WHEN
EAST MEETS WEST:
EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION
IN CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARISON

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THESIS SUMMARY

The present work on employee motivation can be regarded as a contribution to theoretical and empirical cross-cultural research.

The goal of the thesis is to add to the critical analysis of traditional and universally renown theories on motivation and to test their global applicability. For this reason, content theories of Maslow, Herzberg and McClelland are introduced and discussed. With a view to literature and current research it is concluded that theories by Maslow, Herzberg and McClelland cannot necessarily be regarded as true for non-American cultures. Their use in the practice of internationally operating companies is therefore limited.

Following this theoretical part on existing motivation theories, an empirical study is presented that has been conducted in co-operation with the company HENKEL. Results gained from the interrogation of 131 HENKEL - employees in four Eastern- and Western-European regions (Poland, Slovakia, East- and West-Germany) are demonstrated. The chosen data are aiming to prove that HENKEL - employees in Eastern and Western European countries are motivated by completely different motivational factors. It is then argued that organisations should therefore not apply identical motivational systems across borders. In fact, HENKEL - employees are shown to be extremely diverse in their attitudes towards leadership, group-affiliation and money. Little differences can be found concerning the power motive. Factor analysis allows to identify three different types of motivational characters among HENKEL-employees; notably the 'materialist', the 'powerist' and the 'comrade'. By showing that these three different motivational characters can almost directly be attributed to different nationalities the thesis concludes that international companies should adjust their motivational systems to the national culture of those countries they are operating in.

Key words: Cross-cultural management research; employee motivation; motivational systems; Eastern Europe

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A. INTRODUCTION

A.I. Relevance of cross-cultural management -and motivational research

Due to the increasingly international entrenchment of production and trade many companies have grown into the position of global players over the past two decades. 'Key' terms such as 'global village', 'globalisation of economy' or 'global researching' mark the economic and societal debate of our times, three years before the turn of the millennium.

Abroad, companies are confronting employees of most diverse cultural backgrounds; cultures that express themselves daily through employees' attitudes and values, norms, artefacts and symbols and that exercise a considerable influence on organisational processes (Bleicher, 1991, p.733). Due to cultural differences many international companies, Joint Ventures or other cross-border alliances are experiencing so called 'cultural clashes': conflicts that arise as a result of culturally based misunderstandings. Often these cultural conflicts determine the success or failure of transnational alliances (Morosini and Singh, 1994, p.390).

On this background, management sciences increasingly analyse whether and to what extend it is possible to transfer management techniques, leadership models, strategies and expatriates from one country culture to another. An internationalisation of the managerial profession and education is being questioned. A growing consciousness for the cultural diversity of the managerial environment has lead to more research interest in the comparison of different culturally grown management practices leading to problems of management transfer problems (von Keller, 1989, p.232). Since the 1960s a new branch of scientific research has thus come into existence : cross-cultural management research.

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One area of cross-cultural management research is focusing on the aspect of employee motivation. This field of research is at the centre of interest in this present work

World-wide motivation of employees is a challenge for all international companies today. The question is, how global players, with global markets, globally standardised products and world-wide production facilities can succeed in motivating their employees; notably people who stem from the most diverse countries and cultures, with a magnitude of different locally determined, historical, political, religious and social backgrounds.[1]

As employee motivation is a key determinant to reach ambitious organisational goals it is a subject of considerable economic relevance: In the first place, employees in *overseas* subsidiaries must be prevented from feeling 'overrun' and alienated when being confronted with the company -and national culture of their mother company. Most importantly, however, employees must be motivated to beat competitors and obtain leading market positions in fiercely fought for foreign markets.

It is quite close to suggest that motivation as such is a cultural phenomenon as it is based on needs of which development and relative significance are again influenced by cultural heritage (Derekshan and Fathehi, 1996, p.231). 'To understand why people do what they do, we have to understand the cultural constructs by which they interpret the world' (D'Andrade and Strauss, 1992, p.4). With the exception of some biologically determined basic needs (like hunger, thirst, sleep, etc.) many needs like security, love or self-realisation are learned through a process of socialisation and norms have been established to satisfy them (Derekshan and Fathehi, 1996).

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[1] One problem for universal company conglomerates is to understand their employee's cultural heritage. 'Motivating' people means in the first place to 'understand' them.

The major hypothesis of this present work is therefore that motivational systems should be designed in such a way that they address those needs of the employee which are culturally the most relevant to him/her.

'Tailoring motivational tactics to natural needs is the key to getting employees to use their judgement as well as their skills' (Alpander and Carter, 1995, p.27).

So far, motivation models have put little emphasis on the possibility to adapt a company's motivational system to its cultural surrounding. Derekhshan and Fathehi state (Derekhshan and Fathehi, 1996, p.231) that one of the main impediments of effective motivation in multinational companies must be seen in the 'universalism claim' of conventional motivational theories. Those theories widely known in practice would falsely suggest a world-wide homogeneity of human needs and would imply that people working within the same motivational system all react in the same way even though their cultures are completely different.

The present thesis aims to support Derekhshan and Fathehi's point of view by discussing theoretically as well as empirically the weaknesses of conventional motivational theory. In the theoretical part, classical motivational theories formulated by Maslow, Herzberg and McClelland will be looked at and their drawbacks from a cross-cultural perspective will be pointed out. In the empirical part the goal is to give evidence that needs and motives of employees are varying across borders. By empirically proving that needs are varying from one country to another the necessity for culturally adapted motivational systems will be made clear and the limits of conventionally universal motivational theory can easily be deducted.

Finally, the empirical insights won in the context of this present study on motivation will serve to add some comment on general models of cross-cultural theorising such as the ones by Hofstede and the societal effect scholars.

A.II. Structure of the Work

In co-operation with the company HENKEL an empirical cross-cultural study has been realised for this present thesis on the subject of employee motivation. It has integrated samples from Poland, Slovakia, East -and West Germany. From a scientific perspective, the work is a contribution to the human resource field of cross-cultural management research.

The theoretical part and introduction to this present thesis therefore starts with a primary exposition of cross-cultural management research and a description of its present 'state of the art' (part B). Insights will be presented on attitudes and values of managers across borders as well as differences in employees' leadership expectations. An emphasis will then be put on cross-cultural research on organisational structure. In this context, the theoretical development of cross-cultural management research will be described which started out from the contingency framework, was complemented by the political economists' models and then culminated in the findings of cultural theory. The cultural dimension of the empirical survey that has been conducted for this thesis suggests the importance cultural theory has for this present work. As a result, the most important models of cultural theory, notably those developed by Geert Hofstede and the societal effect scholars, will be discussed at great length in the theoretical part of the thesis.

Descriptions of cross-cultural management research will be terminated by a summary of research-related problems occurring in the field of comparative management both in terms of terminology and methodology.

Finally, comparative management research has been marked considerably by the so-called 'universalist-culturalist-controversy' (von Keller, 1982, p.539). The theoretical part of this thesis (part B) as well as the following expositions on motivational theory (part C) will therefore be continuously complemented by arguments for and against the culture-bound and/or culture-free theses. The question is whether management theories and -models (like the motivational

theories) are universally valid and world-wide transferable or whether they have to be adapted to the cultural specificities of different countries.

The theoretical part on motivation theories (part C) and, in particular, the empirical part of this thesis (part D) will attempt to provide an answer to this question. The discussion of those motivational models developed by Maslow, Herzberg and McClelland will critically review the cultural drawbacks of these theories and their limited universal validity (part C). The insights *revealed* in the HENKEL-survey including the areas of achievement -and power motivation, leadership, affiliation and remuneration will then contribute to confirm the necessity of a culturalist perspective on theoretical constructs (part D). The validity of conventionally universal motivational theory will be undermined.

The empirical findings will finally critically review timely cultural theory and to comment on the correspondence between the societal effect approach and the empirical insights won in this present study.

B.   THEORETICAL   RESEARCH   IN   CROSS-CULTURAL MANAGEMENT

B.I. Definition and goals of cross-cultural management research

Cross-cultural management research also called 'comparative management' is

dealing with questions and problems that arise from the difference of cultural environments and from the meeting of managers and organisations with varying cultural backgrounds. Different cultural heritage is expressed through management processes and the management of productive social systems, including the way in which management deals with the transfer of management theory, leadership practices, - strategy and -problems (von Keller, 1989, p.232).

