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## Employment preferences and expectations regarding employment relationship of South Korean and European business students

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### Abstract

*The psychological contract perspective is adopted to explore the employment expectations of business students in Poland, Slovenia, UK and South Korea. The main findings show some significant differences among the students regarding their preferred employment. For example, the South Korean students prefer larger and public companies. Overall, the students expect more relational and balanced dimensions of a psychological contract than transactional ones. However, there are significant differences in the elements, dimensions and types of psychological contract between the countries. The Polish and Slovenian responses show more elements of a transactional contract than the UK and Korean. The level of trust is important for building the expectations of a relational psychological contract, and the levels of trust differ by country and according to prior working experience. The implications of results for talent management, internships and education systems are also discussed.*

### 1. Introduction

Workforce diversity is a given fact for most organizations in an increasingly global business environment, with cultural and generational differences being among the most extant sources of diversity. Understanding the young generation at work in different cultures is becoming an increasingly important challenge for employers, as some research suggests that the so-called “millennials” are the most

expensive workforce mostly due to high turnover costs [1]. Companies report difficulties with attracting young talent, as well as managing them [2] because of a lower work centrality [3]. Therefore, our paper aims to contribute to this knowledge and help employers effectively manage novice graduates at work.

We adopted the psychological contract perspective to explore employment expectations, as the psychological contract is an important framework for understanding the employment relationship, employee behavior and work outcomes [4]. The psychological contract (PC) is an individual’s belief in the mutual

bligations between the employee and the employer [5]. Research consistently shows that if a breach of the PC occurs, i.e. if employees perceive that organizations have failed to fulfill their promises or obligations, this breach leads to negative work outcomes (e.g. job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intentions) [6]. However, despite extensive research on PC and their breach over the last fifteen years, national culture and generational differences have both been essentially neglected [7], [2]. Also, most studies deal with the breach of the PC rather than with its content [8] and simply assume that the content is general across most types of individuals [9]. Recently, several studies have identified the need to better understand anticipatory psychological contracts (APC) [10], especially those of graduates, because APCs affect how novices at work perceive and react to employment relationships. The APC refers to individuals’ pre-employment beliefs about their future employment relationship, including promises they want to make to their future employers

and inducements they expect to receive in return [11]. Notwithstanding, there have been several studies that highlighted national differences [7], [12], [13] and generational differences [8], [10], [14]. Yet, to the best of our knowledge no such research has been conducted in the countries included in this paper, except for the UK [7], [12], [13], and very few papers have focused on those born after 1990 [11]. Accordingly, this study attempts to fill these gaps by increasing our understanding of the employment preferences and expectations of future young entrants to the job market in four different countries. We aim to show what kinds of PC employers can expect from the young graduates when they get employed.

This paper focuses on three main research questions: 1) What are the employment preferences of young business students regarding the size and type of employer?, 2) What are the typical characteristics of the kind of psychological contracts for young business students?, and 3) Are there differences among the types of psychological contract regarding demographics, preferred types of employment, and general levels of trust in employer. By answering these questions and discussing our findings we add to the understanding of the expectations of young entrants to the labor market, thereby helping employers and educators alike to manage young talent and effectively assist them during the transition from education to the labor market and create positive early career experiences for the young and good business results for employers. Effectively attracting, managing and retaining young talent has become of great importance in all four countries due to unfavorable demographic trends and changing forms of employment relationships.

## 2. Literature review

Psychological contracts are not a new phenomenon and the term was first coined by Argyris in 1960 [15] to highlight the importance of perceptions in evaluating employment relationships. The concept is theoretically grounded in Blau's social exchange theory [16] as employment relationships can be viewed as a series of interactions between employees and employers. They both react according to the norm of reciprocity and thus mutual obligations occur over time [17], and these obligations then as social exchanges form a psychological contract [18]. PCs are not in a written form, but rather implicit and based on promises regarding employee ability, effort, and loyalty exchanged for expected organizational returns such as pay, promotion, care for employee well-being, job security etc. [19]. PC can be understood as mental models used by employees to assess their employment relationship and choose their actions [20]. Ample research has shown that the fulfilment of mutual obligations has a positive effect on work outcomes such as commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, while a breach has negative effects on the same and also increases turnover intentions [6], [21].

When a breach of the PC occurs, employees lower their input to the social exchange to restore the balance as they perceive it [18].

