Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between Friendship environment and working women's preference of having baby

	B	S.H.	t	p
Constant	2,744	0,049	55,567	0,000**
<i>Uncertainty avoidance</i>	0,221	0,069	3,201	0,001**
<i>Friendship environment</i>	0,096	0,056	1,698	0,009**
<i>Int_1</i>	-0,090	0,042	-2,110	0,036*
**p<0,01		*p<0,05		

Uncertainty avoidance does appear to have a significant effect on the relationship between friendship environment and working women's preference of having baby ($p=0,036$; $p<0.05$). According to these results, hypothesis 2b: "Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between friendship environment and working women's preference of having baby" it was accepted.

H2c: Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between sense of appreciation and working women's preference of having baby

	B	S.H.	t	p
Constant	2,735	0,050	54,672	0,000**
<i>Uncertainty avoidance</i>	0,245	0,070	3,478	0,006**
<i>Sense of appreciation</i>	0,106	0,058	1,827	0,069
<i>Int_1</i>	-0,071	0,053	-1,338	0,184
**p<0,01		*p<0,05		

Uncertainty avoidance does not appear to have a significant effect on the relationship between sense of appreciation and working women's preference of having baby ($p>0.05$). According to these results, hypothesis 2c: "Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between sense of appreciation and working women's preference of having baby" it was rejected.

H2d: Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between job satisfaction and working women's preference of having baby

	B	S.H.	t	p
Constant	2,730	0,049	54,878	0,000**
<i>Uncertainty avoidance</i>	0,256	0,063	4,049	0,001**
<i>Job satisfaction</i>	0,099	0,051	1,944	0,053
<i>Int_1</i>	-0,076	0,042	-1,800	0,073
**p<0,01		*p<0,05		

Uncertainty avoidance does not appear to have a significant effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and working women's preference of having baby ($p>0.05$). According to these results, hypothesis 2d: "Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between job satisfaction and working women's preference of having baby" it was rejected.

Table 11 Hypothesis Summary

<i>Hypothesis</i>	<i>Status</i>
<i>H1: Workplace conditions has an impact on working women's preference of having baby.</i>	<i>Accepted</i>
<i>H1a: Management style and working conditions has an impact on working women's preference of having baby.</i>	<i>Accepted</i>
<i>H1b: Friendship environment has an impact on working women's preference of having baby.</i>	<i>Accepted</i>

<i>H1c: Sense of appreciation has an impact on working women's preference of having baby.</i>	Accepted
<i>H1d: Job satisfaction has an impact on working women's preference of having baby.</i>	Accepted
<i>H2: Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between workplace conditions and working women's preference of having baby</i>	Rejected
<i>H2a: Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between management style and working conditions and working women's preference of having baby</i>	Accepted
<i>H2b: Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between Friendship environment and working women's preference of having baby</i>	Accepted
<i>H2c: Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between sense of appreciation and working women's preference of having baby</i>	Rejected
<i>H2d: Uncertainty avoidance also has a moderator effect in the relationship between job satisfaction and working women's preference of having baby</i>	Rejected

5. Discussion

In this study, the effects of workplace conditions on having a baby were investigated. With this context, this study was carried out on 249 people. 60% of the participants do not have children.

Working conditions and having a baby were examined by regression analysis. The regulatory effect of uncertainty avoidance in this model was examined using Model 1 technique developed by Hayes.

The results showed that all working conditions, including management style and working conditions, friendship environment, sense of appreciation and job satisfaction, have an effect on women's preference of having a baby. Based on the results of the study "management style and working conditions" category has the strongest relation with women's preference of having a baby. Women who worry about losing her job, or not being able to return to their current jobs after having a baby, can postpone their thoughts of having children.

If general uncertainties in workplaces disappear, thought of having children might change. When the uncertainties disappear, the friendship environment becomes more effective. When the society can be considered as pressure, friendship relations can also be effective in this decision as well as the environment. Our study showed that uncertainty avoidance has a moderator effect on the relation between friendship environment and working women's preference of having baby. This result can explain why the working women prefer to have a baby in a better friendship environment.

A study focused on 2007 German Reform also shows the effect of uncertainty and trust on decision of having baby. When maternity leave benefits proportional to their wages, women's career uncertainties on the decision of having baby are

decreased. This reform helped to increase the fertility rate of Germany especially among high earning women by reducing the uncertainty level in their career with a policy change (Raute, 2019).

Workplace conditions like working hours also have an impact on pregnancy planning in managing the work-life balance. Excessive working hours can create an imbalance which negatively affects personal and social life of an individual (Bielby, 1992). Therefore, those women working in a lo work-life balance environment may postpone their decision on having a baby.