The goals of cross-cultural management research (von Keller, 1989, p.233)consist primarily in the detection, description and measurement of differences and commonalties between organisational processes and behaviour relevant to management in different cultures and countries (descriptive goals). This includes the attempt to classify countries in cultural clusters (classifying goals). At the same time, management models and leadership theories are being reviewed for their transcultural and general applicability as well as transferability (falsifying goals). Cross-cultural management research aims to develop rules of action and practical concepts that allow for the 'right' behaviour and the optimisation of a company's performance abroad (pragmatic goals). Finally, researches attempt to formulate hypotheses and theories explaining the coherence between factual managerial behaviour and cultural surrounding and to establish laws for cultural interaction that are of transcultural validity (heuristic goals). In this last context, it has continuously been tried to explain 'organisational structures' by observing the interaction of a set of organisational variables. The overall goal is to identify universal laws for those culturally dependant and independent variables that are determinant for organisational phenomena. From here, it is tried to account for the relative success or failure of enterprises in a given cultural or societal setting and to predict and understand its performance under varying economic circumstances.

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B.II. Development and state of empirical, cross-cultural management research

The origin of cross-cultural management research is equated in literature with the 12-country-analysis of Harbinson and Myer's work which was first published in 1959 and entitled 'Management in the Industrial World' (Harbinson and Myers, 1959). In the aftermath of this first publication, the field of comparative management research quickly gained popularity during the 1960s. Initially, most studies were realised in the United States while European countries were used as comparative samples (von Keller, 1982). Increasingly, however, European scholars have been involved in this area of management research as well. Over the last decade, China and Japan have been at the centre of research interest (Bhagat et al., 1982, p.90)

The 'Handbook of export and international corporations' discusses comparative management by distinguishing between four focal areas of research (von Keller, 1989, p.235):

1) employee attitudes and values
2) leadership stiles
3) organisational traits and structures
4) work satisfaction and motivation.

This four-dimensional division and content structure of cross-cultural management research will serve hereafter as an outline to summarise insights of comparative management to date and to structure the thesis work.

While areas 1 to 3 will be outlined in the introductory part of this thesis (part B) a description of research on work motivation (4) will be discussed at length in part C of this work.

The introduction into cross-cultural management research will put special emphasis on the aspect of organisational traits and structures : Comparative management research has a very strong link with research in organisational traits and structures. Models describing and explaining the development and functioning of organisational structure have to respect the cultural setting of organisations and therefore depend on the insights of Comparative Management. Theories on organisational structure can only be considered 'universally valid' if they have taken all possible cultural diversities into account. After all, organisational interaction and variables described in theory must be applicable to whatever cultural surrounding. At the same time, comparative management research is in vain if it does not lead to practical recommendations for or at least insights into organisational structure abroad.

Comparative management research on one side and research in organisational structure on the other side can therefore probably be regarded as two sides of the same medal. The following theoretical discourse will respect this coherence by commenting on both : Comparative management research findings as well as the theoretical development of organisational structure models. When discussing the cultural theories of organisational structure models (ideationalists and institutionalists) it becomes particularly clear how closely both areas of research are related. The discussion will be completed by an in depth comment on the 'universalist-culturalist controversy'.

B.II.a. Comparative Management Research : Selection of Findings

B.II.a.1. Managerial attitudes and values in cross-cultural comparison

The attitude of an employee towards his work, his colleagues and his surrounding can be regarded as a subjective component of this personality which cannot be directly observed. It is learned and is apt to change over time. This change has to be considered by cross-cultural research (Schlese and Schramm, 1996, p.164).

Many cross-cultural studies have tried to compare attitudes held by 'successful' managers with those held by 'less successful' managers. Roughly speaking, it has been shown by these studies that successful managers in almost all countries are sharing a very pragmatic view and attitude towards life whereas less successful managers are stressing their dedication to moral norms and social goals (England, 1975).

Other studies - including those widely known by Haire, Ghiselli and Porter (Haire, Ghiselli and Porter, 1966) have looked at manager's trust into their employee's responsibility, personal initiative and ability as well as manager's readiness to pass on information to them. It was shown that except for American executives it is a common characteristic of managers in the industrial world not to trust in the leadership abilities and initiative of their subordinates.

Altogether, quite a number of pertinent studies have suggested a similarity of managers across cultural borders. Keller therefore concludes (von Keller, 1982, p.316) that

...to a certain extend attitudes of managers can be considered universal. Function, occupation and status of the job have a tendency to influence managers' attitudes in the same way. Probably, manager's values and attitudes across countries are to a certain extent more similar to each other than are those of people from the same culture, but belonging to different work groups or social stratums.

A manager's attitude towards his work environment is complemented by the meaning that work generally takes in his life. This subjective meaning of work again is influenced by a person's value pattern. The value pattern is culturally determined.[2]

An extensive study carried out on the meaning of work in people's life is the Meaning-Of-Work Study (MOW International Research Team, 1987). The study was presented in 1987 by the MOW International Research Team and has investigated similarities and differences in people's work attitudes across countries.[3] It was found that the 'centrality' of work in a person's life is strongly influenced by the cultural heritage dominant in his/her country. Another outcome of the MOW study was the identification of four dimensions related to the work environment : expressive, economical, comfort and learning. Responses related to these four dimensions turned out to be quite similar across countries.

All in all, results from the MOW study suggest that on one side work obviously takes very different ranks of importance for people of different countries. On the other side, the four dimensions of work leading to employee satisfaction appear to be similar in all geographic areas surveyed. Every sample interrogated valued interesting work, autonomy, change, good working conditions, security, promotion and salary as important factors leading to work satisfaction (Bhagat et al., 1990, p.72).

Findings from the MOW study thus suggest that even though the meaning of work differs across cultures there seems to exist a universal structure of human needs. Work satisfaction appears to be determined by almost the same factors in all countries and independent of national culture. This is an important argument to remember when discussing the hypotheses of this present work. The idea of a universally valid structure of needs (MOW International Research Team, 1987) and attitudes (von Keller, 1982) can be used as a strong argument in favour of

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[2] Value patterns can, for example, be developed through the influence of religion as was proposed by Max Weber in his work *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism* from 1930.

[3] The MOW-study included : Japan, USA, England, West-Germany, Belgium, Israel, The Netherlands and former Yugoslavia

traditional motivational theory.[4] A first counter argument for hypothesis 1 is thus becoming evident.

One more aspect of the MOW study eventually important to the area of human motivation is that in some countries in which there is a high centrality of work (like Japan), employees might be more easily motivated by their superiors. As work takes a central position in their lives, employees may eventually be more sensible to motivational systems.

B.II.a.2. Cross-cultural research on leadership behaviour

One important aspect of a motivation system is leadership and the behaviour of managers towards their subordinates:

Every culture has a concept of what is considered to be the „right" way to behave in leadership situations; this concept exists on the side of the leader as well as on the side of those following him. It has become a normative power and is reflected in certain stereotype expectations and behaviours (von Keller, 1982, p.519).

Results obtained from cross-cultural observations confirm that consequences for a company can be disastrous if leadership expectations are disappointed (Triandis, 1973, p.165). Leadership has thus an important influence on employee motivation. Figure 1 demonstrates the relationship between leadership behaviour and motivation:

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[4] This is, because firstly motivation is based on the satisfaction of human needs and secondly, it is influenced by the attitude managers hold towards their subordinates.

behaviour
of
SUPERIOR

culture (-differences)

culture (-differences)

attempt to influence
(motivational system)

the SUBORDINATE is
resisting the influence

NO

Are benefits from
submittance to influence
greater than costs?

YES

the SUBORDINATE is
acting in the way desired

culture (-differences)

culture (-differences)