According to Rousseau [5], PC can be classified either as transactional (short-term with a mostly materialistic focus), relational (long-term and not restricted to economic exchange), or balanced (dynamic and open-ended employment arrangements that include both the economic success of the firm and employee opportunities to develop career advantages). The balanced type was added to the usual transactional – relational continuum in order to reflect changes in the employment relationships due to flexibilization, new forms of work, knowledge economy, globalization etc. Research has shown that relational PC are positively related to work outcomes such as commitment and organizational citizenship behavior [22], while transactional contracts have a negative impact and increase turnover intentions. Thus, the preferred type of contracts from the employer perspective would be the relational type.

When it comes to the PCs of the young generation, there are a few empirical studies which point to the complexity of the issue. Namely, on one hand, the young are usually seen as having very high expectations [23], [24]. Some authors even talk about a sense of entitlement or deservingness being present among the young [25]. On the other hand, current economic and labor market conditions are having a negative effect especially on the young generation where relatively high levels of unemployment among youth, difficulties to find a job, temporary work assignments, and general uncertainty have lowered their expectations [10], [26]. Negative past experiences, either while working or just observing events in the surrounding environment, such as layoffs, reduced salaries, loss of status, can also effect the formation of PCs [27]. Thus, while the young were known to focus on relational contracts, especially the developmental component, a more transactional view would seem to prevail more recently [28], also due to a lower work centrality for the young, as reported by several researchers [24], [29]. D'Amato and Herzfeld [30] suggest that the younger generation can have a stronger learning orientation, yet also exhibits lower levels of organizational commitment.

Thus, understanding how the young form PCs and the content of such contracts is of great importance if we want to effectively attract, manage, and retain talent. It is also important to prevent a breach of the psychological contract, because according to the life span control theory [30] young novice employees do not have good control over how they react to emotional events and thus may react more negatively to perceived unfair treatment or feelings of not being valued and recognized in the work environment [31]. This may be the reason why APCs are beginning to attract researcher interest [27], [10], [11]. De Vos et al. [11] argue that PC are dynamic and already formed based on pre-employment experiences, followed by early employment and socialization processes. Through their pre-employment experiences, the young form

perceptions about trust in employers and these perceptions also have a strong impact on their orientation towards relational rather than transactional PC [4], [34].

It is widely accepted that PC are subjective in nature and thus affected by individual characteristics, such as values and attitudes [8] and demographics [9]. Following the argument by Markus and Kitayama [34], that culture shapes psychological processes, national culture has also been incorporated into the research on PC. Yet, such studies are rather few in number and limited to Western countries, thus opening the opportunity for more cross-cultural research, which is also the aim of our study. With regard to culture, the effects of individualism vs. collectivism on PCs have been studied [13], with collectivism being related to more relational PCs and individualism to more transactional PCs.

### 3. Methodology

We use a quantitative research design and conducted a survey of business students from leading universities in South Korea, Slovenia, Poland, and the UK. Data was collected from April to September 2015 by using a convenience matched sampling approach, usually employed in cross-cultural research [35]. Features of PC were measured using the PCI – psychological contract inventory developed by Denise M. Rousseau [5], which measures the expectations regarding employee and employer obligations. These are grouped in seven dimensions of a PC and three types of PCs: transactional (short-term and narrow dimensions), relational (loyalty and stability dimensions) and balanced (development, performance and external marketability dimensions). Each dimension is tested with four items. For the UK and Slovenian students, an on-line questionnaire was administered, while the on-line version was supplemented by a paper version for the Korean students, and only the paper version was used for the Polish students. The decision to use different means for collecting data was based on the experiences of the local researchers in terms of administering surveys. The student participation was voluntary and anonymous.

In Korea, the questionnaire was administered at the Chonnam National University, Gwangju, and the Kyungpook National University, Daegu; in the UK at the Northumbria University, Newcastle, in Poland at the University of Warsaw, and in Slovenia at the University of Ljubljana. The survey instrument was administered in the local native language after a translation - back translation procedure for Korean, Polish and Slovenian. The survey produced acceptable levels of internal reliability, with the corresponding Cronbach alpha being a bit higher for employer obligations than employee obligations and the highest

score being for balanced PC (0.78 for employee obligations and 0.90 for employer obligations), followed by relational (0.60 employee, 0.84 employer), and transactional (0.67 employee, 0.70 employer).