In spite of the fact that being a mother doesn't legitimize the entire pay discrimination, studies show that working mothers are paid less compared to the women without children. Another perspective for separation might be strategies. Laws force obligation on managers can build the discrimination of women by making it less speaking to businesses. Redistributing the burden from the employers can assist to reduce discrimination (Palley, 2016).

Another recent study, focused on South Korean working women, demonstrates that women from low and medium income who experience gender discrimination in the workplace have significantly lower pregnancy plans compared to the women do not experience that. To be specific, there is a correlation between gender discrimination in the work environment and decision of having baby (Kim, Oh, Bae, Park , & Jang, 2019).

The findings of this study have important implications for understanding the relationship between workplace conditions and preference having a baby for working women. Based on our findings we can say that working condition has an important impact on the women's preferences of having baby. This study focused on four sub

factors under the concept of working condition. These factors are “management style and working conditions”, “friendship environment”, “sense of appreciation” and “job satisfaction”. While all four factors have impact on working women’s preference, the strongest one was “management style and working conditions” followed by “friendship environment”. It proved the first hypothesis.

The second hypothesis suggests that uncertainty avoidance dimension of the Hofstede’s cultural dimensions to the relationship between workplace conditions and preference of having a baby for working women. Even though we cannot prove this hypothesis when we look at the concept of working conditions as whole, we could see the moderating effect exists for the two sub factors of the working conditions relationships, “management style and working conditions” and “friendship environment”. These two sub factors are the same two factors which have the strongest relationship with women’s preference on having a baby. The percentage explained variance of “sense of appreciation” and “job satisfaction” factors are low compared to “management style and working conditions” and “friendship environment”. Therefore, this hypothesis is proved for two of the four sub factors of working conditions. We could say that it was partly proved.

When setting up organizational environment, “management style and working conditions” and “friendship environment” should be focused well. These two factors are also important for uncertain environments. “Sense of appreciation” and “job satisfaction” are the two factors has impact on women’s preference on having a baby, and these factors are not modified by the perception of uncertainty avoidance of the working women. Sadeghi et al. (2013) study on basic psychological needs’ effect on job satisfaction, find no significant effect of uncertainty avoidance on basic needs

thereby not a significant effect on job satisfaction. Their findings support our results on this study.

This study will contribute for companies to adapt their policies and work conditions to help women with baby to return work easier after giving a birth. It will help to know how the cultural characteristics' effect to this relation. Therefore, the companies should work on improving their management style and working conditions as well as friendship environment in their company in order to make their women employees feel secure and increase their preference of having a baby during their work life. Since based on results of this study, some companies may behave in opposite direction to reduce pregnancy on their employees, governments should ensure improvements.

One of the limitations of this study is that most of the women employees who answer the questionnaires belong to the same cultural group. Beside this, the data was collected during the covid-19 pandemic.

For the future studies conducting a similar study after covid-19 pandemic and comparing the results with this study's result is suggested. This study can be repeated with women employees from different cultures. This may allow researchers to obtain more detailed information on culture's effect on women's preference of having a baby during their employment life. Lastly, a new study may be conducted to compare similar data between women employees working on their team's company location and working from a remote location such as home, working-ton, different company locations etc.

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Appendices

Appendix I - Questions and Answers about WOMEN IN THE WORKFORCE:

A Sloan Work and Family Research Network Fact Sheet

(Sloan Work and Family Network, 2009)

Introduction :

The Sloan Work and Family Research Network has prepared Fact Sheets that provide statistical answers to some important questions about work-family and work-life issues. This Fact Sheet includes statistics about Women in the Workforce. (Last updated: October 2009)

Questions:

1. How many women are in the workforce?

Fact 1 “The labor force participation rate of all women ages 25 to 54, after rising sharply over the past half century, has been basically unchanged since the mid 1990s, plateauing at about 75%” (Pew Research Center, 2007, p. 2).

Fact 2 “In 1975, 47% of mothers with children under 18 participated in the U.S. labor force. By 2007, 32 years later, that proportion had risen to 71%” (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008, p. 4).

Fact 3 “Over two-thirds (67.1 percent) of highly educated women in their thirties with a young child at home are in the labor force” (Boushey, 2005, p. 11).

2. Where are women working?

Fact 1 “Although 49 percent of wage and salaried employees are women, only 41 percent of (self- employed) independents and 31 percent of (small business) owners are” (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2002, p. 47).

Fact 2 “...women are more likely to have white collar jobs as professionals (23% versus 16% for men) and in administrative support (22% versus 8% for men)” (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2002, p. 7).