individual behaviour

individual

basic needs
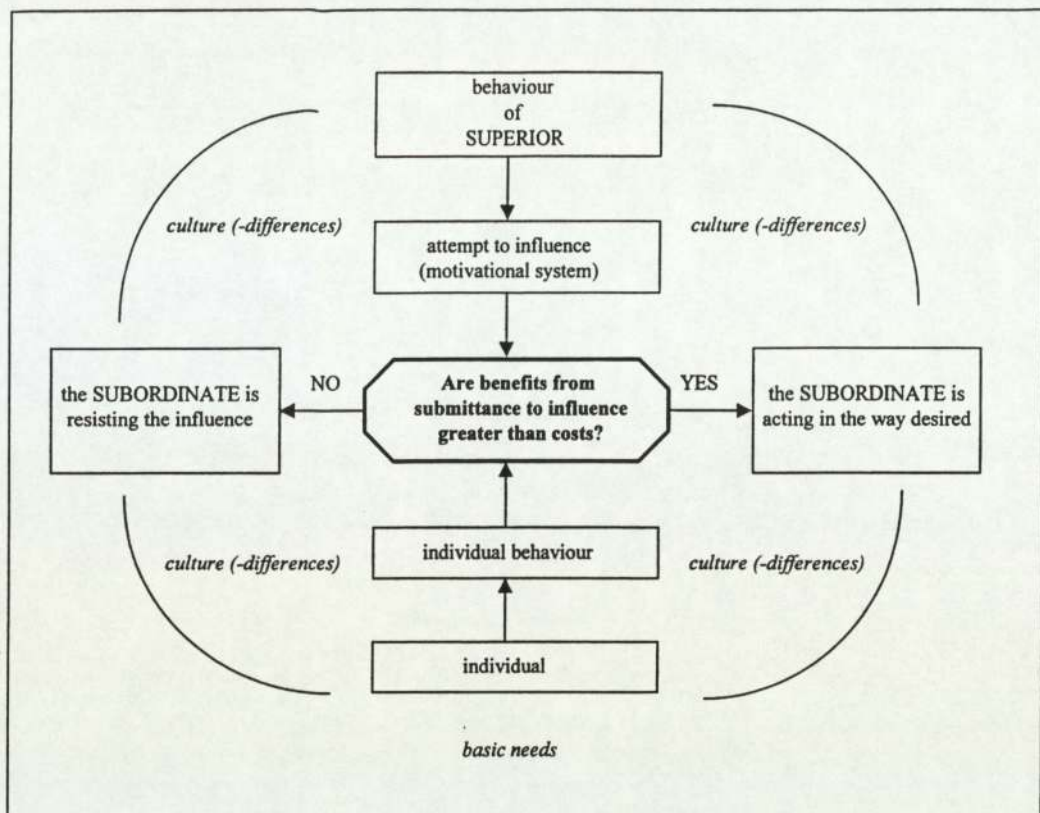
fig. 1 (Kumar, 1994, p.135) Impact of Leadership on Motivational Systems

The superior's behaviour is influencing the subordinate's commitment to goals of the company and his readiness to become active. If the superior's exercises leadership in the 'right' way (as expected and wished for by the subordinate), then the subordinate feels relatively comfortable to be submitted to the influence of this leadership. He is motivated to act in the interest of his superior and the company . If the superior chooses, however, leadership stiles and practices rejected by the subordinate, then he runs the danger of loosing his influence. The subordinate will resist his policies and will eventually be demotivated to act in the way desired.

In management literature, leadership behaviour is mainly discussed from three different angles : First, literature deals with the recognition and description of expectations and attitudes related to leadership and held by managers as well as subordinates in different countries. Socio-cultural factors leading to these expectations and attitudes are examined. Second, scientists have looked at types of leadership that can be considered the most efficient under various socio-cultural conditions. Linked up with this second area of research is the third field of research whether leadership theories- and models developed in the US dispose of

transcultural validity and can be transferred to other cultures without any variation.

Leadership expectations and attitudes in cross-cultural comparison

Studies carried out on leadership expectations and attitudes have confirmed the assumption that leadership styles are varying across cultures. In particular, they are more authoritarian and paternalistic in less developed and third world countries than they are in Middle-European countries and in the US. Keller recognises (von Keller, 1982, p.519) that also among Middle-European countries degrees of participation in leadership are again different (von Keller, 1982). The empirical work that will be discussed later in this thesis supports Keller's view : Among Middle-European countries and especially among Eastern- and Western European countries, clear differences can be in leadership expectations.

The mentioned study carried out by Haire et al. (1966) has contributed insights also into cross-cultural leadership. It was shown by them that managers generally prefer democratic leadership stiles to authoritarian ones. In the same time, however, these managers believe that their subordinates do not possess the capacity for true participation and initiative. Recent studies (Bhagat et al., 1990, p.89) based on the findings of Haire et al., but carried out in other geographic areas, confirm this apparently universal discrepancy of theoretical belie and company practice. Their results suggest that although managers are 'theoretically aware of the necessity to introduce democratic leadership practices at the end of the 20th century they do act accordingly. Instead, they continue to persist in the power status of their positions. If a subordinate is convinced of his ability and wishes to participate and take initiative within the company, his motivation may be seriously affected by this controversial managerial attitude described.

Leadership styles in cross-cultural comparison

The second area of cross-cultural leadership research tries to define leadership stiles that can be considered the most efficient ones. According to the situation,

Keller resumes (von Keller, 1982, p.521) that authoritarian leadership styles are more accepted in traditional and authoritarian cultures than in those countries dominated by egalitarian structures and norms. Yet, he warns against the pragmatic inversion of this statement deducting that 'an authoritarian leadership stile must generally be more successful in an authoritarian culture'. After all, situational factors such as group size, mission, pressure etc. are also playing a role in the desirable degree of participation. Furthermore, foreign managers and organisations are often submitted to different rules than are native managers.

International Transferability of leadership -theories and -models

The third and most important question of cross-cultural leadership research deals with the transferability of conventional, mostly American leadership -theories and models.

The problem is that theories and instruments originated in the USA are often tested for their applicability in other countries and cultures without taking into account the fact that members of dissimilar cultures could hold implicit theories of leadership that are at variance with American notions of effective leadership. In this context, it has been reported (Bhagat et al., 1990, p.89) that some cross-cultural studies have tried to test the strengths of some well defined leadership ideas abroad. These ideas, however, did not find any counterpart within the cultures studied. Therefore, the questions asked (the leadership ideas tested) were completely unintelligible for the observed cultural sample.

As an example, it can be of some interest to look at a study realised by Ayman and Chemers in 1983 (Ayman and Chemers, 1983). Subject of the study were Iranian workers in a large manufacturing company who were administered a modified version of the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). The LBD questionnaire is an instrument that serves to describe leadership behaviour. It was developed by Stogdill and Coons at Ohio State University in the 1950s (Stogdill and Coons, 1957). With this LBD questionnaire the science of human resource management combines the fundamental insight that leadership can

either be based on 'Consideration' or 'Initiating Structure'. 80% of the variance of results from conventional studies could be explained by these two leadership orientations. Yet, when Ayman and Chemers carried out factor analysis with their data taken from Iranian workers two completely different dimensions of leadership behaviour became apparent whereas 'consideration' and 'initiating structure' could not at all be re-identified. Instead, Aymen and Chemers found that 'Benevolent Paternalism' and 'Domineering Behaviour' were able to describe leadership behaviour in Iran (Aymen and Chemers, 1983, pp.339-40).

The example demonstrates that a direct transfer of leadership theories -and models must be viewed with some caution. Although Ayman and Chemers used a renowninstrument of research in order to observe two widely tested dimensions they could not even identify the object of their investigation in Iran. With their Western way of thinking they tried to find something that does not exist in Iran. With this, they entered one common trap of cross-cultural management research : They believed in the universal applicability of the Stogdill-model. They believed that they would find some degree of 'consideration' and 'initiating structure' everywhere; in Iran as well as anywhere else. Yet, what they were trying to test did not exist in Iran; the universal validity claim of the Stogdill-model had to be turned down.

The problem of transferability of western leadership theories -and models is relevant also for the theory of employee motivation. Without knowledge of culturally grown leadership expectations, motivation of employees must be difficult. Mistakes can be made when these traditional expectations on leadership are disappointed. The applicability of conventional American and Western European leadership philosophies in multinational companies must therefore be questioned in some countries.

B.II.b. Organisational traits and structure

Researchers have developed a number of definitions and measures in an attempt to understand the structural characteristics of organisations. One definition was formulated by Child stating (Child, 1972, p.92) that organisational structure can be regarded as 'the formal allocation of work roles and the administrative mechanism to control and integrate work activities including those which cross formal organisational boundaries'. Altogether, it has been agreed that there are three main dimensions of organisational structure : centralisation, formalisation, and complexity, that is, the number of hierarchical levels, the number of functions, departments or jobs, the number of operating sites, and the level of specialist expertise (Pugh et al., 1968).

As was pointed out earlier, scholars seek to formulate viable laws able to predict shapes and forms of organisations. One of their major goals is to explain the way and extend to which cultural and non-cultural factors in and around organisations influence their structure and their member's behaviour. Is centralisation determined by the size of the organisation or rather by the attitudes of its members to people in positions of power and authority? What role do education, age, occupation and other "non-cultural' factors play in employees work-related values and attitudes? And to what extent are the "non-cultural' factors such as education really 'culture-free'?

Writers who have sought to define the predictors of organisational traits and structure can be grouped into three categories (Tayeb, 1988, p.9): universalists, political economists and culturalists.

B.II.b.1. Universalists and the contingency approach

During the first half of this century when the first theories on management and organisation where published, most scholars ignored the environment in which organisations operated and argue for a universalistic 'one best way' of organising enterprises and bureaucracies.[5]

The contingency approach was developed as a challenge to these classical theories. The primary criticism made by contingency writers concerned the alleged inability of bureaucracies to adapt to changes in their environment. Instead, they posited that optimum performance of a company resides in its appropriate adaptation and responsiveness to environmental demands. According to contingency theorists high performance is crystallised in a 'match' or 'fit' between structural characteristics and contextual as well as other environmental variables (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967). These variables or 'contingencies' like production technology, size, degree of dependence, environment or industry 'impose a logic of rational administration on the organisation. Irrespective of culture, economic and political system of a society, this logic must be followed to ensure the survival of the organisation' (Lane, 1989, p.22).