The present sample consisted of a total of 814 students (253 South Korean, 249 Slovenian, 221 Polish, and 91 British). Control was used for both the educational background of the respondents (undergraduate business students in their final two years of study) and the age (most were aged between 19-23). The sample included more female students (overall: 61%; Poland 71%, Slovenia 64%, UK 56%, and Korea 50%). With regards to working experience (including working as students), there were large differences between the countries, where almost 38% of the students had no working experience in Korea, compared to only 7% in Slovenia, 8% in the UK, and 24% in Poland. Only 18% of the Korean students claimed to have more than 6 months of working experience, compared to 36% in Poland, 56% in the UK, and almost 62% in Slovenia. This also reflects differences in attitudes and availability of part-time student jobs and internships in the observed countries.

After performing a descriptive analysis and ANOVAs for the preferred types of employment, we continued with a descriptive analysis and rank-ordering of items with the highest expectations regarding employee and employer obligations. We then conducted analyses of variance regarding the types of

PC using MANOVAs (using the general linear model

procedure in SPSS), where the three types of PC were entered as dependent variables along with selected combinations of demographic variables and personal characteristics. The mean differences were examined through a series of univariate ANOVAs. We also performed a univariate ANOVA analysis to explore the variation in the types of PC with regard to preferred types of employment.

### 4. Results

To answer our first research question on the employment preferences of young business students, we first performed a descriptive statistics analysis. The results presented in Table 1 show that Korean students prefer large-size companies, while Polish, Slovenian and UK students middle-size companies, with about a quarter of Slovenian students preferring small-size companies. Only the Korean sample showed about equal interest in public and private companies, while all the other countries much prefer private companies. The career type aspirations seemed to be similar for all countries, with slight preference for managerial over expert job positions.

Table 1: Preferred types of employer and career for business students by country (in %)



Preferred employer and career		Country				All
		Slo	PL	UK	Ko	
Size of employer	Small	25	13	8	9	15
	Medium	55	54	52	38	49
	Large	20	33	41	53	36
Public or private company	Public	17	11	18	47	25
	Private	83	89	82	53	75
Type of career	Expert	40	38	38	41	40
	Manager	55	57	55	48	53
	Other	5	5	7	11	7

Slo=Slovenia, PL=Poland, UK=United Kingdom, Ko=South Korea

The ANOVA results showed significant differences between countries regarding the size and type of employer ( $p=0,000$ ), yet no differences for the career types. The post-hoc tests revealed that Slovenia is significantly different from all the other countries, and significant differences were also found between Poland and Korea. With regard to public or private, Korea is significantly different from all the other countries, yet no significant differences were found between the European countries.

To answer the second research question about the preferred types of PC, we also first performed a descriptive statistics analysis. When looking at the elements of the PC with the highest mean value, all countries showed the same three items regarding employee obligations three of the same items regarding employee obligations (with the UK and Korea showing five of the same items) and two of the same items regarding employer obligations (see Tables 1 and 2 in the Appendix). All students expect to make themselves increasingly valuable to their employers, build skills to insure their value for the organization and actively seek internal opportunities for training and development. However, Polish and to a lesser extent Slovenian students, express high expectations regarding their future employment possibilities, while the UK and Korean students expect to protect the image of an organization where they would work. From employers, students in all the countries expect opportunities for promotion and development in the organization. Yet, a more diverse set of top expectations emerged between the countries. While UK students expect opportunities for career development in the organization and Korean students expect advancement in the firm, Slovenian students expect employers to help them develop externally marketable skills and Polish students expect wages and benefits they can count on.

Next, we calculated the mean values for the types of APC regarding employee and employer obligations for each country. With regard to employee obligations (Figure 1), balanced PCs showed the highest values for all countries, followed by relational and then transactional PCs. Transactional PC values are considerably lower for the UK and Korean samples than for the Slovenian and Polish samples. For employer obligations (Figure 2), relational PCs show a

slightly higher value than balanced PCs, with transactional having considerably lower values for all countries, the difference being especially large in the UK and Korea.