Fact 3 “Men are much more likely (43%) to have blue collar jobs in production, machine operation, and repair than women (10%)” (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2002, p. 7).

3. What is the impact of women in leadership positions?

Fact 1 “The proportion of workers whose immediate boss is a woman has consistently increased over the last 10 years, from 21% to almost 25%” (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2005, p. 7).

4. Do women want jobs with more responsibility?

Fact 1 “Since 1997, the desire to move to jobs with more responsibility among young workers has increased. This increase has been greater for young women—from 54% to 66%—than young men—from 61% to 67%” (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008, p. 1).

Fact 2 In 2008, “among Millennial women (under 29) who did not want jobs with more responsibility, 31% cited concerns about the increased job pressure that goes

along with greater responsibility at work, 19% said they already have a high-level job with a lot of responsibility, and 15% were concerned about not having enough flexibility to successfully manage work and personal or family life in a job with more responsibility” (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008, p. 2).

5. How do women’s education levels compare to those of men?

Fact 1 “In the 2005-2006 academic year (the most recent year for which data are available), women earned 58% of all bachelor’s degrees and 60% of master’s degrees. By comparison, men earned 42% of bachelor’s degrees and 40% of master’s degrees in 2005-2006. By 2016, women are projected to earn 60% of bachelor’s, 63% of master’s and 54% of doctorate and professional degrees” (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008, p. 6).

Fact 2 “Between the late 50s and the mid 90s, men had an advantage over women in college graduation of about six to seven percentage points” (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008, p. 5).

Fact 3 “In every year from 1940 through 2007, men 25 years old and older are at least somewhat more likely (in absolute terms) than women of the same ages to have completed four years of college or more. The differences between men and women are smallest in 2007 (1.5 percentage points) and, interestingly, in 1940 (1.7 percentage points) when college graduation rates were very low for everybody except the well-to-do” (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008, p. 5).

6. How does the income of women compare to the income of men?

Fact 1 “In 1979, the average full-time employed woman earned 62% of what men earned on a weekly basis. In the early 1990s, the wage gap narrowed, largely as a function of a decline in men’s wages. By 2007, however, the average full-time employed woman earned 80% of what men earned on a weekly basis, a big increase, but still a large gap” (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008, p. 7).

Fact 2 “Employed women 20 to 24 years old in 2007 who were paid on an hourly basis earned 90% of what their male counterparts earned, and teenage women 16 to 19 years old earned 95% of what their male counterparts earned” (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008, p. 8).

Fact 3 “The median hourly earnings of women (\$12.50) are significantly lower than men’s median hourly earnings (\$16.32) by nearly four dollars per hour” (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2002, p. 8).

Fact 4 “In 2008, employed women in dual-earner couples contributed an average of 44% of annual family income. This reflects a significant increase from an average of 39% in 1997—only 11 years ago” (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008, p. 8).

Fact 5 “Employees who work in administrative support positions earn significantly less on average than employees in other positions, and women are much more likely (22%) than men (8%) to work in such positions” (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2002, p. 12).

Fact 6 “Tenure with an employer is predictive of earnings, and women have less tenure at their jobs on average (7 years) than men (8 years)” (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2002, p. 11).

7. Does having children affect the rate at which women participate in the labor force?

Fact 1 “Among mothers with very young children (under 3 years of age), there was a small decline in the labor force participation rate between the peak year of 1998 (62%) and the most recent year for which figures are available, 2005 (59%)” (Pew Research Center, 2007, p. 2).

Fact 2 “The recession of the early 2000s was harder on women than the recessions of the 1980s or 1990s...Compared to 1984, prime-age women (25-45) were 3.5 percentage points more likely to be employed in 2000, but only 0.8 percentage points more likely to be employed in 2004. Thus, women were overall less likely to be in the labor force in 2004, compared to 2000 (3.5 percent versus 0.8 percent)” (Boushey, 2005, p. 7).

Fact 3 “In 2004, prime-age women (25-45) with children at home were 9.2 percentage points less likely to be in the labor force than were women without children, down from a 9.9 percentage-point penalty in 2000” (Boushey, 2005, p. 2).

Fact 4 “In 2004, among women with any children, the business cycle penalty (the labor market’s effect on participation rates) was 7.6 percentage points for women with a high-school degree and 3.4 percentage points for women with a college degree, while women with an advanced degree have only a 0.5 percentage point penalty” (Boushey, 2005, p. 13).