The contingency approach was developed during the late 1960s by the so-called "Aston School' and is primarily associated with the names of Hickson and Pugh (Hickson, Pugh and Phesey, 1969). The most controversial argument of the approach was put forward by Hickson and his associates who advocated the universal 'culture-free' thesis (Hickson, Hinings, McMillan and Schwitter, 1974). The thrust of their argument was that the relationship between organisational characteristics and their contextual variables is stable across countries and thus independent of any cultural influences :

...[Our] hypothesis rest on the theory that there are imperatives, or 'causal' relationships, from the resources of 'customers', of employees, of materials and finance, etc., and of

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[5] Examples are the works of Taylor (1911), Mayo (1945), Weber (1947), Fayol (1949), McGregor (1960) and others who are known today as the 'classics' of management theory.

operating technology, to its structure, which take effect whatever the surrounding social differences...Whether the culture is Asian or European or North American, a large organisation with many employees improve efficiency by specialising their activities but also by increasing controlling and co-ordinating specialities (Hickson et al., 1974, pp.63-4).

Haire et al.'s (1966) well known study described earlier also led them to advocate universalism in 'managerial thinking' across cultures. More recent works like the mentioned MOW-study also support this universalistic view on organisations.

Altogether, the contingency framework governed the theoretical debate on organisations until the mid 70s and due to a highly standardised methodological framework it yielded results of remarkable consistency for the social sciences - at least for *some* of the variables (Lane, 1989). However, the universalism claim of the contingency framework has also been subject to some theoretical and methodological criticism as is summarised by Tayeb (1988, pp.9-22) and Lane (1989, p.23). One of the most important drawbacks of the contingency approach is the denial of the influence of culture on the behaviour of employees and the structure of their organisations. As Rose remarks (Rose, 1985, p.67) that 'anomalies appeared in findings generated by measures of the Aston type when these were applied to organisation samples in other societies'.

The Aston thesis on universal contingencies thus became increasingly criticised by those scholars proclaiming a 'cultural perspective' on organisations. The cultural argument stated (Rose, 1985, p.68) that 'actors... influence structure because they have internalised a culture which they all share to a degree extensive enough to be decisive by virtue of their membership in a wider national society'.

Keller referred to the discrepancy of opinion as the 'universalist-culturalist-controversy' (von Keller, 1982, p.539). The universalistic view on organisation was maintained for a long time. This is partly due to the support of another group of scientists who played down the role of national culture : the political economists.

B.II.b.2. Political Economy Theory

There are some scholars who do not consider themselves followers of contingency theory, but they argue all the same for the significant influence of broad environmental factors, such as the degree and process of industrialisation (Harbinson and Myers, 1959; Kerr, Dunlop, Harbinson and Myers, 1960), institutions (Dore, 1973), and labour markets (Friedman, 1977) on organisational structure and management practices.

Kerr et al. (1960) have formulated a theory of industrialism arguing that there is a central logic to industrialisation which derives from the imperatives of production technology and economic development. Industrialisation is said to induce changes in the fabric of organisations, particularly in their size and complexity. These changes are leading to similar developments in all organisational structures. The logic of industrialisation thus prevails whatever the cultural setting. Cultural factors may, however, impinge on the process and slow it down (Harbinson and Myers, 1959). Altogether, the theory is 'concerned to identify long-run economic and social processes and postulate an end-stage towards which advanced societies will converge' (Lane, 1989, p.21).

Tayeb (Tayeb, 1988) discusses theorists of political economy in a very critical way. Even though she admits that scholars such as Dore, Harbinson and Myers etc. have drawn one's attention to the importance of economic and political institutions, such as capitalism, industrialisation and labour markets and were correct in emphasising the role of institutions in the structuring of organisations she argues that their assumptions should be qualified on at least two grounds :

First, these institutions,..., are not something beside culture but an integral part of it...These institutions are in most part created by the cultural values and beliefs of the peoples concerned, and in turn, reinforce and perpetuate these values and

beliefs...Secondly, these social institutions, although similar in name, have a strong cultural 'flavour', even when they are not locally originated... (Tayeb, 1988, pp.32-3)

B.II.b.3 Cultural Theory and the Universalist-Culturalist Controversy

It has become obvious that forceful cultural arguments have not ceded to question those theories that are of universalistic nature. Both the contingency approach and political economy theory focus very much on the formal structure of organisations and they are insensitive to the human actors who are influencing the organisation. The informal structure flourishing in most enterprises is completely left out of consideration. Child (Child, 1981, p.319) hints at the fact that the high degree of abstraction as well as formalisation used by the universalists is leading to statistically relevant results but is limited in the relevance of its content:

Measurements which are not sensitive to everyday operational manifestations or structuring in organisations are likely to produce data in which some potentially culture-related variation is screened out.

Culturalists such as Child state that conventional management theories -and instruments are culture-bound and are not, without any variation, transferable to other cultures. They believe that despite increasing and globally similar industrialisation socio-cultural differences will not disappear and they will continue to have an influence on management (von Keller, 1982, p.541). Ronen states (Ronen, 1986, p.20):

No organisation can function effectively without understanding all aspects of its environment. In the past, organisations have paid attention to the political, technological, economic and inter-organisational aspects of their environments, but they have often ignored powerful cultural influences.

In the late 70s and during the 1980s there has been a revival of interest by researchers in the study of organisations from a cultural perspective. It has been

attempted to examine the true influence culture can exercise on organisations which means that researchers have tried to resolve the universalist-culturalist-controversy. However, Tayeb points out (Tayeb, 1988, p.2) that scholars from both sides have mostly concentrated only on one particular 'part' of the whole, generalised about the 'whole', or mistook the part for the whole. This has resulted in a narrow and simplistic view of organisations. She remarks that the exclusiveness of various perspectives has at times even led some researchers to adopt research designs which were tailor-made to prove arguments of only one perspective and are insensitive to others.

In his PhD-work from 1994 Wolf concludes (Wolf, 1994, p.482) that according to an evaluation of around 28 000 publications (Adler and Bartholomew, 1992) on cross-cultural research findings the culturalist approach has been widely confirmed. According to overall findings, the culture-bound thesis might therefore be allowed to claim for some truth. At the same time, evidence has been given that contingencies such as technology, size, market conditions etc. are also having an impact on organisation regardless of their cultural setting. The compromise might have been formulated by Hickson et al. (Hickson et.al., 1974, p.29):

We can only start to attribute features to culture when we have made sure that the relations between variables, e.g. between size and degree of specialisation, are stable between cultures

and Lane (Lane, 1989, p.38) who says that 'contingency theory...permits the researcher to highlight cultural or societal differences by controlling for the stable relationships identified'. The most pertinent and recent studies of organisational structure and cultural influences, namely those by Hofstede and the Aix-group, have considered this compromising insight formulated by Hickson and Lane.

All in all, the findings show that culture is recognised to exercise a considerable influence on organisations. Research in cross-cultural differences is therefore important if one aims to understand foreign cultures and to operate successfully in

them. With this, the investigation of differences in motivational patterns – that is going to be done later in this work – is integrated in a field of recognised research interest. Yet, before turning to concrete findings of motivational theory, general cultural theory will be discussed in greater detail.

It must be reckoned that in their attempt to examine the implications of culture for management practices and organisational structure, scholars have generally followed two strands of research : On the one hand there are 'ideationalists' who have focused their interest on attitudes and values expressed by organisational members. On the other side there are 'institutionalists' who have directed their attention to structural aspects within organisations (Tayeb, 1988, p.34).[6] 'Ideationalists see culture transmitted through primary socialisation in the family and local community, and they tend to focus on cultural dimensions at the level of the personality' (Lane, 1989, p.27). For institutionalists culture is taking the form of artefacts or of institutions. 'Institutions are conceived of as socially transmitted behaviour patterns' (Lane, 1989, p.28).

In the following sections, the cultural models of two major proponents of the ideationalist and institutional perspective will be discussed. Both proponents have very much marked cross-cultural management research and they are representing latest know-how in this scientific field : Hofstede with his IBM study has developed one of the most important models for the cross-cultural comparison of employees' attitudes and values. At the same time, the Aix-group around Marc Maurice, Warner and Sorge developed the institutional arguments leading to the societal-effect approach. Both theories will be complemented by a comment on the significance they have for the aspect of human motivation.