We performed a multivariate test to determine if the means of the three types of PC are significantly different between the four student samples. For employee obligations, the Pillai's Trace value of 0.189 is significant ( $F=18,12$ ;  $df=9$ ;  $p=0,00$ ), indicating the centroids of the mean vectors for the four groups are different. For employer obligations, the Pillai's Trace value of 0.155 is also significant ( $F=14,75$ ;  $df=9$ ;  $p=0,00$ ). Thus, we can conclude that there are significant differences in the APCs between the four student groups.

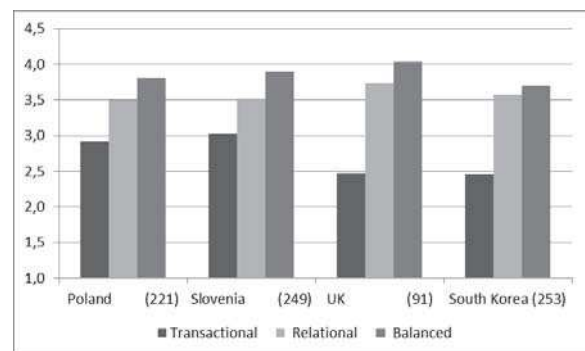


Figure 1: Types of APC regarding employee obligations

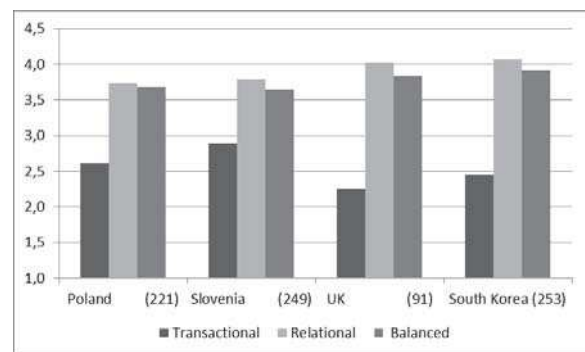


Figure 2: Types of APC regarding employer obligations

Table 3 in the Appendix shows the mean values and standard deviations for the types of PC in the four countries. A series of univariate tests (ANOVAs with post-hoc tests) also confirms the existence of statistically significant differences between the countries for all types of psychological contract. For employee obligations, transactional contracts are significantly higher in Poland and Slovenia compared to Korea and the UK. Relational contracts have a higher mean value for the UK than for the other three countries, and balanced contracts are significantly higher in the UK than in Slovenia and Korea. For employer obligations, the observations are very similar. For transactional contracts, again there are significantly

higher values for Slovenia and Poland, yet this time significantly higher values for Poland compared to Slovenia. For relational and balanced contracts, there are significantly higher values for Korea compared to Slovenia and Poland, and for relational contracts, higher values for the UK compared to Slovenia.

A more detailed look at the mean values for the dimensions of the PC also reveals some interesting differences (see Table 4 in the Appendix), confirmed by ANOVA with post-hoc tests. There are significant differences for all the dimensions regarding both employee and employer obligations. For employee obligations, again Poland and Slovenia show significantly higher scores for the short-term and narrow dimensions included in transactional psychological contracts. The UK sample has significantly higher values for loyalty compared to the other three countries, with Slovenia having the lowest score. Meanwhile, the opposite is found for stability, the other dimension of relational PCs, where Slovenia exhibits significantly higher scores compared to the other three countries. For the dimensions of balanced psychological contracts, there are significantly higher scores for development and performance in the UK compared to the other three countries, with Korea having significantly lower scores than the other three countries for development and Slovenia for performance. There are also significantly lower scores for external marketability in Korea compared to the other three countries.

For employer obligations, Poland has significantly higher scores for the short-term dimension compared to the other three countries, while Korea has significantly lower scores for the narrow dimension. For the relational dimensions of loyalty and stability, Slovenia has significantly lower scores for loyalty than the other three countries, and Poland has lower scores than the UK and Korea. Slovenia and Poland also have significantly lower scores for stability compared to Korea. For the dimensions of balanced PCs, performance shows the most differences, with significantly higher scores for the UK compared to the other three countries, and significantly lower scores for Slovenia compared to the other countries. There are significantly higher scores for the developmental dimension in the UK compared to Poland and Slovenia. Finally, there are significantly higher scores for external marketability for Korea compared to Poland and Slovenia.

