Saimaa University of Applied Sciences
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WHY BOTHER?
WORK-RELATED MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS
AMONG RUSSIAN PROFESSIONALS

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ABSTRACT
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Why bother? Work-related motivational factors among Russian professionals,
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The purpose of this study is to identify what motivational factors dominate among Russian professionals in work related issues – what is the driving force that makes them to work and remain in the employer organization. Another aim is to understand if there are any differences in motivational factors among respondents from non-profit organizations and for-profit organizations.

Russia is an important market for Finnish organizations and its role in Finnish economy is expected to continue to be important considering the estimations on Russia's economic growth. This may result as an increase in Finnish organizations' activities and investments in Russia, further employment of Russian personnel and therefore to increasing need to understand Russian employees' relationship with and motivation to work. Non-profit organizations' possibilities to employ the best people are financially more restricted and thus it is important to understand, do those working in non-commercial sector have other than financial dominating motivational factors, with which employer could motivate employees to work for and remain in the organization.

The theoretical part of this study discusses the content theories of motivation that explain what motivates individuals and why people work by identifying those human needs that work may satisfy. The modern understanding is that there is no universal set of motivators but motivation at work is a culture-related issue. Due to this, the theoretical part introduces also Hofstede's five cultural dimensions model shedding light to the cultural aspect of motivational issues.

The empirical part of this study uses qualitative research method. The method for data collection was a self-completion questionnaire completed by 15 informants. Eight informants were also interviewed shortly after completing the questionnaire in order to receive subjective views on the subject.

The research results indicate that the both groups have similar motivational factors and no significant differences exist. In both groups financial motivation is among the least important factors while an important, meaningful work with possibilities to professional and personal growth ranks among the most important. The study concludes that companies and organizations should give close attention to their incentive programs and include in them factors that really have meaning for employees.

Keywords: motivation, Russia, human resource management.

TIIVISTELMÄ
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Miksi ihmeessä vaivautua? Venäläisten asiantuntijoiden työmotivaatioon liittyvät tekijät, 70 sivua, 3 liitettä
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Tämän opinnäytetyön tarkoituksena on selvittää, mitkä ovat venäläisten asiantuntijatehtävissä toimivien henkilöiden pääasialliset työmotivaatioon liittyvät tekijät – mitkä tekijät saavat heidät työskentelemään ja sitoutumaan työnantajaansa pidemmäksi aikaa. Toinen tavoite on selvittää, onko voittoa tavoittelemattomissa organisaatioissa työskentelevien venäläisten henkilöiden työmotivaatiossa eri tekijöitä kuin yrityksissä työskentelevien henkilöiden.

Venäjä on suomalaisille yrityksille tärkeä markkina-alue ja sen rooli tulee olemaan tärkeä myös tulevaisuudessa. Venäjän ennustettu talouskasvu johtaa suomalaistenkin toimintojen ja investointien kasvuun Venäjällä ja sitä kautta lisääntyvään venäläisen henkilökunnan palkkaukseen. Näin kasvaa myös tarve ymmärtää venäläisten työntekijöiden suhdetta työhön ja työmotivaatiotekijöitä. Voittoa tavoittelemattomien organisaatioiden mahdollisuudet palkata parhaat ja pätevimmät henkilöt ovat taloudellisessa mielessä rajoitetummat kuin yrityssektorilla. Tämän vuoksi on tärkeää selvittää onko kolmannen sektorin palveluksella olevilla henkilöillä joitain muita kuin rahallisia motivaatiotekijöitä, joiden kautta työnantaja voisi motivoida työntekijöitä yhä parempaan työpanokseen ja sitoutumaan organisaatioon pitkäaikaisesti.

Opinnäytetyön teoreettisessa osassa kuvataan tarveteorioita, jotka selittävät mikä motivoi yksilöitä ja miksi ihmiset työskentelevät selittämällä tarpeet, jotka työnteolla voidaan tyydyttää. Koska mitään yleismaailmallisia motivointitekijöitä ei ole, vaan työmotivaatio on pikemminkin kulttuurisidonnaista, opinnäytetyön teoreettinen osa esittelee myös Hofsteden viiden kulttuuriulottuvuuden mallin, joka valottaa motivaatiotekijöiden kulttuurisidonnaista puolta.

Empiirisessä osassa käytetään kvalitatiivista tutkimusmenetelmää. Empiirinen aineisto on koottu kyselylomakkeen muodossa, jonka täytti 15 vastaajaa. Kahdeksan vastaajaa myös haastateltiin lyhyesti kyselylomakkeen täyttämisen jälkeen, jotta saataisiin subjektiivista tietoa aiheesta.

Tutkimustulokset osoittavat, että molemmissa ryhmissä työmotivaatiotekijät ovat samankaltaisia. Rahallisilla motivoijilla ei kummassakaan ryhmässä ole suurta merkitystä, kun taas tärkeä ja mielekäs työ ja mahdollisuus ammatilliseen kehittymiseen ovat tärkeimpien motivaatiotekijöiden joukossa. Johtopäätöksenä todetaan, että organisaatioiden tulisi kiinnittää huomioita kannustinohjelmiinsa ja sisällyttää niihin tekijöitä, joilla on merkitystä organisaation työtekijöille.

Avainsanat: motivaatio, Venäjä, henkilöstöjohtaminen.

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Today's business environment is more and more knowledge and skill intensive, technological development is rapid, and companies face intensive global competition. Companies and organizations are under constant pressure to accomplish more and better with fewer resources. Together with the changing business environment the importance of personnel and human resource management (HRM) increases. The meaning of human resource management for organizations' performance and success cannot be denied as one of the most effective ways of remaining in competition is to develop and improve organization's workforce. Employees are the most valuable asset that an organization can have.

At the same time, employees are a fragile resource: would the organization's personnel change completely, the organization would have severe functional problems. Organizations will not be able to produce new products, services or practices if there are no competent employees developing, selling and implementing them. Thus, it is crucial for organizations' success to commit motivated professionals to work for and remain within the organization. (Viitala 2009, p. 8.)

All organizations are concerned with how to achieve success and high levels of performance. Performance is highly dependent on organization's human resources. The relationship between the organization and its members is governed by what motivates employees to work and the fulfillment they receive from their work. This is the underlying reason why there is such a close attention to how individuals can best be motivated through such means as incentives, rewards, leadership, the work they do and the organization context within which they carry out their work. (Armstrong 2006, p. 251; Mullins 1999, p. 405.)

A large body of literature and research exists on tangible (financial) and intangible (non-financial) rewarding and recognition programs. But before developing motivational processes and incentive programs organization's management should know which motivational factors are important for their employees, what are the motives that keep them performing according to expectations and remaining within the organization. Financial incentives may not work if employees are more concerned about flexibility at work, promotions within the organization, work-life balance or any other issue as the following Dilbert comics strip incisively brings out. Understanding what motivates employees is one of the key challenges for managers. According to Kovach (1987), if a company knows what drives employees to work, it is in a better position to stimulate them to perform well (Wiley 1997, p. 266).

Figure 1. What does not motivate Dilbert? (www.dilbert.com)

As Rabey (2001) has stated in his article, there is one crucial precondition for action – management's willingness and desire at all levels to ask, to listen and to respond. The first question to be asked is whether the work and the workplace meet the standards which, according to research results, generate high morale and stimulate motivation. According to Rabey these standards include: doing something worthwhile, participation, recognition, communication, fair wages, preparing for the future, teamwork and being challenged. (Rabey 2001, pp. 26-27.) These standards in some combination or other make employees motivated and willing to contribute to organization's success.

Interest in studying motivational factors among Russian professionals derives from author's many years of work in Saint Petersburg. An article studied as a

part of Master studies' Human Resource Management course Well-being at work: a cross-national analysis of the levels and determinants of job satisfaction, published in 2000 in The Journal of Socio-Economics by Alfonso Sousa-Poza and Andrés A. Sousa-Poza served as a starting point for this thesis. The authors find out in their research paper that "…in Russia high income is as important as having an interesting job…" while other, more recent research show that in Russia individuals' attitudes towards career identity and motivation have changed significantly over time being today something very different than only 12 years ago (Khapova & Korotov 2007). The author's proposition is that Russian professionals today, after having reached a salary level providing a sufficient standard of living, are less interested in financial motivation and more in other factors such as career and growth perspectives.

A lack of competent workforce in big cities with high cost of living and lack of reasonably priced apartments is a new challenge in Russia. War for talent and high salary offerings lead to high employee turnover which has forced organizations to consider other means of commitment and motivation such as social benefits, bonus schemes, additional medical insurances, paid apartments and training in order to keep the key employees within the organization. (Karhunen, Kosonen, Logrén & Ovaska 2008, pp.195-202.) Here also one should first understand what would be the most effective means of motivation.

According to Russian Federal State Statistic Service Rosstat, there were 554 Finnish-owned companies and organizations established in Russia in 2007 (Eklund & Karhunen 2009, p. 1). These companies and organizations employ a great number of Russians, yet there is little information available on how Russian employees see to their work, what drives them to show the best available performance at work and contribute to organization's success, and finally, to remain within the organization. This thesis aims to help to cover this gap and shed some light on motivational issues of human resource management in Russia. Thus, this study will be of interest for Finnish managers already working in Russia and having Russian subordinates as well as for companies considering of establishing in Russia and recruiting personnel in the future.

1.2   Structure of the study

The first chapter provides an introduction to the study describing reasons for the study as well as its objectives, research questions and methods, and the main concepts related to the study. The second chapter takes a deeper view to the concept of motivation in order to help to identify and understand the context and theories that this study is based on. The third chapter introduces the theoretical background; theories of motivation and five cultural dimensions model, and a research paper related to the interest of this study. The fourth chapter concentrates on the empirical part: conducting the questionnaire, gathering of the empirical material and method of analysis. The fifth chapter discusses the outcomes and experiences of the study as well as its limitations with recommendations for future research.

1.3   The objective of the study and limitations

Finding and keeping the best employees will always be a major issue for organizations.   The purpose of this study is to identify those work-related motivational factors that dominate among Russian professionals – what are the reasons that make employees motivated to do their work and remain within the organization. Due to author's background in non-commercial organization there is also an interest in possible differences in motivational factors among professionals working in commercial organizations and those employed in non-commercial organizations. This study aims to generate information that could be useful for people working with Russian professionals and particularly for those interested in human resource management issues in Russia. The results of this study will help to understand Russian employees and their behaviour at work as well as to improve incentive programs to meet the needs of the employees.

The process of motivation is complex. People have different needs, establish different goals to satisfy those needs and take different actions to achieve those goals (Armstrong 2006, p. 252). The complexity of this issue as well as time-related issues set limitations.   People representing different age groups – young, middle aged, elderly - as well as people with different professional and

socio-economical backgrounds have different needs and therefore different motivational factors. Individuals' personality as well as the cultural context also has a significant effect on his or her motivation to work. Situational factors affect the results as well as motivation changes over time and according to circumstances in personal, social or other factors (Wiley 1997, p. 263; Mullins 199, p. 406-407).

Hence, it is difficult and delusive to draw any unequivocal conclusions. Furthermore, this study has a qualitative research aspect of generating common understanding on the issue and interpreting subjective feelings and thus it can't produce exact results.

1.4   Research questions

The main research question is:

- What work-related factors of motivation dominate among Russian professionals?

A sub-question is identified as follows:

- Are there any differences in motivational factors between employees of for-profit organizations and non-profit organizations?

Non-profit organizations have, in most cases, when compared to commercial organizations, restricted possibilities to use significant financial motivation. Therefore one could think that employees of non-profit organizations are less interested in monetary rewarding in the first place and other factors will dominate instead. This study tries to find out if there exist differences in motivational factors between these two categories of employees.

The findings of this study are of interest for Finnish management involved in human resource management issues in their organizations' units in Russia. The results will also serve as a tool for developing organizations' incentive and

rewarding programs and the study will help to understand employees' motivation and expectations concerning the work community.

1.5 Research methods

The research approach of this study is qualitative. Qualitative research aims at catching the subjective meaning of issues from the participants' perspectives, and to understand the interrelationships and the meaning of the issue. The aim is less to test what is known (e.g. an existing theory or hypothesis) than to discover new aspects in the situation under study. Qualitative research does not necessarily start from a theoretical model of the issue but theory is an end point to be developed. (Flick 2011, pp. 12-13.)

The theoretical part of this study is based on previous research: content theories of motivation, Geert Hofstede's research-based theory of five cultural dimensions model contributing to the cultural dimension of this study, and a research paper by Khapova and Korotov related to the subject of this thesis.

The empirical part is based on two research methods used: questionnaire as a structured interview and short semi-structured interviews. According to Flick questionnaire is a defined list of questions presented to every participant of a study in an identical way either written or orally. Participants are asked to respond to questions usually by giving them a limited number of alternative answers. Questionnaire can be posted to respondents or it can be a controlled questionnaire where the researcher is present. Semi-structured interview is a set of questions formulated in advance to cover the intended scope of the interview. Questions can be asked in a variable sequence and can be slightly formulated in the interview in order to allow the interviewees to unfold their views on certain issues more or less openly and extensively. Questionnaires are highly standardized whereas in semi-structured interview the interviewees are expected to reply as freely and as extensively as they wish. (Flick 2011.)