Fact 5 “Nearly three-quarters of women with a graduate degree who have a child under age 18 at home are in the labor force, a rate higher than all other educational groups in this age range, except for women with some college...Only 67.7 percent of

women with a high-school degree who have a child at home are in the labor force” (Boushey, 2005, p. 11).

Fact 6 “Ninety-six point eight percent of women aged 25 to 45 with children are not women in their mid- to late-thirties who have advanced degrees” (Boushey, 2005, p. 11).

8. What are people’s opinions about the impact of working mothers on society?

Fact 1 “A 44% plurality of at-home moms consider the increase in working mothers bad for society while about half as many (22%) say it is good for society and the remainder take a neutral position (31%). By contrast, working moms are split almost evenly between positive (34%), negative (34%), and neutral (31%) views of how this trend is affecting society” (Pew Research Center, 2007, p. 4).

Fact 2 “Twenty-four percent of mothers with a college degree say more working mothers is a good thing for society, up from 9% in 1997. Mothers with no more than a high school diploma are about equally likely to say this trend is a good thing for society now (32%) as did so a decade ago (27%)” (Pew Research Center, 2007, p. 4).

9. What are people’s opinions about the impact of working mothers on their children?

Fact 1 “At-home mothers (44%) are more likely than employed mothers (30%) to say an at-home mom is the ideal situation for children. The at-home group is narrowly divided over whether part-time (41%) or no outside work (44%) is the ideal situation for children. Just one-in-ten says a full-time working mother is ideal for the children” (Pew Research Center, 2007, p. 5). Close to a duplicate

Fact 2 “A majority of working mothers (52%) say that a mother working part-time is ideal for children. Three-in-ten say a mother who doesn’t work outside the home would be ideal for children and about one-in- ten (11%) say that a full-time working mother is ideal for children” (Pew Research Center, 2007, p. 5).

Fact 3 “Mothers working full-time give themselves slightly lower ratings as parents, on average, than do at-home mothers or mothers employed part-time” (Pew Research Center, 2007, p. 2).

Fact 4 “About four-in-ten (42%) adults say an at-home mother is the ideal situation for children; a nearly identical proportion (41%) say a mother working part-time is ideal and just 9% say a mother working full-time is ideal for children” (Pew Research Center, 2007, p. 8).

10. How have opinions changed about mothers who work and their relationships with their children?

Fact 1 “The percentage of all employees of all ages who agree (strongly or somewhat) that it’s better for all involved if ‘the man earns the money and the woman takes care of the home and children’ has dropped significantly and substantially over the past three decades—from 64% in 1977 to 41% in 2008, a decline of 23 percentage points. Nevertheless, it is important to note that two in five employees still endorse traditional gender roles” (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008, p. 9).

Fact 2 “...women under 30 years old are less likely (31%) than older women (41%) to feel that men should earn the money and women should take care of the home and children” (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2002, p. 5).

Fact 3 “In 1977, 70% of men in dual-earner couples thought it was better for men to earn the money and for women to care for the home and children. By 2008, only 37% of men in dual-earner couples felt this way, perhaps in part reflecting the fact that family income has become increasingly dependent on women’s earnings” (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008, p. 11).

Fact 4 “The percentage of employees who agree (strongly or somewhat) that ‘a mother who works outside the home can have just as good a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work’ has increased significantly over the past three decades from 58% in 1977 to 73% in 2008” (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008, p. 12).

11. Who is taking care of the children and household chores now that more women are working?

Fact 1 “The amount of time fathers spend with their children under 13 on workdays has increased from two hours to three hours—an increase of one hour. At the same time, the amount of time mothers spend with their children under 13 on workdays has remained constant at an average of 3.8 hours” (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008, p. 14).

Fact 2 “In 2008, men who say their wives or partners take the most responsibility for child care are no longer the majority (48% in 2008 compared with 58% in 1992). The nearly half of employed men (49%) who now say they take most or an equal share of child care responsibilities is up from 41% in 1992” (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008, p. 16).

Fact 3 “The percentage of women who say they do most of the cooking has dropped from 75% in 1992 to 70% in 2008, while the percentage of women who say their husbands do most or an equal share of cooking increased from 15% in 1992 to 25% in 2008” (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008, p. 17).

Fact 4 “In 1977, the proportions of men and women reporting some or a lot of work-life conflict were similar. Men’s work-life conflict, however, has increased significantly from 34% in 1977 to 45% in 2008, while women’s work-life conflict has increased less dramatically and not significantly: from 34% in 1977 to 39% in 2008” (Galinsky, Aumann, & Bond, 2008, p. 18).