When performing a multivariate test using two independent factors (country and gender) at the same time, for employee obligations, the results are only significant for country (Pillai's Trace=0.18;  $F=17.12$ ;  $df=9$ ;  $p=0.000$ ) and not for gender (Pillai's Trace=0.05;  $F=1.408$ ;  $df=3$ ;  $p=0.239$ ), yet also marginally significant for the interaction between country and gender (Pillai's Trace=0.03;  $F=2.822$ ;  $df=9$ ;  $p=0.003$ ).

For employer obligations, the results are similar, only significant for country (Pillai's Trace=0.15;  $F=14.09$ ;  $df=9$ ;  $p=0.000$ ) and not for gender (Pillai's Trace=0.01;  $F=0.194$ ;  $df=3$ ;  $p=0.900$ ), yet this time with a slightly stronger result for a significant interaction between country and gender (Pillai's Trace=0.04;  $F=3.961$ ;  $df=9$ ;  $p=0.000$ ). This suggests that gender by itself does not affect the differences in the types of psychological contract between the four samples, yet may have some interactive effect when combined with country.

Besides gender and working experience as individual characteristics related to our third research questions, we also included trust as an independent variable affecting APC. Again, we followed the same procedure and performed descriptive statistics and multivariate analyses. The results show that the expressed levels of trust are significantly different in all four countries, with the Korean students expressing the highest levels of trust (3.13 mean, 0.84 standard deviation), followed by the UK (2.88 mean, 0.41 standard deviation), Slovenia (2.71 mean, 0.52 standard deviation) and the lowest scores for Poland (2.53 mean, 0.44 standard deviation).

The MANOVA results show that trust in the employer has a significant effect on the formation of PCs, for both employee (Pillai's Trace=0.086;  $F=5.9701$ ;  $df=12$ ;  $p=0.000$ ) and employer obligations (Pillai's Trace=0.056;  $F=3.820$ ;  $df=12$ ;  $p=0.000$ ). When controlling for county, gender, and working experience in a set of multivariate tests, we also found that the level of trust has a significant effect on the formation of PCs, yet no significant interactive effect, with the exception of trust and country, in a paired multivariate analysis for employer obligations.

A correlation analysis revealed that trust is negatively linked to transactional PCs (Pearson's coefficient of -0.201,  $p=0.000$  for employee obligations; -0.144,  $p=0.000$  for employer obligations) and positively linked to relational PCs (Pearson's coefficient of 0.194,  $p=0.000$  for employee obligations; 0.170,  $p=0.000$  for employer obligations) and balanced PCs (Pearson's coefficient of 0.118,  $p=0.000$  for employee obligations; 0.155,  $p=0.000$  for employer obligations).

Because the levels of trust may be affected by prior working experiences, we also checked to see if those students with more working experience reported higher or lower levels of trust compared to those with no working experiences. From Table 2 we can clearly see that the levels of trust are the highest for those students with no working experience and the lowest for students with more than 6 months of working experience.

Table 2: Mean scores for trust levels (on the scale from 1 to 5) for different length of working experience

Working experiences	Mean	N	Standard deviation
No experiences	3.02	175	0.86
1-3 months	2.76	137	0.69
4-6 months	2.81	172	0.67
More than 6 months	2.72	330	0.52
Total	2.81	814	0.68

Finally, to answer our third and last research question, we performed a set of ANOVAs to check if the type of APC differed with regard to demographics and the preferred type of employment. No significant differences were found for gender or working experiences. However, when checking for the preferred type of employment, we found significant differences according to the size of the employer, with more transactional and less relational types of psychological contract for both employee and employer obligations for those who prefer to work for a small company compared to those who want to work for a large company. We also found significantly higher scores for employee obligations for balanced PCs for those who prefer to work in private companies, and higher scores for relational psychological contracts for employer obligations for those who prefer to work in public companies. Those students who prefer a managerial career reported significantly higher scores for employee obligations related to relational and balanced PCs compared to those who prefer an expert career.

## 5. Discussion and implications

With regard to the preferred type of employment, the results are not surprising. Koreans have more interest in large and public companies than their European counterparts, which reflects the structure of the economy and reputation of public companies in the observed countries. About half of the students in all four samples see themselves as working in managerial positions, which somewhat confirms the high ambitions and perceptions of business students that their education equips them with competences to assume managerial roles.