Two research methods are chosen for several reasons. By using a questionnaire author of this thesis aims at receiving comparable answers from

all participants. Questionnaire is rather an uncomplicated, quick and valid research method if questions are prepared carefully and concern relatively concrete and unambiguous issues. However, questionnaires may lack alternatives and issues that could be essential from the respondent's point of view but have not been included in the questionnaire. Interviewing provides flexibility and interviewer is able to react more sensitively to interviewees' reactions. Interviewee is also able to clarify his or her answer if there is a need to do so; interviewee is seen as an active partner of the interview. At the same time, flexibility of interviews reduces the comparability of the collected data and interviewing is more time-consuming research method than questionnaire (Flick 2001; Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2000, pp. 35-37).

According to Hirsjärvi & Hurme (2000, p. 38), many researchers speak for combining different research methods in order to increase validity and to gain more complex understanding of the issue. Thus, empirical data of this thesis is collected by using a questionnaire, which is conducted first, and a short semi-structured interview with clarifying questions held right after the questionnaire. However, the emphasis of this study is on the questionnaire and interview is used to give the informants a possibility to express their own feelings on the subject. Of 15 informants who conducted the questionnaire, 8 were also interviewed.

1.6 Main concepts

This thesis includes the following concepts: HRM (human resource management), motivation, commitment, job satisfaction, theories of motivation, Russian professionals, for-profit organization and non-profit organization. Understanding of these concepts will help to identify the context of this thesis.

Human resource management (HRM) matches human resources to the strategic and operational needs of the organization and ensures the most effective use possible of those resources. It is concerned with obtaining and keeping the required number and quality of personnel, and selecting and promoting people who "fit" the culture and the strategic requirements of the

organization. (Armstrong 2006, p. 359.) According to Armstrong, human resource management is a strategic and coherent approach to the management of an organization's most valuable asset – the people (Nikkanen 2010).

Motivation is a reason and an internal state for doing something. It can be described as goal-directed behavior. People are motivated when they expect that a course of action is likely to lead to the attainment of a goal and a valued reward – one that satisfies their needs. Motivation is concerned with the factors that influence people to behave in a certain way. (Armstrong 2006 p. 252.)

Commitment, engagement is the extent to which an employee puts discretionary effort into his or her work in the form of extra time, brainpower or energy beyond the required minimum to get the work done. A committed, engaged employee is aware of business context and works to improve performance within the work for the benefit of the organization. (Rama Devi 2009, pp. 3-4.) Organizational commitment is the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Steers & Porter 1991, p. 290).

Job satisfaction refers to the attitudes and feelings people have about their work. Positive and favorable attitudes towards the job indicate job satisfaction. Negative and unfavorable attitudes towards the job indicate job dissatisfaction. There is no strongly positive connection between job satisfaction and performance and a satisfied employee is not necessarily a productive employee. (Armstrong 2006, p. 264.)

Theories of motivation examine the nature of motivation and help to explain why people behave in the way they do, their efforts and the directions they are taking. Theories also describe what can be done to encourage people to apply their efforts and abilities in a way that will promote achievement of the organization's goals as well as satisfying their own needs. Different theories exist, and they are all equally important as there is no single answer to what motivates people to work well. The common way of classification of different theories of motivation is to divide them into early theories (instrumentality

theories), content theories (need theories) and process theories. (Armstrong 2006, pp. 251-252; Mullins 1999, p. 414-415.)

In this thesis *Russian professionals* are defined as citizens of Russian Federation holding a management position, or working as specialists or front-line employees in knowledge-intensive positions, so called white-collar employees. A definition of *knowledge workers* can also be implied in this context. Mahen Tampoe (1997) explains knowledge workers to be those who apply their theoretical and practical understanding of an area of knowledge to produce outcomes that have commercial, social or personal value. Knowledge workers include a wide variety of professionally qualified staff such as computer and personnel specialists, accountants, managers, marketers etc. (Mullins 1999, p. 440).

For-profit organization is an organization with a primary goal to make profit and distribute to its owners those profits which are not re-invested into the business. Therefore, the vision of a for-profit organization is largely earnings driven. (McMurray & Pirola-Merlo and Sarros & Islam 2010, p. 436.)

Non-profit organization exits to provide a particular service to the community, not aiming at generating profit to its owners. Non-profit organizations are driven by a mission that somehow benefits the community or society. They can make profit but it is not distributed to owners but used to provide goods and services for the organization's target group. (McMurray et al. 2010, p. 436.)

2   WHAT IS MOTIVATION?

Motivation is a fundamental part of human behaviour. Basically, it is concerned with why people behave in a certain way. Motivation as well as commitment and job satisfaction, closely related to motivation, have a central role e.g. in performance management, modern business management and eventually in business excellence. As Boddy (2002) writes, all businesses need enthusiastic

and committed employees who are motivated to work in a way that supports organizational goals (Boddy, 2002, p. 386).

Motivation in the work environment is of interest because it influences work performance and productivity (Huddleston & Good 1999, p. 385). This chapter describes the meaning and definition of motivation more closely as well as different means of motivation in order to provide appropriate background for theories of motivation and the thesis itself.

2.1   Definition of motivation

As already explained in chapter one, motivation is a reason for doing something. The term motivation was originally derived from a Latin word *movere*, which means *to move*. In time, motivation became to stand for a system of factors activating and driving behaviour towards a course of action. (Kauhanen 2007, p.107; Steers & Porter 1991, p.5.)

Greenberg and Baron (1997) have defined motivation as the set of processes that arouse, direct, and maintain human behaviour toward attaining some goal. There are three key parts to this definition: arousal, drive, and mobilization of effort. Arousal is the initial feeling of interest that a person has toward attaining a particular goal. Direction is what people will do and actions they will take to get closer to attaining the end result. The third element of this definition of motivation, mobilization of effort, refers to the persistence or maintenance of the behaviour until the goal is attained. (Di Cesare & Sadri 2003, p. 29.)

Petri (1981) has written that motivation is defined as an inner drive or force that acts on humans to initiate or direct behaviour and influences the intensity of that behavior (Huddleston & Good 1999, p. 385).

Viitala's (2009) definition of motivation is similar to Petri's: motivation is an inner strength, which activates and drives certain kind of behaviour. Motivation is related to voluntariness and target-orientation. According to Viitala research on work motivation has shown that motivation arises as an interaction of three

factors: the work itself, work environment and employee's personality. (Viitala 2009, p. 158.)

According to Armstrong (2010) there are three components of motivation: direction - that is, what a person is trying to do, effort - how hard a person is trying, and persistence - how long a person keeps on trying. Motivation can also be described as goal-directed behaviour. Well-motivated people are those with clearly defined goals who take action which they expect will achieve these goals. (Armstrong 2010, p. 41.)

The process of motivation is initiated by the conscious or unconscious recognition of an unsatisfied need. A goal which it is believed to satisfy this need is then established. A person decides on the action by which the goal is expected to be achieved. If the goal is achieved the need will be satisfied and the behaviour is likely to be repeated the next time a similar need emerges. If the goal is not achieved the same action is less likely to be repeated. (Armstrong 2010, p. 41.) This process of motivation is modeled in Figure 2.
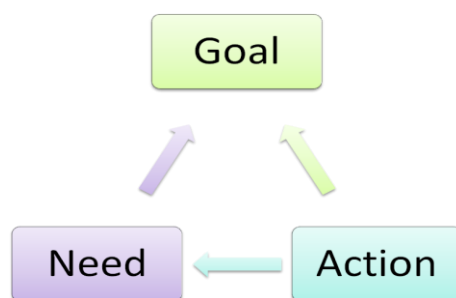
Figure 2. The process of motivation (Armstrong 2010, p. 42).

Motivation is a complex subject and influenced by many variables. Individuals have a variety of changing and often conflicting needs and expectations. Thus, motivation refers also to a dynamic internal state resulting from the influence of personal and situational factors. Motivation changes over time and according to circumstances in personal, social or other factors. (Wiley 1997, p. 263; Mullins 199, p. 406-407.)

Different definitions of motivation reveal that the underlying concept of motivation is some driving inner force within individuals which makes them to attempt to achieve some goal in order to fulfill some need or expectation no matter what difficulties or problems individuals may face. The concern is primarily with what energizes human behaviour, what directs or channels such behaviour (the notion of goal orientation), and how this behaviour is maintained or sustained (reinforcing the efforts) (Steers & Porter 1991, p. 6.)

2.2 Intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation

According to Boddy, motivation refers to the forces either within (internal) or external to a person that make individual to be enthusiastic and committed to pursue a certain course of action (Boddy 2002, p. 580).

Thus, various needs and expectations can be categorized into two types of motivations: intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation includes the self-generated factors, inherent in individuals, which influence people to behave in a particular way. These factors include:

- responsibility (feeling that the work is important and having control over one's own resources);
- autonomy (freedom to act);
- scope to use and develop skills and abilities;
- interesting and challenging work and
- opportunities for advancement. (Armstrong 2006, p. 254.)

Intrinsic motivation is derived from the content of the work. It is related to psychological rewards such as the opportunity to use one's ability, a sense of challenge and achievement, receiving appreciation, positive recognition, and being treated in a caring and considerate manner. Intrinsic motivation is self-generated and people seek the type of work that satisfies them, but management can enhance this process through its values as well as empowerment, development and job design policies and practices. (Armstrong & Murlis 2007, p. 59; Mullins 1999, p. 407.)

Extrinsic motivation is what is done to or for people to motivate them, including rewards, such as increased pay, fringe benefits, work conditions, pension schemes, praise, or promotion, as well as punishments, such as disciplinary action, withholding pay, or criticism. Extrinsic motivators can have an immediate and powerful effect, but this will not last long whereas intrinsic motivators which are concerned with the quality of working life and work-life balance, are likely to have a deeper and longer-term effect because they are not being imposed from outside. The effectiveness of pay as an extrinsic motivator is a matter for continuing debate. (Armstrong 2006, p. 254.)

Most individuals desire more from their jobs than simple extrinsic compensation. They may be motivated by numerous different factors such as a pleasant work environment where they can apply all their capacities and work with interesting people, working in an atmosphere of mutual respect, the possibility of experiencing feelings of accomplishment and self-respect when they perform well, feelings of power and prestige, a low-stress, slower pace of work, or involvement with an organization that has values and goals similar to their own. (Martín Cruz & Martín Pérez & Trevilla Cantero 2009, p. 479).

Thus, intrinsic motivation is the spontaneous satisfaction that individuals derive from the activity (work) itself. Extrinsic motivation, in contrast, requires tangible or verbal rewards. According to Deci's and Ryan's self-determination theory of work motivation as explained in the article by Ankli and Palliam, considerable extrinsic motivation can be even destructive to intrinsic motivation. Individuals are most resourceful and innovative when they feel motivated largely as a result of their own interest, their inner satisfaction, and challenges of the work itself and not by external pressures or incentives such as money. (Ankli & Palliam 2012, pp. 7-10.)

A broader classification for motivation to work includes three components:

- instrumental orientation to work with an emphasis on extrinsic, economic rewards such as pay, fringe benefits etc;

- personal orientation to work with an emphasis on intrinsic satisfaction derived from the nature of the work itself, interest in the job, and personal growth and development;
- relational orientation to work with an emphasis on social relationships such as friendships, group work and desire for affiliation, status and dependency. (Mullins 1999, p. 407.)

However, as described in Figure 3, most people are motivated by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors simultaneously as well as by social relationships to some extent or another. Therefore, different motivational factors are not mutually exclusive.
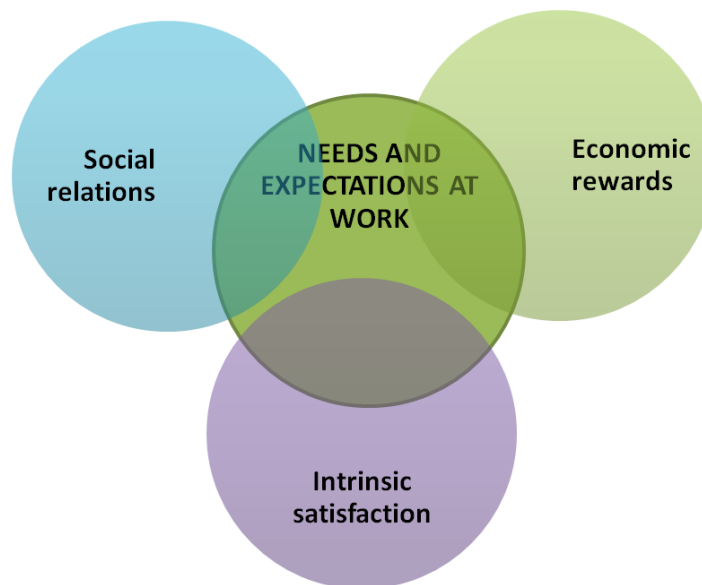
Figure 3. Interaction of various motivations (Mullins 1999, p.408).

2.3   Means of motivation

In order to understand the complexity of motivation, a closer look is made on the means of motivation that are used in performance and reward management as tools for improving individual's and organization's performance.

The objectives of performance management are to empower, motivate and reward employees in order to have a maximum performance and to agree on

common goals based on mission, strategy and values of the organization and align the employees to achieve the common goals by managing and resourcing the employees effectively. Reward management is concerned with rewarding employees fairly, equitably and consistently in accordance with their value to the organization thus helping the organization to achieve its strategic goals. Reward management as well aims at motivating people and obtaining their commitment and engagement. (Armstrong 2006, pp. 496, 623-624.)