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[6] Lane has divided culturalist scholars also into " ideationalists" and " adaptive system"-proponents. The latter are, however, identical with those researchers called " institutionalists" by Tayeb.

B.II.b.4. An institutional approach : The societal effect

As Lane points out (Lane, 1989, p.33) an institutional perspective is, above all, connected with the work of the French Aix group, led by Marc Maurice (Maurice and Brossard, 1976; Maurice, Sellier and Silvestre, 1986) and their German and British collaborators Sorge and Warner (Sorge and Warner, 1986).

Maurice and his associates have referred to their theoretical model as the 'societal effect approach'. Sorge (Sorge, 1995, p.100) comments that the interest of the societal effect group is focused on those organisational differences that cannot be attributed to common explanatory variables in organisation theory, such as technology, firm size, ownership etc.. 'Intriguing differences are those which arise **despite** similarities in the factors just mentioned'. The primary tenet of the Aix group has thus been that even though enterprises might operate in similar task environments their goals are achieved in ways that are substantially different concerning work organisation, human resources and industrial relations.

The group attributes these different ways to achieve similar goals to the institutional differences existing in national societies. It argues that the structure of organisation reflects the institutional arrangements of its societal environment. As Sorge puts it (Sorge, 1991, p.162):

[The]...variety of organisational forms and practices...(is) bound to institutionalised human resources (education, training, work careers), social stratification and industrial relations.

Mueller argues (Mueller, 1994, p.411) that the societal effect approach can thus be related to the isomorphism argument that considers organisations as 'social entities integrated into the institutional and value structures constituting the culture of a society. In this view organisations and society tend to reflect each other structurally'. Or as Lane states (Lane, 1989, p.34): 'The business organisation is viewed as an institution within society and the boundaries between the two are seen as fluid'.

But what role is attributed to culture in the societal effect approach? According to Hofstede (Hofstede, 1984), the effect of culture extends from the level of the individual mind to characteristics of organisation systems and structures. Organisational differences are explained purely by culture or the 'collective programming of the mind' which differs across countries. In contrast to this, Maurice et al. state (Maurice et al., 1986, pp.238-9):

*We do not explain these observations in terms of ideological or cultural differences...In our view it is the social relations intrinsic to a given society and implicit in the educational system, organisations, and system of industrial relations that give rise to different ideologies, and not the reverse...The **interaction** between socialisation and the organisation determines the nature of industrial relations in the society.*

The societal effect approach thus puts emphasis on the term 'interaction'. Interaction between institutions and business organisations determines the way organisations develop. In this way, organisations are an outcome of 'reciprocal interdependence'. Differences in organisational outcome are explained by 'different rules of the game' (or choices made by actors) rather than by ascertainable individual mental programmes. The role of culture is considered to be 'indirect and additive' (Sorge, 1995, p.112). 'In contrast with the culturalist perspective, the emphasis is on the interactive relationship between systems characteristics and mental programming' (Sorge, 1995, p.116).

A major shortcut of the societal effect approach is that it does not really explain **how** the general societal level effect relates to particular or specific organisational phenomena. **How** does culture influence the industrial relations within a society? And what precise cultural phenomena lead to what institutional forms and organisational outcomes? Rose critically comments (Rose, 1985, p.77) that:

[The societal effect scholars never] ...settle down into a sustained exposition of the concepts and procedures of the societal approach. Differences that are demonstrated between societies in some institutional order have to be ascribed to a societal level effect

- nationality, political system, history or culture - which is known to be imprecise, but nonetheless left unexplicated.

Furthermore, the group stresses institutional complexes which limit or condition change, but, as Rose points out as well, they ought to recognise also the major economic and political influences, which operate to procure change (Rose, 1985, p.80).

An attempt to correspond to this last criticism was made by Sorge (1991) as well as Maurice and Sorge (1993) who tried to relate the societal effect approach with the economic conditions imposed on an organisation. Their argument bases on the neo-contingency framework which maintains that organisational structures and processes are interdependent with a firm's business strategy and market segment (Miles and Snow, 1978).

Referring to this neo-contingency framework, Maurice and Sorge have investigated the relationship between economic conditions and their effect on organisational structure. Their thesis is that the societal context constitutes competitive advantages and disadvantages in specific industries. Firms will survive and grow when there is a relatively good fit between societal and sectoral or market segment characteristics. Organisational forms and human resource practices correspond to the product-market strategies and product-market segments in which a country shows particular strength.

One might say that the societal effect approach, although different from neo-contingency thinking, leads back to it. The fit between sectoral and societal regimes has a more extended explanatory power if the sectoral regime is not purely institutional, but can be related to the task environment prevailing in an industry (Sorge, 1991, p. 187).

Maurice and Sorge have thus attempted to integrate the economic task environment into their societal effect model. As Mueller notes (Mueller, 1994, p.413), however, there is still a shortcut in their theory as to the significance of

globalisation for organisations. Also, the societal effect misses out to recognise what Mueller calls the 'organisational effect'.

The significance of the societal effect approach for employee motivation

The societal effect model tries to explain organisations, but gives little input and advice on how to work more efficiently with given organisational phenomena. The model is therefore not suitable to provide any kind of advice on how to motivate employees more efficiently within a given organisational surrounding,

The societal effect approach recognises organisational structure, such as the number of hierarchical levels, task distribution, power mechanisms etc. and gives possible institutional explanations for this structure. Yet, it does not attempt to scrutinise in detail the behaviour of organisational players - individual employees - who form and carry the structure.[7] Motivation is, however, a factor very much linked to the individual and its particular 'programming of the mind', apart from its work environment.

In the societal effect model employees are a part of an 'Actor-system configuration' which regards organisational life as consisting of feedback links between actors and systems (Sorge, 1995). The major argument of the model proponents is that the identity and structure of an organisation resides in its 'non-identical reproduction' (Sorge, 1995). This means that the constitution of actors and systems within a society is a result of their reciprocal interaction. In simple terms : The actors or employees living and working in one country influence the systems, institutions or organisations in this country. Once these institutions are established in one way they again influence the actors which again influence the system and so forth. Figure 2 demonstrates the idea.[8]

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[7] Instead, the model refers to an 'actor-system configuration' which is characterised by cross-referencing and reciprocal causation patterns (Sorge, 1995).
[8] For Figure 2 compare Sorge, 1995, p.106
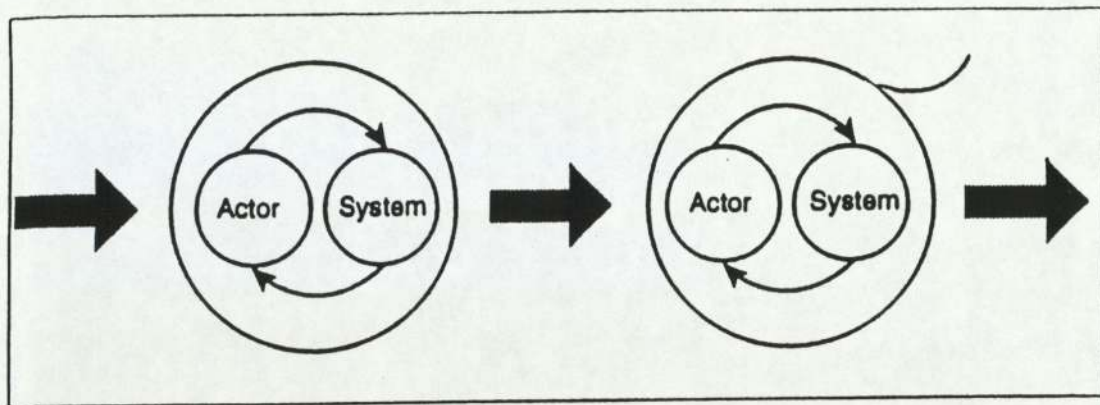
fig.2   The Actor-System Configuration

The societal effect model thus presented implies that systems are also exercising an influence on human motivation: If a system propagates, for example, a strong materialistic orientation, then people should start holding   strong materialistic views and values. Material goods should motivate them to a considerable degree. Their materialistic view should then reinforce the system.

The author of this present thesis questions the importance and strength of this reciprocal interdependence. In particular, it seems unsure to what extend systems can influence actors and whether actors are forced to adapt to them. The statistical data discussed later in this thesis will treat this critical aspect in more detail.

B.II.b.5. Hofstede's 'Cultures' Consequences' : an ideationalist approach

The most extensive and widely cited study within the area of cross-cultural management research is the one carried out by Geert Hofstede and first published under the title 'Cultures' Consequences' in 1980 (Hofstede, 1980). This study surpasses all empirical research that has been done so far in cross-cultural management research. The analysis which covered data from 64 countries is based on a total number 116 000 questionnaires.