Appendix II - Pregnancy discrimination at work: a survey of employers

(Young & Morrell, 2005)

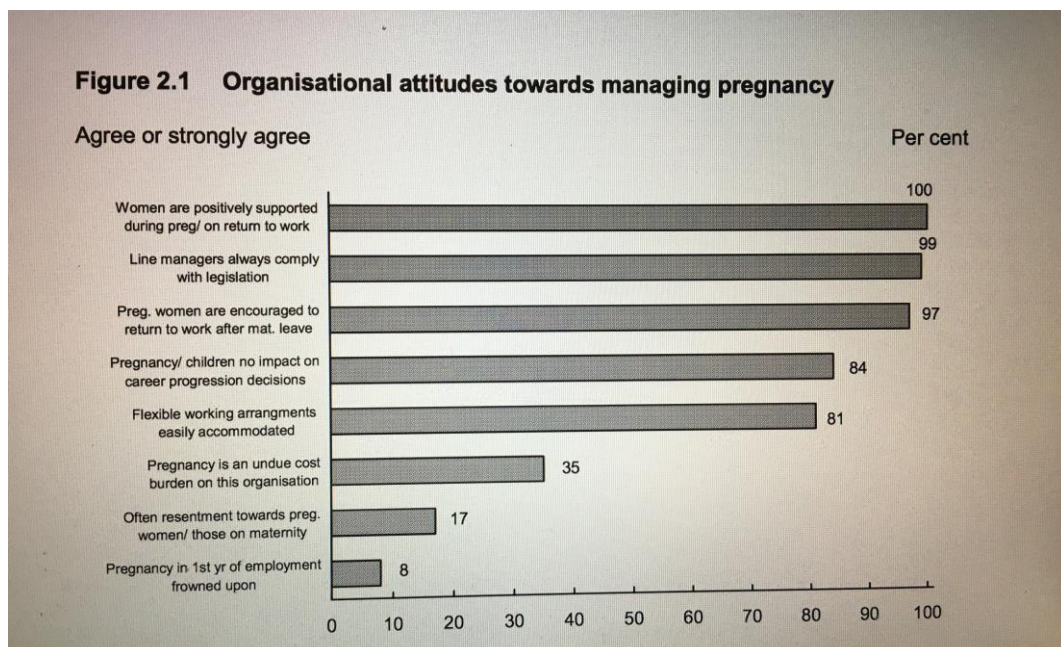
All employers were asked to what extent they agreed with a series of statements concerning attitudes towards pregnancy within their organisation, using a scale strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree. The eight statements examined were:

1. Women working for this organisation are positively supported during a pregnancy and on return to work.
2. Line managers in this organisation always comply with legislation relating to pregnant women at work.
3. Pregnant women working for this organisation are encouraged to return to work after maternity leave.
4. Within this organisation, whether a woman is pregnant or has young children has no impact on decisions regarding career progression or promotion.
5. Flexible working arrangements are easily accommodated within this organisation.
6. Pregnancy places an undue cost burden on this organisation.
7. There is often resentment amongst the wider team towards women who are pregnant or on maternity leave.
8. Pregnancy within the first year of employment is frowned upon within this Organisation.

Of those respondents who felt able to provide a rating, all agreed that ‘women working for this organisation are positively supported during pregnancy and on return to work’. A similar proportion agreed that ‘line managers in this organization always comply with legislation relating to pregnant women at work’ (although this latter result contrasts with evidence relating to line manager awareness of maternity rights, discussed later in this chapter).

In addition, 97 per cent agreed that ‘pregnant women working for this organization are encouraged to return to work after maternity leave’. For all three statements, there were no significant differences when the type of workplace or the type of respondent was considered.

Figure: Organisational attitudes towards managing pregnancy



The majority of employers (81 per cent) also agreed that flexible working arrangements were easily accommodated in their organisation, and again, views were roughly consistent between different sizes of workplace and between different industry sectors. However, as the age of the respondent increased, the proportion agreeing with the attitude statement decreased, suggesting that younger respondents may be more amenable to the concept of flexible working practices.

I think we are very flexible. When women do return from leave, we offer flexible hours; we offer a lot of policies.

Our head teacher is female and the majority of our staff are female, and I find that women are generally more supportive. We are also very accommodating when a woman returns to work and (we) can accommodate part time workers.

We could try to be more flexible concerning working hours after returning from maternity leave, however, this is quite a traditional company in that you are expected to give your all.

When considering the wider issue of career progression, 84 per cent of employers agreed that within their organisation, whether a woman was pregnant or has young children had no impact on decisions regarding career progression or promotion. At first glance this appeared to be a positive result, but it is of concern that 16 per cent of employers disagreed with this statement.