In several ways, the results of our study also confirm some previous findings about the young generation at work, anticipatory psychological contracts, and the effects of culture. For example, like De Vos et al. [23] and Twenge and Campbell [24], we also found relatively high levels of expectations in all four samples, especially with regard to relational and balanced PCs. The highest scores in all four samples were for the developmental dimension (all scores above 4), and even higher for employee than employer obligation. This corresponds to previous findings of the great importance placed by the young on development

and advancement as work-related values, as reported by Zupan et al. [36], and the APC characteristics reported by DeVos et al. [11]. One possible implication of this finding for employers would be the recognition that graduate novices at work need opportunities for advancement and development. Since expectations regarding external marketability are also high, especially in Poland and Slovenia, it seems that graduates do not value their first job as much for possible internal career development, but are rather focused on finding better opportunities with their second or later job (which is why expectations of loyalty are rather low compared to development and external marketability). This suggests that employers are faced with real challenges on how to retain young talent and should develop retention strategies.

As suggested by previous cross-cultural research on PCs [7], we also found differences between the APCs in the observed countries. However, we cannot support the previous findings by Thomas et al. [13] with regard to the effects of individualism on transactional contracts and effect of collectivism on relational contracts. Among the four countries in our sample, only Korea can be classified as a collectivist country [37], Poland shows a balance between collectivism and individualism [38], recent studies show high scores of individualism for Slovenia [39], and traditionally high scores of individualism are reported for the UK [40]. Notwithstanding, we found the most relational PC characteristics for the UK sample and most transactional PC characteristics for Poland.

Based on our results, we can speculate that rather than national culture per se, it is past experiences and the general economic and social climate that affect the formation of PCs. Both Poland and Slovenia are ex socialist/communist countries and were faced with massive lay-offs, unemployment, the reduction of salaries, privatization, and low levels of trust in institutions, to name just a few challenges during the years of transition [41]. Both were also hit by recession (Slovenia much harder than Poland) and have significantly higher levels of youth unemployment than Korea and the UK [42], [43]. The prospect for youth well-being in both countries is also grimmer than that in Korea and the UK [44].

Another source of variation may be in the education system. While public higher education is free in Poland and Slovenia (at both participating universities), British and Korean students are used to invest financial resources in their education and thus may feel a greater need to quickly gain returns on this investment (explaining the higher scores on the performance items). Differences in the education systems may also reflect upon the different levels of working experience. Korean students are known to work very hard while studying [45], thus not having any extra time or interest in part-time jobs. Conversely, part-time jobs are very common in Slovenia (even with favorable taxation of student work) and the UK. Also, in all three EU countries, internships are invariably part of the

study program, so many students gain at least some working experiences while studying.

One worrisome finding in our study refers to the negative link between levels of trust and relational APCs, and with the fact that longer working experiences are associated with lower levels of trust. Thus, we can speculate that the experiences of students during internships or part-time jobs are not all that positive. This would imply the need for better preparation of internship programs by both educational institutions and employers.

While making some valuable contributions with regard to information about the employment preferences and APCs of future entrants to the labor market, our study also has certain limitations. We used one university in each country (two in Korea), and thus our findings may not be generalizable for the observed countries. Also, the UK sample is much smaller than the other three. Future cross-cultural research on APCs could combine APCs, work values, and more in-depth exploration of past experiences, which seem to have an important effect on the formation of PCs.

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## Appendix

Table 1: Top five mean scores (on scale from 1 to 5) for employee obligation items by country

Poland		Slovenia		UK		Korea	
4.33	Build skills to increase my future empl. opp. elsewhere	4.35	Make myself increasingly valuable to my employer	4.73	Make myself increasingly valuable to my employer	4.24	Make myself increasingly valuable to my employer
4.29	Make myself increas.valuable to my employer	4.32	Actively seek internal opport. for training & dev.	4.67	Build skills to increase my value to this organization	4.23	Build skills to increase my value to this organization
4.23	Build skills to increase my value to this org.	4.20	Build skills to increase my value to this organization	4.58	Seek out develop. opp. that enhance my value employer	4.16	Seek out develop.t opp. that enhance my value employer
4.20	Actively seek internal opp. for training & dev.	4.13	Commit myself personally to this organization	4.44	Protect this organization's image	4.07	Actively seek internal opp.for training & dev.
4.18	Build contacts outside this firm that enhance my career potential	4.10	Increase my visibility to poten. employers outside this firm	4.42	Actively seek internal opport. for training & development	4.04	Protect this organization's image

Table 2: Top five mean scores (on scale from 1 to 5) for employer obligation items by country