One special quality of Hofstede's work is that he has realised a condensation of data that has allowed for a very simple and sensible model to explain cultural differences. National cultures are analysed by referring to four uniform scales (or dimensions):

1) individualism/collectivism   3) uncertainty avoidance

2) power distance   4) masculinity/femininity

In contrast to many other results of comparative management research, the four scales defined by Hofstede permit 'an analysis of superior and economically relevant value categories' (Wolf, 1994, p.489). The four cultural dimensions *demonstrated* by Hofstede through factor analysis will be commented in more detail hereafter. The interpretation and conclusions drawn from the four dimensions are important to this present work as they are playing a considerable role also in the organisation of motivational systems. Furthermore, the empirical part of this thesis has used some of Hofstede's concepts and questions.

1. Dimension : Collectivism vs. Individualism

Basically, this dimension tries to determine the degree to which the members of a society are part of a strong and coherent social group. Individualism is predominant in case people are primarily concerned with their personal or family matters; collectivism in case that the group is considered more important than the individual.

For the development of motivational systems in individualistic countries like the US it is important that the individual is recognised for successes that are attributable to his/her performance. In order to be judged on personal performance it is necessary that individualists are able to act independently. Group success is less important to the individualist than to the collectivist. Management means leadership and recognition of the individual. Among collectivists (like Japanese) this is exactly inverse : Here it is group success and

belongingness to one group that motivates the individual. Management means leadership and recognition of groups.

2. Dimension : Power Distance

Power distance tries to look at the extend to which organisational and social hierarchies are accepted and wished for in one country. Wolf remarks (Wolf, 1994, p.490) that the term 'power distance' chosen by Hofstede is misleading. Power distance is describing the degree to which less powerful members within a culture are accepting and expecting that power is distributed unevenly. 'Therefore it would have been more sensible to attribute the dimension with a term like power distance tolerance'.

For each country surveyed by Hofstede a so called 'Power Distance Index' (PDI) has been calculated. In general, the PDI is measuring the power distance existing between a manager and his subordinate; for example whether the boss is right, because he is the boss or because he really knows it better (Ogilvie, 1992, pp.40-50).

In cultures characterised by very little power distance (like Germany or Austria) high centralisation and numerous levels of hierarchy (leading to large power distances within an organisation) are factors that may demotivate employees. If in countries with little power distance decisions are taken without participation and 'above the head' of employees, then the employees tend to feel intentiously ignored and are easily demotivated. In cultures marked by large power distance (like China and Japan) this is, again, completely inverse. Here, employees expect their superior to take decisions himself. Decentralised organisational structures and participative leadership stiles may perhaps rattle and paralyse them.

3. Dimension : Uncertainty Avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance within a culture stands for its approach towards risk and the number of rules which can be found in its daily life. In countries characterised

by little uncertainty avoidance (like the USA and UK) everything that is new and different is looked at with interest and curiosity. At the same time, there is a strong avoidance of standardisation and formalisation. In contrast, countries characterised by strong uncertainty avoidance (like Japan) highly value structure and control over situations.

In those countries with a high index for uncertainty avoidance it must be taken care that employees are carefully instructed when new systems and assignments are introduced. Otherwise, uncertainty may lead to demotivating fear and stress. Rules are positively viewed in those countries as they serve to avoid conflict. In contrast, people from countries with little uncertainty avoidance may be easily demotivated if there are too many rules restricting their autonomy.

4. Dimension : masculinity vs. femininity

The scale of masculinity demarcates the extend to which a culture is dominated by ideas like achievement, self-assertion, competition, etc.. In contrast to this, feminine cultures highly value personal relationships and solidarity.

If the mother company stems from a highly masculine culture (e.g. Japan or Austria) conflicts may arise in those subsidiaries situated in highly feminine cultures (e.g. Scandinavian countries). This is, because employees in feminine countries are not ready to give up their private lives for the company. Instead they cultivate their social network outside the company. In situations where managers (often expatriates) from the 'masculine' mother company expect their 'feminine' subordinates to give up personal freedom for the company and be more competitive conflict can quickly arise. Employees characterised by their feminine cultural background may then easily be dissatisfied and demotivated. Conflict can also arise when masculine managers try to resolve problems through „combat and pressure" while their colleagues from feminine cultures are seeking compromise.

Critical discussion of Hofstede's findings

The great number of citations of Hofstede's work are a proof for the importance his findings have for management theory (Wolf, 1994, p.489). Sondergaard summarises (Sondergaard, 1994, p.447) the overwhelming number of citations, reviews as well as empirical replications from past years and concludes that there are 'remarkably few non-confirmations'. Still, a critical approach should be maintained when referring to Hofstede's work. In fact, one should keep in mind some drawbacks :

First, data used by Hofstede were mainly collected in IBM subsidiaries. People corresponding to his questions were thus only those selected, in advance, according to IBM principles and shaped by these principles (Wolf, 1994, p.489). Although the study claims to make testimony of an entire national culture only a few country indices were checked and completed by separate samples *from* outside IBM. Hofstede's findings therefore risk to be limited to the culture dominant within IBM subsidiaries. It is unclear whether they can be considered as true statements characterising whole nations.

All insights into national cultures that were formulated by Hofstede are uniquely based on empirical data. Seen the great number of countries he observed this is probably unavoidable. Nevertheless, authors of younger publications are increasingly calling for qualitative observations that should supplement results won from quantitative studies. Authors of culturally related literature should have lived within the culture before proclaiming 'black and white' statements based purely on quantitative results (von Keller, 1982, p.10).

Sorge and Warner point out (Sorge and Warner, 1986, pp.40-1) that Hofstede does not fully succeed to match his research method to his theoretical perspective. He concludes, for example, on values outgoing from preferences expressed in replies to questionnaires. Lane states (Lane, 1989, p.31):

Although his theory posits that values direct behaviour 'ex ante' his method probes not only loose preferences but also ad hoc rationalisations after the act and basic values which are morally charged and consciously referred to in actual behaviour.

Many scholars note (Kumar, 1994, p.133; Lansing and Ready, 1988, pp.112-13) that it is questionable whether Hofstede's data that were collected now over 20 years ago are still valid today. After all, literature suggests that due to the continuous development of the economy, technology and society country cultures are subject to permanent change.

Another major criticism is formulated by Tayeb (Tayeb, 1988, pp39-40) who hints at the fact that Hofstede did not empirically investigate the relationship between the four dimensions of work-related values and attitudes and the structures of the organisations whose managers participated in the study:

The relationships are conceptual and speculative. He [Hofstede] arrived at his conclusions about the overwhelming influence of cultural factors on organisational structure on the basis of these speculations rather than 'hard' evidence'.

B.III. Problems related to cross-cultural management research

Comparative management research such as it is described above regularly confronts a number of methodological problems as well as problems related to terminology. These problems will be discussed at length hereafter. Some of the methodological weaknesses that will be mentioned here could not be prevented for the empirical research presented later in this thesis.

B.III.a. The term 'culture'

Undertaking 'cross-cultural' research means to put 'culture' in the centre of interest.

A central problem of cross-cultural research, however, is to define 'culture'. Culture has to be defined in advance of the empirical research (ex-ante). This is, because calling upon culture as a residual explanation once results are obtained lacks objectivity and is dissatisfying for the evaluation of cultural influence (Kumar, 1988, p.391). Experts are, however, disagreeing on what exactly they want to understand by culture. In 1952 Kroeber and Kluckholm already identified 164 definitions of the term (Kroeber and Kluckholm, 1952). For cross-cultural management research this terminology conflict represents a problem. In particular, uncertainty exists on whether empirical results have to be attributed to the cultural -or national identity of correspondents (Bhagat et al., 1990, p.60).

For the context of this present work the definition of culture formulated by Ogilvie is considered the most useful. It consists of an enumerate number of traits that can serve to describe the construct of culture (Ogilvie, 1992, p.40-41):

Culture is: created by men, above the individual, dynamic and adaptable, learned so to speak acquired through the process of enculturation, passed on through language which is in itself marked by culture, expressed as well in other symbols, determining action, grown out of biological, environmental, physiological and historical components of human nature.

Components of this definition such as language, symbols, history etc. suggest that culture or cultural differences are linked to the national identity of a country. The term 'culture' thus gives way to 'national' which reflects the view that organisations are influenced by other national institutions besides culture. The approach is supported in literature by a number of authors such as Seidel (Seidel, 1987) who is convinced, for example, that national culture exercises a far more dominant influence on managerial processes than do cultural traditions within cultural clusters.