Rewarding is typically classified into financial and non-financial rewarding. Some theories of motivation consider that people are primarily motivated by economic rewards but this approach fails to recognize a number of other human needs. Other theories consider that money is a powerful force because it is linked directly or indirectly to the satisfaction of all the basic needs. Thus, the unequivocal meaning of money as a motivator is still unclear. The effectiveness of money on motivation depends on the values and needs and the preferences of an individual. Money can motivate but to achieve lasting motivation, attention has to be paid to the non-financial motivators. (Armstrong & Murlis 2007, p. 64-67.)

Non-financial rewards are focused on the needs that most people have, although to different degrees, for achievement, recognition, responsibility, influence, personal growth, learning and development. They are powerful in themselves but can work more effectively if integrated with financial rewards. However, needs and motives of individuals vary depending on their background, experience, occupation, position in the organization and many other factors. This is why there is no single definite answer to a question how to motivate employees. The most obvious way to find out what people want would be to ask them what rewards they value. (Armstrong & Murlis 2007, p. 72.)

The concept of total reward includes all types of rewards, indirect as well as direct, and intrinsic as well as extrinsic. Total reward combines the impact of transactional rewards (tangible rewards including pay and benefits) and relational rewards (intangible rewards concerned with e.g. learning, development and the work experience). O'Neil (1998) writes that total rewarding

embraces everything that employees value in the employment relationship. (Armstrong 2006, p. 629; Armstrong & Murlis 2007, p. 64-67.)

A model of total reward including both tangible (financial) and intangible (relational, non-financial) rewarding is shown in Figure 4.

Pay
- Base pay
- Contingent pay
- Bonuses
- Long term incentives
- Shares
- Profit sharing

Benefits
- Pensions
- Holidays
- Health care
- Other perks
- Flexibility

Learning and development
- Workplace learning and development
- Training
- Performance management
- Career development

Work environment
- Core values
- Employee voice, recognition
- Achievement
- Job design and role development
- Quality of working life
- Work/life balance
- Talant management

Figure 4. A model of total reward (Armstrong 2006, p. 633).

This study aims to find out what motivational emphasis Russian professionals have: instrumental orientation emphasizing economic rewards, personal orientation with an emphasis on intrinsic satisfaction or relational orientation with an emphasis on social relationships. Understanding this and the importance of total reward concept as well as the impending meaning of motivational factors for employees is important for successful implementation of a reward system and thus for the organization's success on the long run.

3 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Theories are constructed in order to explain, predict and master phenomena. Theory makes generalizations about observations and consists of an interrelated and logical set of ideas and models.

Theoretical framework serves as a basis for conducting the research. It is supposed to help the reader to understand the factors relevant to the research problem. The theoretical framework of this thesis consists of relevant to the context of the study theories of motivation and Geert Hofstede's research-based theory of five cultural dimensions model explaining the cultural dimension of this study. Also a research paper by Khapova & Korotov serves to be introduced as it provides an insight into Russian attitudes towards career identity and motivations changing together with the rapidly changing environment in Russia.

3.1 Theories of motivation

The relationship between people and their work has long attracted psychologists and other behavioral scientists resulting in numerous competing theories of motivation. All theories seem to be at least partially true, and all help to explain the behaviour of people at certain times; there is no all-embracing theory of motivation to work. (Wiley 1997; Mullins 1999, p. 413-414.)

Motivation theory examines the process of motivation. It tries to explain why people behave in the way they do: their efforts, the intensity and persistence of their efforts, and the directions people are taking. It also describes what organizations can do to encourage people to apply their efforts and abilities so that they will further the achievement of the organization's goals as well as satisfying their own needs. The process of motivation is much more complex than people usually believe. People have different needs, establish different goals to satisfy those needs and take different actions to achieve those goals. It would be wrong to assume that one approach to motivation fits all. (Armstrong 2006, pp. 251-252.)

Due to complexity of motivation and the fact that there is no single answer to what motivates people to work well, different theories of motivation are equally important. They show that there are many motives which influence people's behaviour and performance. Different theories provide a framework within which to study motivation. (Mullins 1999, p. 414.)

Theories of motivation can be classified into three main groups:

- instrumentality theories
- content theories (need theories) and
- process theories of motivation.

Instrumentality theory as a rational-economic concept of motivation was developed in the 19th century emphasizing the need to rationalize work. It assumes that an employee will be motivated to work if rewards and penalties are tied directly to his or her performance and the employee obtains the highest possible salary through working in the most efficient way, and thus the rewards are dependent on effective performance. In its crudest form, instrumentality theory states that people only work for money. This theory can be successful in certain circumstance but its weakness is that it is based exclusively on a system of external controls and fails to recognize a number of other human needs. (Armstrong 2006, p. 254-255.)

Due to dependency on external control and focus on financial rewarding, instrumentality theory is not referred to in this study. As mentioned in chapter one, the author has a proposition that the focus group of this study will not be motivated or will not be mainly motivated by financial rewarding. Furthermore, instrumentality theory fails to meet the complexity of contemporary environment where the basic economic needs are fulfilled and employees hunger for something more. Instrumentality theory is essentially a "carrot and stick" approach to motivation and has largely been discredited (Armstrong 2010, p. 43).

Content theories, also referred to as needs theories, help to explain why people work by identifying those human needs that work may satisfy (Boddy 2002, p.

388). Content theories explain *what* motivates individuals. The basis of content theory is the belief that the content of motivation consists of needs. An unsatisfied need creates tension and a state of disequilibrium. To restore the balance, a goal that will satisfy the need is identified, and a behaviour pathway that will lead to the achievement of the goal is selected. All behaviour is therefore motivated by unsatisfied needs. (Armstrong 2006, p. 255.)

There are three content theories of motivation described later in this chapter: Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, which is the fundamental content theory of motivation, and later theories of Clayton Alderfer's ERG theory and David McClelland's three needs theory, which are based on Maslow's theory but emerged as criticizing and complementing it.

This study also describes Frederick Herzberg's two-factor model, which cannot strictly be classified as content theory although he identified a number of fundamental needs. Together with content theories of motivation, Herzberg's model is one of the fundamental theories of motivation, although controversial.

Process theories of motivation help to explain how people decide which action will satisfy their needs (Boddy 2002, p. 388). Process theories explain *how* or *why* motivation occurs. In process theory, the emphasis is on the psychological processes of forces that affect motivation, as well as on basic needs. According to Armstrong, process or cognitive theory, as it is also called, provides more realistic guidance on motivation techniques, the individuals rationally evaluating how valuable the goals and expectancies are. The more valuable they are the more individuals are ready to work for the goals. There are three main process theories: expectancy theory, goal theory and equity theory. (Armstrong 2006, pp. 258-259.) Process theories attempt to identify the relationship among the dynamic variables related to motivation. These theories are concerned more with how behaviour is initiated, directed and sustained. (Mullins 1999, p. 415.) Process theories are not referred to in this study as the objective is to study what are the motivational factors among Russian professionals, not how they occur and how valuable are the goals.

While basic human needs described in content theories may be similar, culture and environment determine what is valued and how these needs can best be met (Huddleston & Good 1999, p. 385). Differences among cultures affect the way people prioritize their goals (Mulley 1999, p. 413). Most motivational theories were developed in the United States or in other western countries and one need to be careful about assuming that recommendations based on motivation theories transfer across cultures (Robbins 2003, p. 53).

The question is, are motivational theories as such applicable to people from other countries across the world. To what extent can, what is learned about motivation in one culture, be applied in another culture? While cultural differences between, e.g. the USA and Asian countries are more significant than between Finland and Russia, the existing cultural differences should still be taken into account. Today's managers have to know the cultural factors and social values shaping organizational roles and the degree of motivation and implication of the workforce (Herbig & Genestre 1997, p. 567). According to Geert Hoftede's five cultural dimensions model Finland and Russia to rather a significant extent differ in terms of collectivism versus individualism, power distance and uncertainty avoidance, all having an impact on individual's behaviour and therefore also motivation. These differences explain why the cultural aspects should be included and explained in this study.

3.1.1 Content theories of motivation

3.1.1.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

The fundamental content (need) theories of motivation can be classified to the category of personality-based perspectives of work motivations. The most famous classification of needs is the one formulated by Abraham Maslow, and published originally in 1943.

The basis of Maslow's motivation theory is that human beings are motivated by unsatisfied needs, and that certain lower factors need to be satisfied before higher needs can be satisfied. Individuals experience a range of needs, as

represented in Figure 5, and will be motivated to fulfill whichever need is most powerful at the time. Individual's behaviour at work is determined by his current state of needs. (Armstrong 2006, pp. 257-258; Boddy 2002, p. 395; Wiley 1997, p. 264.)
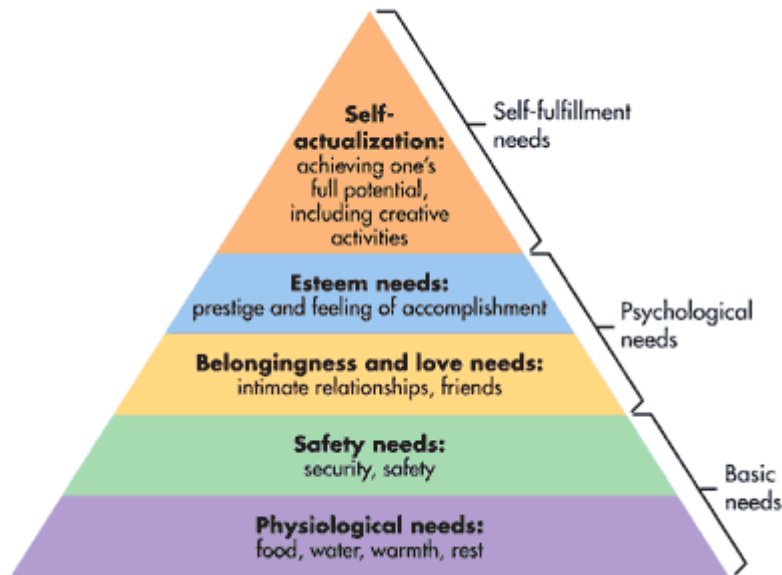

Figure 5. Maslow's hierarchy of needs
(http://www.teach-nology.com/tutorials/teaching/whatareneeds.html).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory refers to deficiencies that an individual experiences at a particular time. These needs are viewed as energizers or motivators and trigger certain behaviors or attitudes. When need deficiencies exist, the individual is more responsive to motivational efforts. Maslow's five major need categories apply to people in general, starting from the fundamental physiological needs. The lower-order needs (basic needs including physiological and safety needs) are dominant until they are at least partially satisfied. Physiological needs are essential for survival whereas safety needs refer to search for stability, predictability and security, e.g. regular job with access to medical insurance, financial reserves and living in a safe area. (Ankli & Palliam 2012, pp. 7-8; Armstrong 2006, pp. 257-258; Boddy 2002, p. 395; Wiley 1997, p. 264.)

When these needs are fulfilled, then normal individuals would begin satisfying the needs at the next level, and so on, so that the higher-order needs of belongingness such as need of friendship or being a part of a congenial team, esteem (e.g. a desire for prestige, status, recognition, and attention) and self-actualization (e.g. realizing one's potential, desire for self-fulfillment) would gradually become dominant. Esteem needs, sometimes referred to as ego needs, can be categorized as external and internal motivators. External motivators are for example esteem of others involving reputation, social status, appreciation and recognition whereas internal motivators are such as self-esteem, accomplishment, and self respect. (Armstrong 2006, pp. 257-258; Boddy 2002, p. 395; Wiley 1997, p. 264, www.abraham-maslow.com/m-motivation/Hierarchy_of_Needs.asp.)

Self-actualization is the development and realization of one's full potential. Self-actualization refers to a process of developing one's true potential to the fullest extent. It is the impulse to become what one is capable of becoming and of achieving, developing one's potential to the fullest extent. Self-actualized individuals can have motivators such as truth, justice and meaning of what one is doing. However, the need for self-fulfillment can never be fully satisfied because as individuals grow psychologically there are always new opportunities to continue to grow further. It is not an end-state and there is no ultimate goal for it. Instead, the need for self-actualization tends to increase in potency as individuals engage in self-actualizing behaviour. Maslow himself estimated that average working adult has satisfied 10 percent of his self-actualization needs. (Armstrong 2006, pp. 257-258; Boddy 2002, p. 395; Steers & Porter 1991, pp. 34-36; Wiley 1997, p. 264, www.abraham-maslow.com/m-motivation/Hierarchy_of_Needs.asp.)

The effect of money is Maslow's hierarchy is not clear. The needs most directly related to money are physiological and security needs since money contributes significantly to securing a comfortable and safe environment. Money is usually considered relatively unimportant for satisfying higher-lever needs, and the general belief is that most western workers are mainly concerned about higher-

level needs. Therefore in Maslow's theory of needs, money is not considered as effective motivator. (Steers & Porter 1991, p. 35.)

A practical implication of Maslow's hierarchy of needs in a work-life context could be for example identifying employees' needs and motivating employees according to each individual's needs:

- physiological needs: providing salaries that allow workers to buy all essential for living; pleasant working conditions; cafeteria;
- safety needs: providing a safe working environment and relatively secure job; providing medical insurances;
- social needs: generating a feeling of acceptance, belonging, and community by reinforcing team dynamics; friendly supervision, professional associations;
- esteem needs: recognizing achievements, assigning important projects, and providing status to make employees feel valued and appreciated (job title, high status job);
- self-actualization: offering challenging and meaningful work assignments enabling innovation, creativity, and progress according to long-term goals, advancement in the organization.