Poland		Slovenia		UK		Korea	
4.17	Wages and benefits I can count on	4.33	Help me develop externally marketable skills	4.56	Opportunities for career develop. within this firm	4.32	Advancement w/in the firm
4.14	Advancement within the firm	4.27	Opportunities for promotion	4.51	Opportunities for promotion	4.31	Developmental opp. with this firm
4.13	Developmental opportunities with this firm	4.25	Developmental opportunities with this firm	4.43	Support to attain the highest poss. lev. of perform.	4.31	Opportunities for promotion
4.12	Opportunities for promotion	4.20	Wages & benef. I can count on	4.40	Developmental opp. with this firm	4.28	Wages and benefits I can count on
4.06	Opportunities for career develop. within this firm	4.18	Help me respond to ever greater industry standards	4.38	Support me in meeting increasing higher goals	4.25	Steady employment

Table 3: Mean values (on scale from 1 to 5) for employee and employer obligations according to type of PC by country (standard deviations in parenthesis)

Country	Employee obligations			Employer obligations		
	Transactional	Relational	Balanced	Transactional	Relational	Balanced
Poland (n= 221)	2.91 (0.58)	3.50 (0.41)	3.86 (0.52)	2.62 (0.57)	3.73 (0.57)	3.69 (0.68)
Slovenia (n=249)	3.01 (0.61)	3.52 (0.49)	3.90 (0.55)	2.89 (0.59)	3.79 (0.79)	3.65 (0.80)
UK (n=91)	2.47 (0.65)	3.74 (0.46)	4.04 (0.54)	2.24 (0.66)	4.02 (0.)	3.84 (0.72)
South Korea (n=253)	2.47 (0.56)	3.58 (0.47)	3.571 (0.52)	2.45 (0.52)	4.07 (0.57)	3.92 (0.63)
Total	2.75 (0.64)	3.56 (0.46)	3.83 (0.54)	2.60 (0.61)	3.89 (0.68)	3.77 (0.72)

Table 4: Mean values (on scale from 1 to 5) for employee and employer obligations according to dimension of PC by country (standard deviations in parenthesis)

Country	Employee obligations						
	Short term	Narrow	Loyalty	Stability	Performan.	Develop.	External
Poland (n= 221)	3.16 (0.83)	2.92 (0.69)	3.45 (0.78)	2.89 (0.63)	3.67 (0.67)	4.23 (0.73)	4.13 (0.63)
Slovenia (n=249)	2.91 (0.97)	2.91 (0.59)	3.04 (0.62)	3.30 (0.60)	3.59 (0.58)	4.17 (0.73)	4.04 (0.66)
UK (n=91)	2.47 (0.81)	2.48 (0.57)	3.80 (0.83)	2.80 (0.66)	4.18 (0.49)	4.60 (0.89)	3.90 (0.80)
South Korea (n=253)	2.37 (0.65)	2.53 (0.66)	3.57 (0.77)	3.00 (0.64)	3.81 (0.58)	4.17 (0.68)	3.61 (0.75)
Total	2.76 (0.89)	2.75 (0.69)	3.40 (0.76)	3.04 (0.65)	3.75 (0.51)	4.23 (0.76)	3.91 (0.72)
Country	Employer obligations						
	Short term	Narrow	Loyalty	Stability	Performan.	Develop.	External
Poland (n= 221)	2.88 (0.74)	2.91 (0.97)	3.33 (0.71)	3.93 (0.81)	3.90 (0.84)	4.11 (1.01)	3.39 (0.94)
Slovenia (n=249)	2.46 (0.82)	2.77 (0.58)	3.11 (0.62)	3.95 (0.65)	3.59 (0.81)	4.13 (0.89)	3.78 (0.84)
UK (n=91)	2.09 (0.82)	2.40 (0.96)	3.66 (0.81)	4.01 (0.67)	4.34 (0.71)	4.40 (1.06)	3.34 (0.94)
South Korea (n=253)	2.10 (0.58)	2.81 (0.74)	3.78 (0.68)	4.15 (0.67)	3.99 (0.60)	4.29 (0.78)	3.85 (0,74)
Total	2.42 (0.79)	2.78 (0.84)	3.44 (0.70)	4.01 (0.74)	3.88 (0.76)	4.21 (0.93)	3.65 (0.85)