For the empirical research realised in the context of this present thesis national borders have therefore been considered identical with cultural borders. An exception to this is the former GDR. Data *found* in the former GDR are opposed to data *collected* in Western Germany although both regions are one country today. The author of the present thesis chose this way of analysis, because reunification of Germany only happened quite recently. It was initially believed that due to 45 years of different institutional and historical influences the organisational actors interrogated in the two German regions would express different value patterns. Formerly called GDR and FRG are therefore treated as two separate national cultures.

B.III.b. Validity of empirical research

Literature refers to a number of problems of validity that may occur in the context of empirical and cross-cultural management research. Wolf distinguishes six types of problems (Wolf, 1994, p.486-87):

1. Numerous culture-oriented and scientific works are suffering from methodological simplification. This simplification is reflected in a 'one-shot-cross-section-character' of many studies, the arbitrary choice of the time of analysis and the lack of co-operation across disciplines.

2. Many studies are carelessly treating problems related to the random sample. The choice of the culture studied is made arbitrarily according to the circumstances and possibilities of the researcher and not according to relevant criteria of scientific background.[9] In addition to this, the advantage of mostly two-country-comparisons has to be questioned. If some of the factors studied are by chance not included in a random sample their influence cannot be determined. Too seldom it is also investigated whether the chosen sample can be considered representative for the culture as a whole[10] and whether samples are at all comparable.[11]

3. Culture-oriented studies have to deal with instrumental problems. In this context, language barriers mentioned which influence the translation of questionnaires. Scientists call for independent back-translations of the originally translated questionnaire. A problem that remains, however, are those social phenomena for which there are no true synonyms in the foreign language.

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[9] Berrien has called this arbitrary way of deciding on geographic samples " safari research" (Berrien, K. 1997, p.41)
[10] Art IBM employees interrogated by Hofstede, for example, representative for the overall population of the respective countries studied?
[11] Is it possible to compare German managers with Polish students?

4. There may be a distortion of results due to the fact that <u>data inquiry</u> was not carried out in equivalent ways in all countries. Also different cultures do not have the same routine in the participation of empirical tests.

5. The <u>interpretation of results</u> can cause problems; especially if there is a discrepancy between quantitative and qualitative results obtained.

6. Finally, it should be remarked that there is only a small number of cross-cultural studies that have built on concepts and insights   from earlier studies. Instead there are always new questions asked and methods tried out that do not have any link with the academic knowledge already acquired. In addition, always new cultural clusters are being analysed although there is still need to explore the „older" territories of investigation. For these reasons, there has been almost no confirmation and contradiction of   research results. There has been little 'coagulation of knowledge'(Wolf, 1994, p.488).

C. MOTIVATIONAL THEORY

C.I. Motivation and motivational theory - an introduction

According to Campbell and Prichard (Campbell and Prichard, 1976), motivation is defined as a psychological power which influences the decision (a) to become active for a certain tasks (b) make an effort and (c) keep up the effort over a longer period of time. Motivational theory is in this way designed to explain the direction, extent and duration of individual work behaviour. Influencing factors such as capability, knowledge and environmental factors are left out of consideration (Bhagat et al., 1982, p.656). Motivational theories aim to develop insights that will allow for strategies to increase performance.

If one knew what it is that leads employees to work long hours without complaint, to arrive too late, to neglect orders of the superior, etc. then one would have found the key to influence the subordinate's behaviour and increase performance (Staehle, 1994, p.204).

An essential problem of motivational theory is the fact that motivation is a hypothetical construct. Just as the process of learning or the process of recognition it cannot be directly observed or practically measured. An empirical review of theoretical insights is therefore difficult and heavily dependant on the chosen variables; a scientific problem which is solved satisfactory only for a small number of theories. Staehle remarks (Staehle, 1994, p.204)

...[that it would not be] surprising that - considering the great uncertainty among scientists as far as the validity of certain motivational theories is concerned - managers are fully neglecting any scientific proof of motivational theory and only make use of those motivational theories that appear plausible to them and are consistent with common sense. The fact that these theories are not always (almost never) the 'right' ones from a scientific perspective would be particularly obvious in motivational theory

In the following chapter, those motivational theories will be discussed which are the most well known ones in practice. Their validity will be critically investigated from an international or cross-cultural perspective. An emphasis is being put on models developed by Maslow, Herzberg and McClelland which have entered management literature as so called content theories.

Motivational literature distinguishes between content -and process theories. However, as the empirical survey of this present thesis builds on the theories of Maslow, Herzberg and McClelland there will be no further discussion of the process models.

C.II. Maslow's Motivational Theory

At the beginning of the 1950s Abraham Maslow presented a theory on human motivation that - although originally developed within the field of psycho-pathological treatment - quickly found recognition in organisational psychology and became well known under the term 'pyramid of needs model' (Maslow, 1954). Essentially, this model contains the idea that human motivation is determined by a pyramid of five universal categories of needs which are in an order of decreasing urgency and increasing ethical value (Walter-Busch, 1977, p.28). As soon as the member of an organisation has satisfied his/her basic needs it will - according to Maslow - strive for the satisfaction of the next higher need. Needs that are already satisfied do not continue to serve as a motivator for increased efforts. Those needs, however, that are still unsatisfied create a moment of tension. This tension is at the origin of human motivation. People strive to reduce the tension by becoming active and working for the satisfaction of the next higher need. The pyramid of needs defined by Maslow has the following structure and content (fig. 3; Grothus, 1972, p.34):

self-realisation : comprehension of the world :
wisdom, spontaneity, simplicity, goal-oriented; desire
to be alone, autonomy, openness, sense for mysticism,
feeling of community, appreciation of democracy,
ability to distinguish between cause and effect, humour,
creativity, individuality

self-respect : respect for others and for oneself; desire for
strength, success, excellency, power and knowledge; desire for
recognition, prestige, status, glory, dominion, attention,
importance, dignity and respect

social needs : affection, dislike of solitude, being expelled, lack of friends
and root

need for security : stability, reliability, protection, freedom of fear, menace and
chaos, need or rules, order, laws and borders, desire for the strength of a protector

psychological needs : thirst, hunger, sexuality, sleep, need to move, excitation, but
also need to rest, relax and be comfortable

C.II.a. Critical discussion of Maslow's theory

As far as the empirical reliability is concerned, it is problematic that Maslow did not base his insights on empirical research, but formulated his theory as a result of philosophical studies and clinical experience (Staehle, 1994, p.207). It must be kept in mind that Maslow himself has been critical about transferring his theory directly on managerial organisations (Derekhshan and Fathehi, 1996, p.238). In fact, it was McGregor (McGregor, 1960) who - in contrast to Maslow himself - transferred Maslow's general reflections on motivation to organisational studies and postulated the universal validity of Maslow's theory.

Apart from the difficulties to prove Maslow's theory empirically authors of managerial literature (Berthel, 1991, p.16; Schmalen, 1992, p.259) have criticised that there is no strict demarcation between the individual categories of needs,[12] that the rank of each category of needs is considered to be the same for all individuals, that it is unclear at what time exactly the next higher need starts to become a motivator and finally that Maslow ignored the fact that needs can also grow with an increasing degree of their satisfaction.[13] Situational and societal factors of influence have been left out in Maslow's model.

Berthel remarks (Berthel, 1991, p.16) that Maslow's perception is very much marked by the ideals of American middle-class thinking as well as the bourgeois-humanitarian dream of men striving for self-realisation. Maslow's model is therefore heavily culture - and stratum bound. This point of view is shared by Neuberger (Neuberger, 1985, p.145-46) who uses a comparison between Maslow's humanitarian theory of needs and Holzkamp-Osterkamp's functional-historical theory of needs to prove that motivational theories are always value judgements and are usually transporting individual socialisation-experiences. It would therefore be questionable whether motivational theories are generally transferable.

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[12] It is difficult, for example, to distinguish "feeling of community" on level 5 from "dislike of solitude" on level 3.

[13] The need for more security, for example, is sometimes observed to increase although the obtained degree of security is actually satisfying.

In cross-cultural management research it has been questioned to what extend Maslow's theory can be considered universally true and transferable. Hofstede remarks (Hofstede, 1984, p.396):

The ordering of needs in Maslow's hierarchy represents a value choice. This choice was based on his mid-twentieth-century U.S. middle-class values. First Maslow's hierarchy reflects individualistic values, putting self-actualisation and autonomy on top. Values prevalent in collectivist cultures, such as „harmony or „family support" do not even appear in the hierarchy. Second, the cultural map suggests even if just the needs Maslow used in his hierarchy are considered - the needs will have to be ordered differently in different cultural areas.[14]

With this statement Hofstede summarises the criticism that cross-cultural management research has brought forward against Maslow's theory. First, the ethnocentrism of the model which reflects too much Western cultures dominated by individualism.[15] Second, the fact that the pyramid suggests an order of needs that has not necessary to be the same for non-American cultures.