(Mullins 1999, p. 419; www.abraham-maslow.com/m-motivation/Hierarchy_of_Needs.asp)

However, it would be shortsighted to think that one can adequately determine the subjective needs of others. In determining other people's needs, mistakes can be made (Ankli & Palliam 2012, pp. 7-8).

Maslow didn't claim that the hierarchy of needs was a rigid scheme and that all people are motivated by same needs. Different people at various points in their lives will have different priorities and people's needs do not progress steadily up the hierarchy. There are people such as artists for whom self-esteem can be more important than security. The relative importance of needs changes during the psychological development of the individual and most people are partially

satisfied and partially unsatisfied in their needs. Also, the emergence of a higher-lever need is not a sudden event, but a person will gradually become aware that a higher need could now be attained. (Armstrong 2006, p. 258; Boddy 2002, p. 395-396; Mullins 1999, p. 417.)

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is difficult if impossible to test empirically and it has been criticized for not being supported by field research. There are also research results that do not support the order of needs suggested by Maslow. For example, in some cultures social needs are regarded as more important than any other need. Maslow did not originally intend that the hierarchy of needs should be applied to work situations but it has remained popular as a theory of motivation at work. Despite criticisms, it is a convenient framework for understanding the different needs and expectations that people have and the different motivators that might be applied to people at different levels. The hierarchy of needs model provides a useful base for the evaluation of motivational issues at work and is frequently used as a foundation for organizational development programs such as job enrichment and quality of work-life projects. According to Maslow, a variety of factors must be used to motivate behaviour since individuals will be at different levels of the need hierarchy.   (Armstrong 2010, p. 43-44; Mullins 1999, p. 419; Steers & Porter 1991, p. 35; www.abraham-maslow.com/m-motivation/Hierarchy_of_Needs.asp.)

The hierarchy of needs was later developed by Maslow in his paper Theory Z according to which individual who once reached a level of sufficient economic security, strives further to achieve a work with full of values, where he could create and produce his potential (www.abraham-maslow.com/m-motivation/Hierarchy_of_Needs.asp).

While personality-based theories do not necessarily predict motivation or behaviour, they can provide a basic understanding of what motivates individuals. The main strength of Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is the identification of individual needs for the purpose of motivating behaviour. By

appealing to an employee's unfulfilled needs, managers can influence performance. (Wiley 1997, p. 265.)

3.1.1.2 Alderfer's ERG theory

Clayton Alderfer's ERG theory, introduced in 1972, is both based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs and presents an alternative to it. It is the most popular refinement of Maslow's theory. Being skeptical about Maslow's empirical support for his theory, Alderfer devised the ERG theory, a consistent needs-based model that is based on more solid scientific research. Alderfer aimed to identify the primary needs and modified Maslow's hierarchy by reducing the number of need categories. He proposed three categories of need, which are active in each individual, although in varying degrees of strength. (Boddy 2006, p. 398; Steers & Porter 1991, p. 37.)

These three categories are represented in Figure 6:

- Existence or survival (E),
- Relatedness (R), dealing with social interaction and the external facets of esteem (recognition and status from others) and
- Growth (G), focusing on the desire to achieve and develop one's potential and the internal facets of ego fulfillment (success and autonomy). (Wiley 1997, p. 265.)
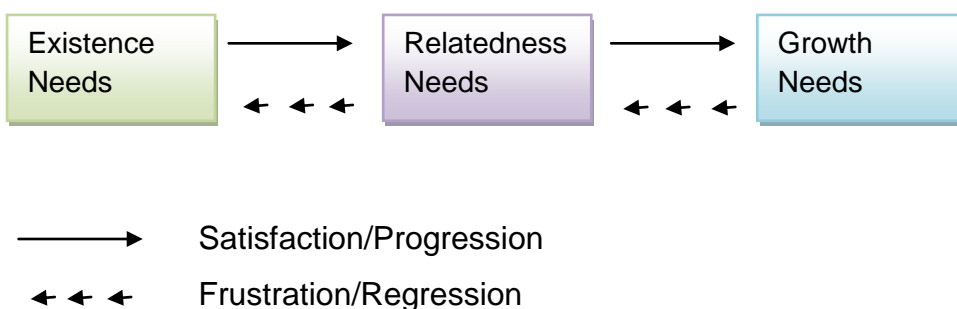

Figure 6. Alderfer's ERG theory (www.envisionsoftware.com/articles/ERG_).

Existence needs reflect a person's requirement for material and energy exchange with his environment. They include all the material and physiological

factors necessary to sustain human existence such as hunger and thirst, and money represents a way of satisfying these material requirements (Boddy 2006, p. 398; Steers & Porter 1991, p. 37).

Relatedness needs involve relationships with social environment and significant other people such as family members, colleagues, peers, subordinates, regular customers, both groups and individuals. People satisfy their relatedness needs by sharing thoughts and feelings. Acceptance, confirmation and understanding are elements in the process of satisfying relatedness needs. (Boddy 2006, p. 398.)

Growth needs are concerned with the development of potential; they impel a person to be creative or to produce an effect on themselves and their environment. People satisfy these needs by engaging themselves with problems that require them to use their skills fully or even to develop new ones. People experience a greater sense of completeness when they have satisfied their growth needs. That satisfaction depends on finding the opportunity to exercise talents to full. (Boddy 2006, p. 398.)

Basically, Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Alderfer's ERG theory are close to each other as comparison of the needs categories in Figure 7 shows.

Maslow's categories	**Alderfer's categories**
Physiological	Existence
Safety - material	
Safety – interpersonal	Relatedness
Love (belongingness)	
Esteem - interpersonal	
Esteem – self-confirmed	Growth
Self-actualization	

Figure 7. Comparison of Maslow's and Alderfer's categories of needs (Boddy 2006, p. 399).

The main difference from Maslow was that Alderfer did not find any evidence that the needs formed a hierarchy. According to Alderfer, needs are more a continuum than hierarchical levels, and all the needs could be simultaneously active for an individual. The theory allows different levels of needs to be pursued simultaneously. ERG theory is more flexible as Alderfer perceived the needs as a variety rather than as a hierarchy. An individual can work on growth needs even if his existence or relatedness needs remain unsatisfied. (Mullins 1999, p. 420; Wiley 1997, p. 265.)

Another difference is that Alderfer found that individuals may also progress down the hierarchy. This is called a frustration-regression process modeled earlier in the Figure 6. If higher needs are frustrated, lower needs will become prominent again, even if they have already been satisfied. Thus, frustration in achieving a higher-level need may result in regression to a lower level need. (Mullins 1999, p. 420; Wiley 1997, p. 265.)

A practical implication of the ERG theory in a work-life context could be for example that if an employee is not provided with growth and advancement opportunities, he might revert to the relatedness need such as socializing needs and try to meet those needs.

3.1.1.3 McClelland's three needs theory

David McClelland's motivation theory (1961) suggests that motives to work well reflect persistent characteristics or perceptions of reality that are acquired from one's culture, i.e. learned at an early stage through coping with one's environment. These motives or needs to which people are differently motivated, become the focus of one's motivation and help create one's value system. McClelland identified in his three needs theory, also called achievement motivation theory and learned needs theory, three categories (motives) of human needs, with particular attention to need for achievement:

- Need for achievement – a need to take personal responsibility and show successful task results;
- Need for power – a need to be able to influence and control others and to shape events;
- Need for affiliation – a need to develop and maintain interpersonal relationships. (Emery & Oertel 2006, p. 17; Boddy 2006, p. 399.)

These motives roughly correspond to Maslow's self-actualization, esteem and love needs. All these needs are present in each individual and individuals possess these needs in different amounts and combinations, which influences their behavior at work. The needs are developed over time and can be influenced by training to modify one's need profile. A person's motivation and effectiveness at work are influenced by these three needs. The relative intensity of the motives varies between individuals and different occupations, for example the extent of achievement motivation varies between individuals and some people think about achievement more than others. People holding manager positions appear to be higher in achievement motivation than in affiliation motivation and the need to achieve is shown to be closely linked to entrepreneurial spirit and the development of available resources. (Mullins 1999, pp. 425-426.) Also a study, which implemented Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory showed to be in line with McClelland's theory: the study results showed that managers in higher organizational levels are generally more able to satisfy their growth needs than lower-level managers (Steers & Porter 1991, p. 37).

The need for achievement is defined as behaviour directed toward competition with a standard of excellence. People with a strong achievement need have been identified with some distinctive characteristics:

- preference for moderate task difficulty;
- personal responsibility for performance and personal credit for outcome;
- need for feedback and

- innovativeness and novel solutions. (Miner 2006, p. 48; Mullins 1999, p. 425; Steers & Porter 1991, p. 37.)

Preferring moderate task difficulty provides an opportunity to prove that one could do better; too difficult task would reduce the chances of success and of gaining satisfaction. At the same time, too an easy task would not provide enough challenge in accomplishing the task. Personal responsibility means preferring one's own efforts rather than by succeeding by working in a team, a preference to work alone. Clear and unambiguous feedback serves as a determinant of success or failure in accomplishing the goal, and not as a praise or recognition. Innovativeness and search for novel solutions derives from the fact that people with a strong achievement need are in a constant search for variety and improvement. High achievers actively search for information to find new, more effective ways of doing things and solving problems. (Miner 2006, p. 48; Mullins 1999, p. 425.)

For people with a high achievement motivation, money is not an incentive and doesn't have a very strong motivating effect as high-achievers are already highly motivated. It is important only as a source of information on how one is doing and thus serves as a feedback on performance. Money may seem to be important to high achievers, but they value it more as feedback and recognition symbolizing successful task performance and goal achievement than as a financial reward itself. According to McClelland it is the prospect of achievement satisfaction, not money, which drives the successful entrepreneur and people with a high achievement motivation. For them, achievement is more important than financial reward whereas for people with low achievement motivation money may serve more as a direct incentive for performance. (Miner 2006, p. 48; Mullins 1999, p. 425-426; Steers & Porter 1991, p. 40.)

The second category of motives in McClelland's motivation theory, the need for power, produces a need to control others, to influence their behaviour, and to be responsible for them as well as to make an impact with a strong need to lead. There is also a motivation and a need towards increasing personal status and prestige. A person's need for power can be personal or institutional. Those

who need personal power tend to direct others and their satisfaction comes from conquering others. Those who need institutional power, which is also called socialized power, want to organize work of other people in order to further the goals of the organization. Concern for group goals is involved, and the need for power is oriented toward achieving organizational effectiveness rather than satisfying a self-serving egoism. Although McClelland had in his theory a strong emphasis on need for achievement as being necessary for entrepreneurial activity, he has also argued that the need for social power is the most important determinant of managerial success. (Miner 2006, p. 50; Steers & Porter 1991, p. 42.)

The third category of motives is affiliation, a desire to establish and maintain friendly and warm relations with other individuals. People with high motivation for affiliation need harmonious relationships and need to feel accepted by other people. In many ways the need for affiliation is similar to Maslow's social needs. Individuals with a high need for affiliation have a strong desire for approval and reassurance from others; they have a tendency to conform to the wishes and norms of others when they are pressured by people whose friendships they value and they have a sincere interest in the feelings of others. Individuals with a high need for affiliation prefer cooperation and team work over competition and working alone, and work providing significant personal interaction, for example, customer service. They also tend to perform better when personal support and approval are tied to performance. (Miner 2006, p. 50; Steers & Porter 1991, p. 41.)

There is plenty of research evidence that high levels of achievement motivation and socialized power motivation are important for efficient business development and entrepreneurial and operational efficiency. A strong need for affiliation, on the other hand, may undermine the objectivity and decision-making capability due to desire to be accepted by others (Miner 2006, p. 52-58). High achievers can be given challenging tasks with reachable goals and power motivated people are able to manage others effectively.

3.1.2 Herzberg's two-factor model

Frederick Herzberg's two-factor model of satisfiers and dissatisfiers, or motivation-hygiene theory as Herzberg himself preferred to call it, was developed by interviewing engineers and accountants about their experience of work. The interviewees were asked to recall a time when they had felt exceptionally good about their job, then when they had felt exceptionally bad about their job, and give the backgrounds in both cases. The results showed that the accounts of good periods most frequently concerned the *content* of the job and particularly:

- Achievement;
- Recognition;
- Advancement;
- Autonomy;
- Responsibility;
- Possibility of Growth;
- Work itself.

That is, when respondents felt happy with their jobs, they most frequently described factors related to their tasks, to events that indicated to them that they were successful in the performance of their work, and to the possibility of professional growth. When these factors are present in a job, the individual's basic needs will be satisfied and positive feelings as well as improved performance will result. (Boddy 2002, pp. 400-402; Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman 1959, p. 113; Miner 2006, p. 63; Tietjen & Myers 1998, p. 226.)

When feelings of unhappiness were reported, they were not associated with the job itself but with conditions that surround the doing of the job, the factors that define *the job context*. The following factors were recalled:

- Company policy and administration;
- Supervision;

- Salary;
- Interpersonal relations with supervisors, subordinates and peers;
- Working condition;
- Status;
- Job security.

These events suggest to the individual that the context in which he performs his work is unfair or disorganized and as such represents to him an unhealthy psychological work environment. These dissatisfiers, when provided appropriately, can serve to remove dissatisfaction and improve performance up to a point, but they cannot generate really positive job feelings or the high levels of performance that are potentially possible. To accomplish these outcomes, management must move into motivations. (Armstrong 2006, pp. 262-263; Boddy 2002, p. 400, Herzberg et al. 1959, p. 113; Miner 2006, p. 63; Tietjen & Myers 1998, p. 226.)

These groups form the two factors in Herzberg's model. One set consists of the *satisfiers or motivators* because they are seen to be effective in motivating the individual to superior performance and effort. Motivation factors are needed to motivate an employee to higher performance. Motivators refer to factors intrinsic within the work itself like the recognition of a task completed. Intrinsic factors or motivators largely correspond to Maslow's higher order needs (Steers & Porter 1991, p. 322). According to Herzberg, motivators cause positive job attitudes because they satisfy the need for self-actualization, the individual's ultimate goal, and that only these factors can have a lasting impression on work attitude, satisfaction and work. The presence of these motivators has the potential to create job satisfaction but in the absence of motivators, dissatisfaction does not occur. (Armstrong 2006, pp. 262-263; Boddy 2002, p. 400; Miner 2006, p. 63; Tietjen & Myers 1998, p. 227.)

The other group consists of the *dissatisfiers, or hygiene factors*, which essentially describe the environment and serve primarily to prevent job dissatisfaction, not foster high performance, and having little effect on positive

job attitudes. These extrinsic or hygiene factors largely correspond to Maslow's lower order physiological and safety needs (Steers & Porter 1991, p. 322). Dissatisfiers were named hygiene factors in the medical use of the term, meaning preventive and environmental. Hygiene factors are de-motivating when they are inappropriate but their absence does not provoke a high level of satisfaction. Thus, the factors causing positive job attitude and those causing negative attitudes are different. (Armstrong 2006, pp. 262-263; Boddy 2002, p. 400; Miner 2006, p. 63; Tietjen & Myers 1998, p. 227.)

Poor working conditions and interpersonal relations, bad company policies and administration, salary, and bad supervision will lead to job dissatisfaction. Good company policies, good administration, good supervision, and good working conditions will not lead to positive job attitudes. In opposition to this, recognition, achievement, interesting work, responsibility, and advancement all lead to positive job attitudes. Their absence will much less frequently lead to job dissatisfaction. What is especially interesting and in later research to a great extent discussed issue, Herzberg considered salary primarily as a dissatisfier not fostering performance and motivation (Herzberg et al. 1959, p. 82-83).

Herzberg (1959) concluded that the factors which produce job satisfaction are separate and distinct from those that lead to job dissatisfaction, hence the term two-factor theory. He suggested that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposites but separate dimensions influenced by different factors. The dissatisfiers, i.e. company policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions, contribute little to job satisfaction. The factors that lead to job satisfaction, for example, achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility and advancement, contribute little to job dissatisfaction if they are absent. Herzberg explained this by his observation that when respondents were feeling dissatisfied, this was because management had treated them unfairly. When they were satisfied it was because they were experiencing feelings of psychological growth and gaining a sense of self-actualization. Thus, hygiene factors can prevent discontent and dissatisfaction but will not in itself contribute to psychological growth and satisfaction as described in Figure 8. Satisfaction and dissatisfaction are independent

phenomena. Herzberg argued that satisfaction and positive feelings could come only from the nature of the work itself and the opportunities for growth that it offers. (Boddy 2002, pp. 400-402.)
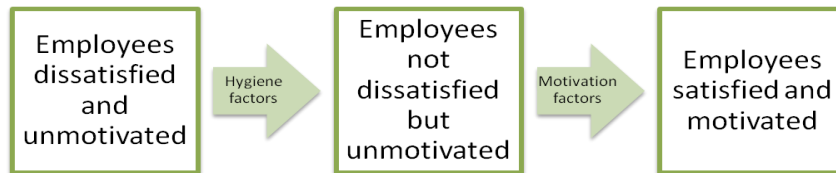

Figure 8. The contribution of hygiene and motivation factors (http://www.12manage.com/methods_herzberg_two_factor_theory.html)

Herzberg's two factor model asserted that there is a weak correlation between financial reward and job satisfaction, i.e. beyond a minimum threshold, money does not motivate. This way, he challenged the concept of an Anglo-American economic man with rational behaviour paradigm, which was dominant that time. His assertion was later on challenged by many other theorists and Herzberg himself was also unsure about the real meaning of money. Most frequently he stated that money is a hygiene factor but he has also stated that "although primarily a hygiene factor, it also often takes on some of the properties of a motivator, with dynamic similar to those of recognition for achievement." (Armstrong 2010, p. 44; Basset-Jones & Lloyd 2005, pp. 929-941; Miner 2006, p. 65.)

Armstrong also criticizes Herzberg's two factor model but for its weaknesses of field research. At the same time, Armstrong recognizes Herzberg's contribution regarding extrinsic motivation, especially money being a hygiene factor and not providing a long-lasting satisfaction, and conversely, intrinsic motivation and motivation through the work itself being a satisfier which can make a long-term positive impact on performance. (Armstrong 2010, p. 44; Basset-Jones & Lloyd 2005, pp. 929-941.)

According to Herzberg individuals are not content with the satisfaction of lower-level needs at work such as pleasant working conditions. Motivation is based on growth needs and individuals do not require additional incentives to drive the internal engine as motivation derives from within. Motivation is founded upon satisfaction which arises from a sense of achievement, recognition for achievement, responsibility and personal growth. The value of Herzberg's theory is that it recognizes that true motivation comes from within a person and not outside. (Basset-Jones & Lloyd 2005, pp. 933-938.)

Research closely related to Herzberg's shows partial support to Herzberg's two factor theory. Among the motivators, achievement and recognition are strongly supported, but possibility of growth is not supported at all. Among the hygiene factors, or dissatisfiers, company policy and administration and also technical supervision are supported, but not salary, status and job security. Some researchers state that categorization of pay as a hygiene factor appears now to be an artifact of that time, with the idea that investments in salary, fringe benefits and working conditions was to appeal to a cost-conscious manager. And indeed, salary is not just a dissatisfier but it clearly acts also as a source of satisfaction, as do status, security and interpersonal relationships. It all depends on an individual. However, achievement and recognition are by far the most strongly supported motivators. (Miner 2006, pp. 69, 72-73.)

A practical implication of Herzberg's two-factor theory in a work-life context could be providing hygiene factors to avoid dissatisfaction and also providing intrinsic factors to the work itself for employees to be satisfied with their jobs. Intrinsic factors could be e.g. job enrichment, job rotation, challenging tasks, providing more responsibility.

3.2 Geert Hofstede's five cultural dimensions model

Most motivational theories used today were developed and tested in the USA and have failed to provide consistently useful explanation outside the USA. Content theories of motivation have been criticized as reflecting an individualistic view of the world with self-actualization being at the top. Some

research, for example comparisons among Russian, Taiwanese, and USA data showed that different nationalities considered different motivational factors as being most important. This supports the understanding that there is no universal set of motivators but the basis of motivation at work is a culture-related issue. Earlier research highlights the importance of generating separate sets of motivators for specific cultures or countries. (Huddleston & Good 1999, p. 385; Jackson & Bak 1998, p. 284.) Also, the degree of motivation is not only determined by a hierarchy of needs that individuals try to satisfy but also by individual's cultural and social values (Herbig & Genestre 1997, p. 563).

Values are principles or standards that people use to make judgments about what is important or valuable in their lives. Culture influences the values of individuals, and values, in turn, affect attitudes and behaviour. In business culture matters because it is a powerful, often unconscious force that determines both individual and collective behaviour, ways of perceiving, and thought patterns and values. One of the most important challenges in global business is acknowledging and appreciating cultural values, practices, and subtleties in different countries. (Alas & Edwards & Tuulik 2006, p. 247.)

The cultural aspect of motivational factors is discussed in this chapter by representing five cultural dimensions model developed by a Dutch social psychologist Geert Hofstede who has extensively studied international differences in work-related values since 1967. Geert Hofstede's study is one of the most frequently cited researches regarding the relationship between societal culture and work-related values (Emery & Oertel 2006, p. 15).

Hofstede's studies demonstrated that there are national and regional cultural groupings that affect the behavior of societies and organizations, and that are very persistent across time. On the basis of these studies he developed a model identifying five primary dimensions for differentiating cultures. In early years, the model included four dimensions: power distance (PDI), individualism (IDV), masculinity (MAS), and uncertainty avoidance (UAI). Later on Hofstede included a fifth dimension, long term orientation (LTO), and the model became known as the five cultural dimensions model. In recent years, the model has

been completed with a sixth dimension reflecting the contemporary society, indulgence versus restraint (IVR).   (www.geert-hofstede.com.)

Emery and Oertel studied the relationship between Hofstede's cultural dimensions as a predictor of values and Vroom's expectancy theory of motivation in order to determine whether Hofstede's model can be used to predict an individual's motivation potential. Although the hypotheses concerning the relationship between individual's culture-based perceptions and the way they perceive key motivational factors were not heavily supported, several of the relationships between employee's cultural values and the meaning of reward were supported. This suggests that motivation, to some extent, can be predicted by knowledge of an employee's culture-based values like power distance, individualism versus collectivism and femininity versus masculinity. (Emery & Oertel 2006, p. 13.)

3.2.1 Power distance

The first dimension of Hofstede's model, *power distance*, measures human inequality in organization. It refers to the extent to which members of a society accept and expect that power in organizations is distributed unequally. Power distance looks at e.g. how subordinates prefer a superior to make the decisions and superior's decision-making style. Power distance index helps to define relationships between management and employees. In countries where power distance is high, people are raised valuing obedience and they put a high value on authority. Compliance becomes an attitude or social norm. Managers in high power distance countries make their decisions on their own without any feedback from subordinates. The employees in these countries are scared to disagree with their bosses. Another distinctiveness of high PDI countries is that many managers are dissatisfied with their careers and feel underpaid. (Emery & Oertel 2006, p. 16; Herbig & Genestre 1997, p. 562.)

Cultures with low power distance index demand more consultative and democratic power relations. Society de-emphasizes differences between citizen's power and wealth and people relate to one another more as equals

regardless of formal positions. Subordinates demand the right to contribute to and criticize the decisions of power-holders. In cultures with high power distance, the less powerful accept power relations that are autocratic or paternalistic. (Herbig & Genestre 1997, p. 562.)

Russia, scoring 93 in power distance, is among the 10% of the most power distant societies in the world. The huge discrepancy between the less and the more powerful people leads to a great importance of status symbols. Behaviour has to reflect and represent the status roles in all areas of business interactions: visits, negotiations or cooperation; the approach should be top-down and provide clear mandates for any task. (www.geert-hofstede.com/russia.hmtl.)

3.2.2 Individualism versus collectivism

Hofstede's second cultural dimension, *individualism*, is the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups or are on their own. It measures how members of the culture define themselves apart from their groups. In an individualist culture, the ties between individuals are loose; everyone is expected to look after himself and his immediate family and develop their individual personalities. (Emery & Oertel 2006, p. 15; Herbig & Genestre 1997, p. 562; www.geert-hofstede.com.)

In an opposite, a collectivist culture people are integrated into strong in-groups, which protect them in exchange for loyalty. In general, employees with a low individualism and high collectivism have lower career aspirations and tend to have a high emotional dependence and a high moral involvement in the company. Group members feel a strong collective responsibility for the group and there is often an emotional dependence on the company. Individualism versus collectiveness reflects how people act in work communities and what is considered when making decisions. (Emery & Oertel 2006, p. 15; Herbig & Genestre 1997, p. 562; www.geert-hofstede.com.)

3.2.3 Masculinity versus femininity

The third dimension of *masculinity versus femininity* refers to roles between genders. In a masculine society, values are more assertive and competitive, amongst men as well as women. Values like achievement, control, power and materialism flourish. A high masculinity ranking indicates that the country experiences a high degree of gender differentiation. Males tend to dominate in the society and power structures.

In masculine countries, earnings, recognition and advancement are important to employees; achievement is defined in terms of wealth and professional success and people prefer more salary rather than fewer working hours. In an opposite type of society, feminine, values like caring, modesty, family values, relationships and quality of life thrive. There is a lower level of differentiation between genders. In feminine societies, employees value co-operation and security, work is less central and less stressful in people's lives and achievement is defined in terms of human interactions. Employees with low masculinity are more relationship-oriented and usually see work as a means rather than the end. (Emery & Oertel 2006, p. 17; Herbig & Genestre 1997, p. 562-563; www.geert-hofstede.com.)

3.2.4 Uncertainty avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance is about society's tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity i.e. unstructured situations. It indicates to which extent people feel either uncomfortable or comfortable in unstructured, novel and unpredictable situations. Societies reaching high scores in uncertainty avoidance try to reduce the amount of uncertainty by laws and explicit rules, safety and security measures, and ideologies. The opposite type, uncertainty accepting culture, has more tolerance towards different opinions, variety and experimentation. Such a society prefers flexible rules or guidelines and tries to have as few rules as possible. It accepts change and is willing to take more and greater risks. (Herbig & Genestre 1997, p. 562; www.geert-hofstede.com.)

In work situations, employees from a high uncertainty avoidance culture have a higher loyalty and a longer average duration of employment and they have a high degree of task orientation along with precision and punctuality (Emery & Oertel 2006, p. 16).

3.2.5 Long term orientation and indulgence versus restraint

Hofstede's fifth cultural dimension is *long term orientation*. It shows the extent to which a society has a pragmatic future-oriented perspective rather than a conventional historical short-term point of view. The sixth and the latest dimension is *indulgence versus restraint.* It stands for a society that allows relatively free satisfaction of basic and natural human motivations related to enjoying life and having fun. Restraint stands for a society that suppresses satisfaction of needs and regulates it by means of strict social norms. (www.geert-hofstede.com.)

Hofstede's fifth and sixth dimensions have not been evaluated for Russia and therefore they are not discussed in this context.

3.2.6 Practical implications

Besides answering the research questions, this study also aims to provide practical information for Finnish managers working in Russia and dealing with human resource management issues and the complexity of cultural influence of human behaviour. Therefore it is relevant to introduce Hofstede's study results in Finnish-Russian context as well as some practical reflections of this issue in working environment.

According to Hofstede's study the results for Russian cultural dimensions differ significantly from those for Finland. Figure 9 describes the results for Russia in comparison with the results for Finland. Power distance and uncertainty avoidance indexes are very high for Russia whereas individualism and masculinity are low.
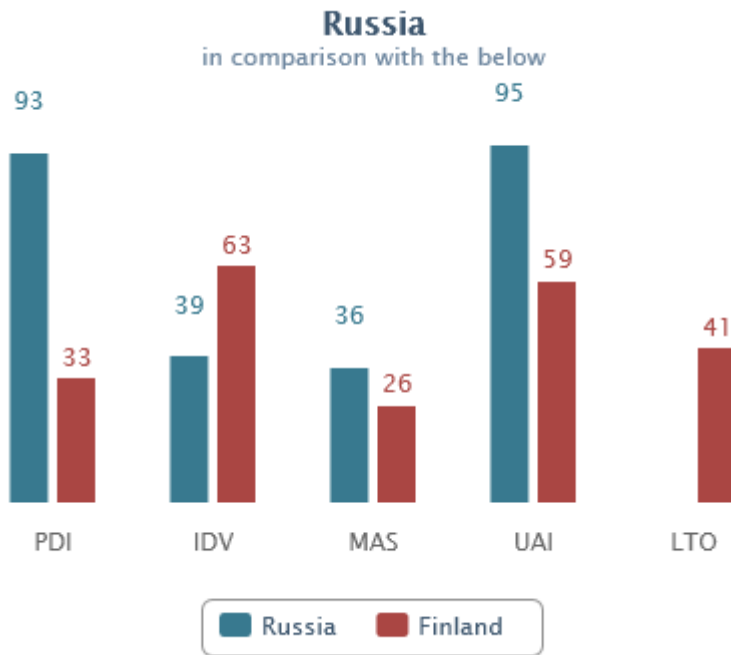
Figure 9.   The results for cultural dimensions in Russia compared with the results for Finland (www.geert-hofstede.com/russia.html).

The results of Hofstede's five cultural dimensions model for Russia can, for example, have the following reflections in a context of work-related motivation:

- High level of power distance may underline the importance of status symbols and their meaning for motivating employees;
- High level of power distance often leads to authoritarian and autocratic way of management. A more supportive and permissive management style could have a positive effect on well-being and harmony at work and thus work-related motivation;
- High level of collectivism emphasizes the importance of colleagues, working together, personal relationships generated by the work, and belonging to a coherent group;
- Collectivism also emphasizes the meaning of recognition. Employees with low level of individualism do not tend to get satisfaction from "work well done" but rather from "work well recognized" (Vadi & Vereshagin 2006, p. 189.)

- Low and moderate levels of masculinity in a culture presumes that the society values more soft than hard values, e.g. quality of life before quantity of life, serving others, working in order to live instead of living in order to work, reluctance for competition. Thus, good working conditions instead of money and possessions are expected to have a more central role in individual's life;

- Low masculinity index as well as high collectivism also refer to the importance of relationships and social needs;

- An emphasized need to avoid uncertainty could lead to low willingness to risk-taking, staying at present work and preferring the familiar tasks and colleagues to uncertainty of a new position. In cultures high on uncertainty avoidance, security motivates employees more strongly than self-actualization (Steers & Porter 1991, p. 320);

- A high uncertainty avoidance index is shown to be related to a high level of loyalty towards employer as well as longer average duration of employment referring to an emphasized importance of good atmosphere and relationships at work.

Also, according to Vadi and Vereshagin, Hofstede (1991) has concluded that people in collectivist countries rated the importance of the following work-related goals most highly:

- training to improve or acquire skills;
- good physical conditions for work;
- opportunity to realize their full potential in their job.

Further they note that, as Kets de Vries (2001) has put it, "for Russians, it is not the enterprise that counts, but the people in the enterprise". (Vadi & Vereshagin 2006, p. 190-191).

3.3   Motivational dynamics in Russia

Motivation is related not only to individual's state of needs, his culture and personality but also to his understanding of career concept which, in turn, is related to current social, political and economic situation of the environment.

Khapova's and Korotov's (2007) findings are useful in understanding careers and motivations behind them in a larger context. They have examined in their research paper related to economic development and careers, Russian careers in three decades: careers during the Soviet times (until 1990's), careers in the era of transition (from 1990 until 2000) and careers today (since 2000). The content of nine career attributes in each period was explored, e.g. subjective career or the individual's own interpretation of his or her career situation, and "knowing-why", or a sense of a person's identity and motivation.

According to the research results, the concept of subjective career, the individual's own interpretation of his or her career situation, has changed significantly in Russia over a period of last decades. Before 1990's the subjective career front, work motivation, performance, and occupational satisfaction were often low. Work motivation showed low levels of intrinsic motivation and high emphasis of salary. With the arrival of capitalism, material wealth became more and more important for Russians with stable income as a goal for career efforts for most of the people. At the same time, career became to be linked to opportunities to pursue a new life style and further growth possibilities. Opportunities to learn new skills and training programs became highly valued in one's work life.

In the new Russia after transition period, new culture of freedom and responsibility led to a new, more Western-like career model based on looking for choices. Today's Russians like to be intellectually challenged, recognized, socially important, internationally and domestically visible and are concerned with work-life balance. Continuous professional and personal growth becomes an important part of individual's engagement in work-related activities with early achievement of a high level responsibility. Although employee loyalty is

decreasing, unlike in the transition years, decisions about switching jobs are now more likely to be associated with expected future opportunities rather than with pure monetary rewards. Subjective career is now associated with the feeling of importance, meaning, intellectual challenge, and opportunities to further growth not differing from other European countries. (Khapova & Korotov 2007.)

3.4 Summary of the theoretical framework

A theoretical framework guides research by determining what variables are significant within the research area and what to measure. The theoretical framework of this study includes content (need) theories of motivation explaining the basic human needs and expectations – Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, Clayton Alderfer's ERG theory and David McClelland's three need theory - Frederick Herzberg's two-factor model shedding a light on satisfiers and dissatisfiers of work motivation and Geert Hoftede's five cultural dimensions model explaining the cultural dimensions related to work motivation among Russians.

Content theories of motivation are based on the needs of the individuals and they explain what motivates individuals. If people's needs are satisfied they will be more motivated to perform the tasks needed. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is a convenient framework for understanding the different needs and expectations that people have and the different motivators that might be applied to people at different levels. The hierarchy of needs model provides a useful base for the evaluation of motivational issues at work.

Alderfer sees in his ERG theory that an individual may have more than one need at the same time and that the needs are not hierarchical. Similar to Maslow, Alderfer also suggests that people strive for realization of higher level needs of growth and self-actualizations. People experience a greater sense of completeness when they have satisfied their growth needs. McClelland's three needs motivation theory suggests that motivation to perform reflects characteristics or perceptions of reality that are acquired from one's culture. He

had a particular attention to need for achievement, that is, need to take personal responsibility and have successful results.

Herzberg's two factor theory identified motivators that have positive influence on motivation at work as follows: achievement, recognition, advancement, autonomy, responsibility, possibility of growth, and the work itself. The meaning of these motivators together with the growth, esteem and self-actualization needs for Russian professionals is studied in this thesis. Hofstede's five cultural dimensions model and its results for Russia help to understand which motivational factors could be more important for Russian professionals and why, from the point of view of their cultural inheritance, for example, the high level of collectivism.

Khapova and Korotov showed in their research that motivational patterns in Russia have changed and monetary rewards do not have the same meaning than in earlier years. They as well emphasize the importance of opportunities to growth, responsibility, and feeling of importance as important motivational factors in modern Russia.

4   RESEARCH PROCESS

4.1   Questionnaire

The purpose of this study was to identify what work-related motivational factors dominate among Russian professionals - what are the reasons that make employees motivated to do their work well and remain within the organization. Another purpose was to identify if there are any differences in motivational factors between employees of for-profit organizations and non-profit organizations. The theoretical background is based on content theories of motivation explained in the previous chapter describing how diverse and varied needs and motives behind individuals' behaviour are.

The method for data collection was a self-completion questionnaire. The questionnaire was compiled on the basis of Mullins' classification for motivation to work. As explained earlier in chapter two, Mullins classified motivation to work into three groups of motives: instrumental orientation to work with an emphasis on economic, that is, extrinsic rewards, personal orientation with an emphasis on intrinsic satisfaction, and relational orientation with an emphasis on social relationships.

Questionnaire included 18 statements that aimed at embracing different aspects of the three orientations to work. Four statements concerning instrumental orientation included arguments related to economic rewarding such as salary, fringe benefits, and bonus schemes. Nine statements concerning personal orientation included arguments related to the variety of intrinsic motivation such as professional growth, scope to use and develop skills, meaning of the work, autonomy and independency at work, work-life balance, responsibility and career advancement. Five statements concerning relational orientation included arguments connected to social relationships with colleagues, friendly atmosphere at work, appreciation and respect and status. Statements were in random order in order to avoid possible irritation about repeating questions with similar or close arguments.

Respondents were asked to rate degree of importance of each statement on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = totally disagree, 7 = totally agree). The respondents were also asked to fill in their demographic data including gender, age group, education level, occupational status, status of their employee organization in terms of for-profit or non-for-profit organization, and the length of their employment at their current employer organization. Statements were originally compiled in English and translated into Russian by a Russian translation agency. Due to resource constraints, back translation of the questionnaire was not performed.

4.2 Respondents

In order to study the work-related motivational factors 15 employees working in nine different organizations were chosen to be respondents. Geographically the study covers organizations located in St. Petersburg. Four of the organizations were not-for-profit organizations and four were commercial organizations. One respondent represented a St. Petersburg city-owned company within a city administration, which is here classified as non-for-profit organization. Not-for-profit organizations are connected with providing different kind of information and consulting services for their mother organizations and the city-owned company provides information services and administration for neighbouring area cooperation with Finland and the Baltic states. Commercial organizations represented clothing industry, food industry and service sector. Seven organizations were Finnish-owned organizations and two of Russian origin.

Respondents were selected from different organizations in order to capture a variety of experiences and to exclude the over-emphasized influence of one particular or some few organizational cultures. Organizations were to some extent familiar to the author before the study, for example through previous work connections or through acquaintances working in these organizations and assisting to get informants. Therefore it was not difficult to invite respondents and only one person invited was not able to attend the study.

Three of the respondents were male and twelve respondents were females. They represented the following job levels: five respondents had management positions, seven respondents were specialists/experts and three persons represented front-line employees. Respondents were asked to rank the questionnaire's 18 statements according to how important each of the factors is in motivating them as employees to do their work as well as possible. Eight respondents were also shortly asked some clarifying questions after the questionnaire to give valuable subjective views on the subject. However, the emphasis of the study is on the questionnaire and interview was used to give the informants a possibility to express their own feelings on the subject.

4.3   Data collection

Data was collected during the period from 10th April till 26th April 2012. Methods of gathering empirical data were a questionnaire and in eight cases also a very short semi-structured interview conducted right after the questionnaire was completed by the respondent. The theme interview guide is included in the appendices of this work. However, in practice, the interviews took more a form of informal discussions. Work and related to work issues like expectations, colleagues etc. turned out to be quite personal matters and during the short discussions informants shared their personal views also on other issues not asked. As the purpose was to get subjective information the informants were let to talk about those matters that they considered to be important.

The questionnaire and interviews were conducted in Russian. The author is fluent in Russian and therefore it is quite unlike that during the interviews misunderstandings or misinterpretations occurred. Some clarifying questions both sides were made where necessary. Interviews were recorded and written out with the exception of one interview due to technical problems. Some of the interviewees' views are represented in this study. Respondents answered the 18 statements in the questionnaire in average in 5-10 minutes and the interviews took in average 10 minutes. Ten questionnaires were conducted in the presence of the author and five were sent to respondents and received later on.

5   RESEARCH FINDINGS AND CONCULSIONS

5.1   Research findings

The main research question was what work-related factors of motivation dominate among Russian professionals and the sub-question was if there are any differences in motivational factors between employees of for-profit organizations and non-profit organization. Questionnaire's statements were

divided into three groups: those with instrumental orientation to work with an emphasis on economic, that is, extrinsic rewards; those with personal orientation with an emphasis on intrinsic satisfaction provided by the work and the tasks, and relational orientation with an emphasis on social relationships. The author's proposition was that Russian professionals today after having reached a salary level providing a sufficient standard of living are less interested in financial motivation and more in other factors such as career and growth perspectives, that is, intrinsic and social aspects of work.

Below, Tables 1 and 2 illustrate those questionnaire's statements that respondents considered as the most significant factors affecting work motivation, calculated as simple averages and representing answers on the scale "totally agree" or "almost totally agree" with the argument. The scale was from 1 (totally disagree) to 7 (totally agree), thus the maximum possible average is 7. The respondents to this questionnaire ranked as the top five most dominant factors as shown in the tables.

Table 1. Motivational factors dominating among respondents from non-profit organizations.

Respondents from non-profit organizations	Average results
I am motivated to work well when I know that my work is important and it has a meaning.	6,9
A possibility to grow professionally, acquire knowledge and new skills is very important for me.	6,6
Job enrichment (a vertical expansion of one's work with increased work opportunities) would make me personally more interested in doing my work well.	6,5
A friendly and positive working environment is one of the most important factors of work life for me.	6,5
Appreciation and respect of other people towards my work motivates me.	6,4

The first three arguments, considered by the respondents from non-profit organizations as the most important for them, are related to personal orientation to work emphasizing intrinsic motivational factors; those which are self-generated factors. These factors include the feeling that the work is important and control over one's own resources, autonomy, possibility to use and develop one's skills and abilities, interesting and challenging work and opportunities for advancement. Among the respondents representing non-profit organizations the first argument in Table 1 was unanimously preferred as the most agreeable statement. Seven out of eight respondents totally agreed that they are motivated to work well when they know that their work is important and it has a meaning and one stated that he almost totally agree with the argument.

The fourth and fifth arguments in Table 1 are connected to relational orientation to work with an emphasis on social relationships such as friendships, group work and desire for affiliation, status and dependency.

Table 2. Motivational factors dominating among respondents from commercial organizations.

Respondents from commercial organizations	Average results
I strongly appreciate the possibility provided by employer to attend training courses and seminars	6,7
I am motivated to work well when I know that my work is important and it has a meaning.	6,6
Good relationships with colleagues at work make me motivated to do my work as well as possible.	6,3
A friendly and positive working environment is one of the most important factors of work life for me.	6,1
I am to a great extent motivated by interesting and diverse work tasks.	6,1
A possibility to grow professionally, acquire knowledge and new skills is very important for me.	6,1
Appreciation and respect of other people towards my work motivates me.	6,1

In Table 2 instead of five there are shown seven statements that according to results are considered most important for respondents as there are four statements receiving equal amount of importance. Among respondents working in commercial organizations, the first two arguments, considered as the most important for them, are related to personal orientation to work, as well as the fifth and sixth arguments in Table 2. The third, fourth and seventh arguments in Table 2 are connected to relational orientation to work with an emphasis on social relationships.

Further, Tables 3 and 4 illustrate those questionnaire's statements that respondents considered as least significant among all the factors affecting their motivation to work motivation, calculated also as simple averages.

Table 3. Motivational factors least important among respondents from non-profit organizations.

Respondents from non-profit organizations	Average results
Only sufficient monthly salary significantly increases my motivation to exert more effort at my work.	3,4
I would feel more motivated to my work if my employer showed his appreciation by public acknowledgement, certificate of merit, recognizing my achievements e.g. via Intranet etc.	3,8
Performance based bonuses instead of a fixed monthly salary would stimulate me to work harder.	3,9
For me the main idea of working is to earn money for living, not realizing one's career related ambitions.	4,1
A possibility to career advancement is very important for me.	4,5

The first argument, considered by the respondents from non-profit organizations as the least important for them, as well as the third and fourth arguments are all related to instrumental orientation to work with an emphasis on extrinsic, economic rewards such as pay, fringe benefits etc. The second least important argument is represents relational orientation to work and the fifth least important

factor is related to personal orientation to work with an emphasis on social relationships such as friendships, group work and desire for affiliation, status and dependency.

Table 4. Motivational factors least important among respondents from commercial organizations.

Respondents from commercial organizations	Average results
I would feed more motivated to my work if my employer showed his appreciation by public acknowledgment, certificate of merit, recognizing my achievements e.g. via Intranet etc.	3,1
Only sufficient monthly salary significantly increases my motivation to exert more effort at my work.	3,7
Performance based bonuses instead of a fixed monthly salary would stimulate me to work harder.	4,6
Job enrichment (a vertical expansion of one's work with increased work opportunities) would make me personally more interested in doing my work well.	4,7
More responsibility at work motivates me to high performance.	4,9

The least important argument in this questionnaire for the respondents from commercial organizations reflects relational orientation to work. The second and third least important factors are related to instrumental orientation to work with an emphasis on economic rewards, and the fourth and the fifth least important factors are related to personal orientation to work with an emphasis on social relationships such as friendships, group work and desire for affiliation, status and dependency.

5.2 Conclusions

5.2.1 Reliability and validity of the study

Qualitative research examines the subjective meaning of issues from the participants' perspectives, and tries to understand the interrelationships of the issue and phenomena in context-specific settings whereas quantitative research aims at explaining and making generalizations. Qualitative research study may find several answers the research results representing only one aspect of the issue, not an objective truth. (Flick 2011; Golafshani 2003.)

Reliability concerns the possibility of other researchers to make the same observations of a given phenomenon if and when the observation is conducted using the same methods and procedures. However, according to Golafshani, some researchers consider that reliability in qualitative research refers to evaluating the quality of a study that has a purpose of generating common understanding. The difference in purposes of evaluating the quality of studies in quantitative and quantitative research is one of the reasons that the concept of reliability is by some researchers considered as irrelevant in qualitative research. According to Stenbacka (2001), the concept of reliability is even misleading in qualitative research since the reliability issue concerns measurements and thus it has no relevance in qualitative research. (Golafshani 2003, pp. 601-602.)

On the other hand, other researchers say that there can be no validity without reliability, and a demonstration of validity is sufficient to establish reliability. That is, reliability is a consequence of the validity in a study. In qualitative research, validity concerns the degree to which a research measures, what it is intended to measure, and research findings are judged to have been interpreted in a correct way. (Golafshani 2003, p. 602.)

Thus, the issue of reliability in qualitative research is not indisputable due to the qualitative research aspect of generating common understanding on the issue and interpreting informants' subjective feelings. However, reliability also refers

to a research conducted in a careful way so that the results can be considered to be repeated later and not being random results. In this sense, reliability of the study can suffer, for example, from translation errors, technical problems in recording an interview or inaccurate rewriting the recorded interviews. Also researcher's own expectations and prejudices, his or her possible subjectivity may have a negative influence on reliability.

The author of this study has tried to increase reliability of this study by describing the study process profoundly: the theoretical background and its connection to the subject of the study, information on respondents but respecting their anonymity, author's proposition about work-related motivational factors, and how data was collected. Due to resource constraints, back translation of the questionnaire was not performed. This may have caused in the study some translation inadequacies which could have affected the reliability of the study.

External validity means that the study results can be generalized, and the results are transferable to situations beyond the current research situation. In order to reach better external validity the sample size of the study should have been larger. When the sample size of the study is small as in this study consisting of 15 questionnaires and eight interviews, the possibility of generalization of the results is not clear. Moreover, taking into account the complex of the issue and the numerous personal, situational and other factors that affect motivation on the whole, it is not clear would the results be the same, if a similar research study was to be conducted with the same processes and participants.

When the research sample is small, the analysis often is merely a description of the results and generalization of the results is difficult. At the same time, it is clear that situational factors affect the results as motivation changes over time and according to circumstances in personal, social or other factors. Hence, it is difficult and delusive to draw any unequivocal conclusions. Furthermore, this study has a qualitative research aspect of generating common understanding on the issue and interpreting subjective feelings and thus it doesn't aim at

producing exact results and generalizations to the population as a whole. Therefore, it would be not right to draw implicit conclusions from the study. However, some common recommendations on the subject of this study will be made but the reader should bear in mind the above mentioned facts and limitations.

5.2.2 Discussion on the results

The purpose of this study was to understand what work-related factors of motivation dominate among Russian professionals and whether there are differences in motivational factors between employees of for-profit organizations and non-profit organization.

The study results for respondents from commercial organizations show that the among the seven most dominant motivational factors four represent personal orientation to work with an emphasis on intrinsic satisfaction derived from the nature of the work itself, interest in the job, personal and professional growth and development. Intrinsic motivation is as well related to psychological rewards such as the opportunity to use one's ability, a sense of challenge and achievement, receiving appreciation and positive recognition, and being treated in a caring and considerate manner. As respondents put it:

- Work is not only about money, work is also about self-actualization of oneself.
- Trust is very important.
- Leadership is definitely very important. We have a director who takes into account every employee and is very supportive. We have each year development discussions where he personally discusses with employees their views and expectations for the next year. This is not yet very common in Russia.
- We have a small "cafe" at work and the company takes care that we have something to eat and drink there. It is nice when you know that you can have breakfast at work if you don't have time for it at home.
- I appreciate that our company supports a healthy way of life and compensates employees' expenses for sport. And it is important that our general director sets an example to personal model in this.

The possibility to attend training courses and seminars provided by the employer as well as other possibilities to grow professionally and acquire new knowledge was very motivating for respondents from commercial organizations. As Vadi and Vereshagin (2006) show in their research paper, people who have a highly collectivist cultural background, such as Russians, perceive training positively as a very valuable benefit. This is something that employer companies seem to support to a reasonable extent. Being treated in a caring and considerate matter appeals to values that are traditionally prevalent in Russian society; collectivism, being a part of a community, and feminism emphasizing taking care of others.

Among the seven most dominant motivational factors the rest three factors reflect to relational orientation to work with an emphasis on social relationships such as friendships, group work and desire for affiliation, status received from the work, and dependency. Respondents describe:

- Work is needed for contacts with other people.
- I spent 12 years at my previous work sitting in the office. There were clients that I never saw face to face (*when discussing reasons for leaving the previous work).*

David McClelland's (1961) motivation theory suggests that motives to work well reflect characteristics or perceptions that are acquired from one's culture and thus learned at an early stage through coping with one's environment. This is closely related to Hofstede's perception of the meaning of culture. In Hofstede's study, Russia scores high in collectivism which emphasizes the importance of colleagues, working together, personal relationships generated by the work, and belonging to a coherent group. Vadi and Vereshagin have commented in their research paper that "collectivism should be considered as a strategic HR issue in Russia" (Vadi & Vereshagin 2006, p. 196).

Further, the study results for respondents from commercial organizations show that the five least important motivational factors represent all three orientations to work. The least important argument reflects relational orientation to work with a social aspect. Public acknowledgments for well-done work were not

considered to be important for respondents working in commercial organizations.

- Among my subordinates there are persons that are motivated by acknowledgement but I think…it depends on the person. It is not an issue of different generations; rather it's a personality issue.

The second and third least important factors are related to instrumental orientation to work with an emphasis on economic rewards. Respondents acknowledge that money is not a significant driving force for them to work. As respondents comment:

- I work for money but also, or perhaps more, because working is interesting. There is no life without work.
- Our company has a budget for bonuses but not a significant one. And I really feel that financial motivation is not always the right answer. I think that my subordinates would appreciate much more if they instead could have a day off.

The fourth and the fifth least important factors among respondents from commercial organizations are related to personal orientation to work with an emphasis on intrinsic motivation. Even if training is highly respected and considered to be motivating, job enrichment and more responsibility at work are respected to a significantly lesser extent. One explanation to this could be related to cultural context. According to Hofstede's five cultural dimensions model, Russia is a society with high uncertainty avoidance. Such a society prefers strict rules and guidelines and doesn't easily accept change and unexpected risks. This is reflected even in employment contracts, where employees' tasks and obligations are written down in detail and employer doesn't have a right to include clauses such as "and other tasks, pointed by the superior".

Further, we take a look at the results from respondents representing non-profit organizations. The study results show that among the most dominant motivational factors three represent personal orientation to work with an emphasis on intrinsic satisfaction and two factors relational orientation to work.

Here, too, no extrinsic factors dominate in results. Respondents from non-profit organizations comment:

- I have a great interest towards my work… my work is very important and interesting; I like to work with new projects.
- Money, company car and other things are secondary if you just have enough for living. The content of the work is more important.
- I think that in equal parts money, respect for my work and acknowledgment of myself (*when discussing what motivates the informant*).
- I left my previous work because employees were not treated equally in terms of salaries.

The results for respondents from non-profit organizations show that like among employees of commercial organizations the five least important motivational factors represent all three orientations to work. The three least important arguments for both groups are the same. Among respondents from non-profit organizations the insignificancy of financial factors is even more emphasized than among respondents from commercial organizations. According to a respondent:

- I have been offered as much as 40 to 50 per cent more salary from other places but I like my work, I enjoy it, and I don't want to change jobs.

According to Herzberg et al. motivators refer to intrinsic factors within the work itself and cause positive job attitudes because they satisfy the need for self-actualization, the individual's ultimate goal. Herzberg argued that satisfaction and positive feelings could come only from the nature of the work and individuals do not require additional incentives because motivation is something that derives from within an individual.

Having in mind the limitations of the study, discussed in chapter 5.2.1, the results of the study can be summarized as follows:

➤ The most dominant motivational factors among both non-profit and commercial organizations' employees are intrinsic motivational factors –

for both groups an interesting and meaningful work and possibility to professional growth is very important.

➢ For both groups relational orientation to work with an emphasis on social relationships is also important in terms of work motivation, but to somewhat lesser extent than personal orientation with an emphasis on intrinsic motivation and the nature of the work itself.

➢ In both groups among the least motivating factors dominates instrumental orientation to work with an emphasis on extrinsic, economic rewarding. This finding as well as the two above mentioned findings are all supported by content theories of motivation and Herzberg's two-factor theory, described in theoretical part of this study, and emphasizing the meaning of other factors, intrinsic to individuals. Also Hofstede's findings on moderate femininity of Russian culture support the finding: one of the characteristics of feminine culture is that money and possessions do not have a significant weight in individual's life.

➢ An interesting finding was that both groups do not appreciate highly public acknowledgement and recognitions of achievement. This is not in line with Hofstede's findings on high level of collectivism and power distance in Russian culture. Collectivism emphasizes the meaning of recognition and high level of power distance may underline the importance of status symbols such as certificates of merit, and their meaning for motivating employees.

Despite the limitations of the study and the research aspect of generating common understanding on the issue and interpreting subjective feelings, not producing exact results and generalizations, the study results support the proposition of the study that other than financial motivational drivers dominate among Russian professionals, thus being in a contradiction with research by Alfonso Sousa-Poza and Andrés A. Sousa-Poza published in 2000 with a conclusion that in Russia high income is as important as having an interesting job.

The results also show that no significant differences in motivational factors were found between employees of for-profit and non-profit organizations. Therefore, both non-profit organizations often lacking possibilities to financial incentives and commercial organizations should consider intrinsic motivations particularly important in getting their employees to achieve the organizational goals and benefit organizational efficiency. According to Martín Cruz et al. (2009, p. 487), it is intrinsic motivation, which has been proven to have a better effect on the employee's performance, because it implies employee's commitment to the organization.

For non-profit organizations the research result is clearly positive. They are able to employ the best people even with fewer possibilities to extrinsic motivation, if the organization's vision and mission correlates with those of employees' and if the organization is able to provide for example those means of motivation which came up in this study's interviews as desired actions, such as providing trainings and possibilities to work flexible hours, trustful relationships with management and good leadership, and possibility to do remote work when personal circumstances require.

Together with the results the main conclusion is that both commercial companies and non-profit organizations should give close attention to their incentive programs and include in them factors that really have meaning for employees.

5.3 Suggestions for further research

The concept of work motivation is a fascinating subject and further research, more focused on specific needs of a particular organization could have a significant contribution to organization's employees' motivation to work and common well-being at work. Employee motivation is a critical element to increasing productivity but it also a key to prospering organizations.

Motivation is a dynamic internal state resulting from the influence of personal and situational factors. Needs and motives vary depending on individuals'

background, experience, occupation, position in the organization and many other factors. This is why there is no single definite answer to a question how to motivate employees and it is difficult to give any generalization whatsoever. As Armstrong and Murlis (2007, p. 72) write, the most obvious way to find out what people want would be to ask them what rewards they value. This is the key factor why organizations should really be interested in their employees' values, the cultural setting, and their subjective feelings, especially in a market like Russia, where competition is very intensive, war for talents may accelerate in the future job-hopping and the current trend is to move from multinational companies to local Russian employers where people are allowed more responsibility, progress more quickly and are often paid better.

Suggestions for further research from the viewpoint of Finnish organizations are to study the impact of high uncertainty avoidance in Russian culture to work motivation. High uncertainty avoidance leads to employees being more motivated by job stability and security rather than job promotions or pay incentives and Finnish and other foreign companies may be considered more secure as an employer. Another interesting further research issue could be the impact on non-traditional working hours on employee motivation as many respondents stated that they would appreciate if they were provided a possibility to more flexible working hours.

5.4   Final words

Russia is ahead of many other economies in terms of its speed of growth and development, including development of labour market. Today in Russia career is associated with the feeling of importance, meaning, and intellectual challenge, thrive for self-actualization, and opportunities for further growth. Although employee loyalty is decreasing, decisions about switching jobs are now more likely to be associated with opportunities provided by the employer or the work rather than with monetary rewards.

The meaning of Russia's economy and society in general for Finland and Finnish organizations is significant both in economic and cultural terms. Thus

the work-related motivational issues should also be of importance for all Finnish companies and organizations employing Russians in their organizations in Russia. Working on this study has widened the author's understanding on motivational issues and given tools to be used further in everyday work life. The author hopes that readers interested in this issue have also learned something new and useful to be implemented at their work.

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Questionnaire

Respondent's demographic data

Please select the option that best describes you.

1) Gender

Female ＿＿＿＿　　　Male ＿＿＿＿

2) Age group

Less than 25 ＿＿＿＿　　　25-35 ＿＿＿＿　36-45 ＿＿＿＿　46-55＿＿＿＿

3) Education level

Upper secondary education ＿＿＿＿　　　Higher education ＿＿＿＿

Post-graduate level ＿＿＿＿　　　Other ＿＿＿＿

4) Occupational status

Front-line employee ＿＿＿＿　　　Specialist ＿＿＿＿　　　Management position ＿＿＿＿

Other ＿＿＿＿

5) Organization's status

For-profit organization ＿＿＿＿　　　Non-profit organization ＿＿＿＿

6) For how many years have you been working at your current work?

Less than 2 ＿＿＿＿　　　2-5 ＿＿＿＿　　　6-10 ＿＿＿＿　　　More than 10＿＿＿＿

QUESTIONNAIRE

Statements in this questionnaire examine what work-related motivational factors dominate among the respondents.

Please indicate how strongly you disagree or agree with the statements below. Choose only one answer. (1 = totally disagree, 2 = strongly disagree, 3 = to some extent disagree, 4 = neutral opinion, 5 = to some extent agree, 6 = strongly agree, 7 = totally agree)

7) A friendly and positive working environment is one of the most important factors of work life for me.

Totally disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Totally agree

8) I strongly appreciate the possibility provided by employer to attend training courses and seminars.

Totally disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Totally agree

9) Good relationships with colleagues at work make me motivated to do my work as well as possible.

Totally disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Totally agree

10) Only sufficient monthly salary significantly increases my motivation to exert more effort at my work.

Totally disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Totally agree

11) Performance based bonuses instead of a fixed monthly salary would stimulate me to work harder.

Totally disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Totally agree

12) Fringe benefits such as additional medical insurance, a company car, pension scheme etc. would significantly influence my motivation to stay at my current work.

Totally disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Totally agree

13) I am to a great extent motivated by interesting and diverse work tasks.

Totally disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Totally agree

14) I am motivated to work well when I know that my work is important and it has a meaning.

Totally disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Totally agree

15) A possibility to grow professionally, acquire knowledge and new skills is very important for me.

Totally disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Totally agree

16) A possibility to plan my daily work more independently, e.g. through flexible working hours, increases my motivation to work.

Totally disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Totally agree

17) I am concerned with work-life balance and I would be more motivated to work if my employer would better take into account my personal life obligations such as child care problems.

Totally disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Totally agree

18) More responsibility at work motivates me to high performance.

Totally disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Totally agree

19) I prefer a stable and a secure job to high earnings.

Totally disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Totally agree

20) A possibility to career advancement is very important for me.

Totally disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Totally agree

21) Appreciation and respect of other people towards my work motivates me.

Totally disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Totally agree

22) For me the main idea of working is to earn money for living, not realizing one's career related ambitions.

Totally disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Totally agree

23) I would feed more motivated to my work if my employer showed his appreciation by public acknowledgment, certificate of merit, recognizing my achievements e.g. via Intranet etc.

Totally disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Totally agree

24) Job enrichment (a vertical expansion of one's work with increased work opportunities) would make me personally more interested in doing my work well.

Totally disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Totally agree

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME !

Опросный лист

Персональные данные респондента

Пожалуйста, отметьте галочкой подходящий для Вас вариант ответа.

1) Пол

Жен. _____   Муж. _____

2) Возраст

Меньше 25 лет_____   25-35 лет _____   36-45 лет _____   старше 46 лет_____

3) Образование

Среднее специальное _____   Высшее _____   Кандидат наук _____

Другое _____

4) Должностной статус

Сотрудник _____ Специалист/эксперт _____ Руководящая должность _____

Другое _____

5) Статус организации

Коммерческая организация _____   Некоммерческая организация_____

6) Сколько лет Вы работаете на Вашей нынешней работе?

Менее 2 лет_____   2-5 лет_____   6-10 _____ лет   Более 10 лет_____

ОПРОСНЫЙ ЛИСТ

Формулировки данного опросного листа изучают, какие мотивационные факторы, связанные с работой, преобладают среди респондентов.

Оцените, пожалуйста, степень своего согласия или несогласия с формулировками, указанными внизу. Выберите только один ответ (1 = полностью не согласен, 2 = не согласен, 3 = частично не согласен, 4 = ни да, ни нет, 5 = частично согласен, 6 = согласен, 7 = полностью согласен)

7) Дружелюбная и позитивная атмосфера на рабочем месте является для меня лично одним из самых важных факторов, связанных с работой.

Полностью не согласен | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Полностью согласен

8) Я очень высоко ценю возможность, предоставленную работодателем, участвовать на семинарах и на курсах повышения квалификации.

Полностью не согласен | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Полностью согласен

9) Хорошие отношения с коллегами по работе мотивируют меня работать как можно лучше.

Полностью не согласен | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Полностью согласен

10) Только достаточно высокий месячный оклад может повысить мою мотивацию работать более эффективно.

Полностью не согласен | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Полностью согласен

11) Базовый оклад вместе с бонусами, основанными на хороших результатах работы, вместо ежемесячного большого оклада, мотивируют меня работать лучше.

Полностью не согласен | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Полностью согласен

12) Льготы и вознаграждения, такие как дополнительная медицинская страховка, служебный автомобиль, дополнительные пенсионные перечисления и т.д., добавили бы мне мотивации остаться работать на нынешнем рабочем месте.

Полностью не согласен | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Полностью согласен

13) Меня очень мотивируют интересные и разнообразные задания и проекты.

Полностью не согласен | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Полностью согласен

14) Я мотивирован работать хорошо, когда я знаю, что моя работа важная и имеет большое значение.

Полностью не согласен | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Полностью согласен

15) Возможность профессионального роста, получение новых знаний и практического опыта очень важны для меня.

Полностью не согласен | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Полностью согласен

16) Возможность планировать свой рабочий день более самостоятельно, например, воспользоваться гибким графиком, повысит мою мотивацию работать.

Полностью не согласен | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Полностью согласен

17) Меня беспокоит баланс между работой и личной жизнью. У меня была бы более сильная мотивация к работе, если бы работодатель в большей степени принимал во внимание мои обязательства, связанные с личной жизнью, такие как, например, уход за детьми.

Полностью не согласен | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Полностью согласен

18) Больше ответственности на работе мотивирует меня выполнять рабочие задания эффективно.

Полностью не согласен | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Полностью согласен

19) Я предпочитаю стабильную и надежную работу высоким заработкам.

Полностью не согласен | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Полностью согласен

20) Возможность продвигаться по карьерной лестнице очень важна для меня.

Полностью не согласен | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Полностью согласен

21) Меня мотивирует признание и уважение других людей по отношению к моей работе.

Полностью не согласен | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Полностью согласен

22) Лично я считаю, что работаю для того, чтобы зарабатывать деньги на жизнь, а не для реализации амбиций, связанных с карьерой.

Полностью не согласен | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Полностью согласен

23) Я был бы более мотивирован к работе, если бы мой работодатель отмечал результаты моей работы путем выражения мне публичной благодарности, выдачи грамоты, признания моих достижений, например, в Интранете и т.п.

Полностью не согласен | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Полностью согласен

24) Более разнообразная работа с расширенными возможностями заинтересовала бы меня лично в выполнении моей работы хорошо.

Полностью не согласен | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Полностью согласен

СПАСИБО ЗА УЧАСТИЕ!

THEME INTERVIEW GUIDE

How would you describe in your own words the meaning of work for yourself?

Как Вы описали бы своими словами значимость работы для себя?

Name three main factors that make you work.

Назовите три основных причин, почему Вы работаете.

Factors of motivation are often classified as extrinsic (economic), intrinsic (personal) and relational (social) motivators. When you evaluate yourself this particular moment, how would you describe your motivation to work at your current position?

Мотивационные факторы часто делят на внешние, внутренние и социальные факторы. Оценив свою ситуацию на данный момент, какая категория или какие категории мотивации Вы считаете для себя самой важной?

If you think of your current work, superiors, tasks and your work collective, is there something that would require a change in order to improve your motivation to work?

Если Вы думаете о Вашей нынешней работе, начальстве, рабочих обязанностях, коллегах и о других обстоятельствах, связанных с работой, на Ваш взгляд, нужно ли что-либо поменять, чтобы повысить Вашу мотивацию работать?

The questionnaire you completed included 18 statements shedding light on your views about work-related motivational factors. Are there other factors, not included in the questionnaire, that are or would be important for you personally in order to feel motivated to continue at your present position?

Вы ответили на 18 аргументов касательно разных факторов, связанных с мотивацией в отношении к работе. Помимо перечисленных в анкете факторов, существует ли для Вас какие-либо другие факторы, которые важны для Вас лично для того, чтобы быть мотивированы продолжить работу на Вашей нынешней должности?