This second criticism has been picked up by Nevis (Nevis, 1983, pp.250-52). A comparison of Chinese and American culture led Nevis to demonstrate that a pyramid of needs would be structured completely differently for Chinese people than for American people (fig. 4). In China the pyramid of needs would be much more determined by society than by the sole individual. It would probably consist of only four categories named (from bottom to top) affiliation, basic physiological needs, security and self-realisation. Compared to Maslow three central and culturally determined differences become apparent : First, affiliation has replaced the basic physiological needs as the most important factor. Second, the aspect of self-esteem is not included as a separate category. Third, self-realisation is not defined from the point of view of the individual, but from a societal perspective. An individual is judged on the extend to which it contributes to the progress of society

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[14] The cultural map Hofstede refers to in this context is figuring country clusters for masculinity and uncertainty avoidance.

as a whole. Robbins (Robbins, 1991, p.222) supports Nevis' view when arguing (in reference to Hofstede) that Maslow's hierarchy...aligns with American culture. In countries like Japan, Greece, or Mexico where uncertainty avoidance characteristics are strong, security needs would be on top of the need hierarchy. Countries that score high on femininity characteristics - Denmark, Sweden, Norway, the Netherlands and Finland - would have social needs on top.

It has to be remarked that in many cultures and in particular in Asian cultures it is not only the order of needs that varies from Maslow's model, but also how needs are defined and how they are satisfied.
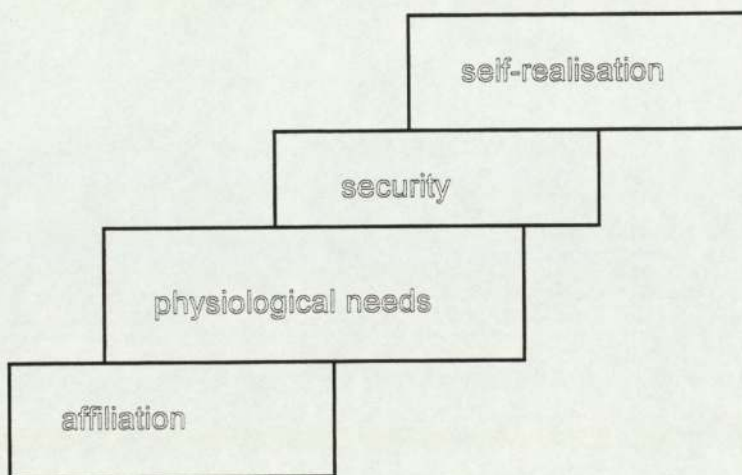
fig. 4 (Derekhshan and Fathehi, 1996, p.240)

The criticism of Nevis, Robbins and Hofstede shows that authors of cross-cultural management literature have difficulties to prove Maslow's pyramid of needs for other cultures. There are, however, some cross-cultural studies such as the one by Haire et al. (1966), Reitz (Reitz, 1975) as well as the earlier cited MOW-study that have produced results corresponding to Maslow's theory. Yet, some of these also have to be viewed with caution as they have been carried out mainly in Western European and English speaking countries. It is thus questionable whether they could test the world-wide validity of Maslow's model.

The critical discussion of Maslow's motivational theory should not forget to comment on the positive aspects of his work. After all, Staehle remarks (Staehle, 1994, p208):

Maslow's pyramid has given us some organisational stimulation. Traditionally, companies have been quite good at satisfying physiological needs and needs for security (e.g. through salaries, social contributions, pensions, profit-sharing, insurance, etc.), but there is an overall lack of managers that are able to apply concepts to activate and satisfy higher needs (e.g. through job enrichment, participation, delegation and team-work).

Furthermore, Maslow's theory can partly be in one respect which is that there is probably one consistent pyramid of needs for each culture (Derekhshan and Fathehi, 1996, p.241). Ronen concludes that Maslow was also surely right to believe that needs or groups of needs become regularly dominant one after the other and not simultaneously (Ronen, 1979, p.9).

Despite these positive arguments confirming parts of Maslow's theory it must be seen, however, that it cannot claim for universal validity. Different needs in non-American cultures as well as needs of different order and content speak against Maslow's pyramid. A direct transfer of the pyramid of needs to other countries must therefore be declined or viewed with suspicion. More recent models such as ERG theory have been developed to complement Maslow's findings.[16]

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[16] ERG theory is more consistent with individual differences among people. The evidence that people in other cultures rank the need categories differently would be consistent with ERG theory.

C.III. Motivational Theory by Herzberg

In contrast to Maslow's model the so called „Two-Factor-Theory" by Herzberg was based from the beginning on empirical research (Herzberg, 1966). Herzberg has separated the human needs pyramid into two factors : motivators and hygiene factors. The foundation of this theory is the insight that employees are satisfied or dissatisfied by different factors within their working environment. The existence of motivators increases employee's work satisfaction; yet, their non-existence does not make them really dissatisfied. In contrast, the non-existence of hygiene factors leads to the dissatisfaction of employees; their existence, however, do not really satisfy them. Motivators are for example achievement, recognition, responsibility, promotion and the work itself. Hygiene factors can be the relationship with superiors and colleagues, leadership stiles, work conditions, the way control is exercised, work security or salary. Fig. 5 summarises the findings of Herzberg's theory (Herzberg, 1968) :
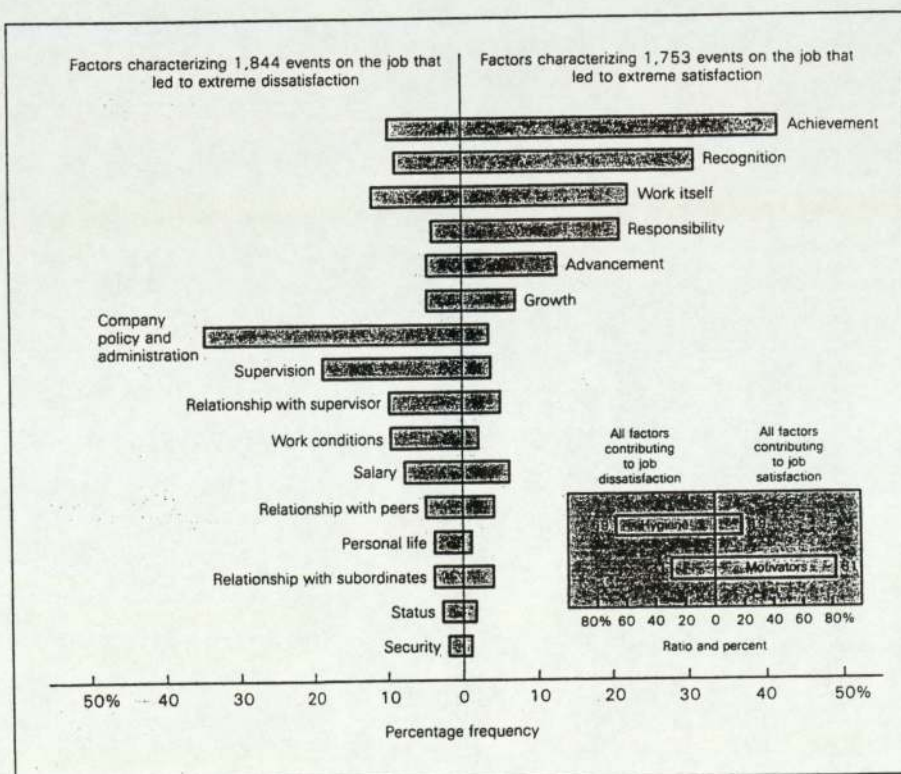
fig.5

C.III.a. Critical discussion of Herzberg's theory

First of all, it must be remembered that even though the 'Two-Factor-Theory' has established itself in management literature as a motivational theory it has not been developed as such. Originally, Herzberg and his colleagues only found out about the possibility to distinguish between two general categories of work situations. More or less by chance Herzberg has called one of these categories 'motivators'. The fact that the 'Two-Factor-Theory' became one of the most well known motivation theories within management literature is thus in a certain way a misunderstanding (Staehle, 1994, 211).

One problem of Herzberg's theory is that the replication of his findings has turned out to be difficult. It is linked to the research method he originally applied.[17] A great number of replications could only in a few cases confirm Herzberg's findings (Staehle, 1994, p.211). Berthel summarises (Berthel, 1991, p.18) Herzberg's critics. He points out that the explicative approach chosen by Herzberg is only vaguely formulated and it is therefore difficult to test and replicate empirically. The distinction of two dimensions of work has been contested. Situative circumstances that might influence the two factors are left out of consideration

Also from the point of view of cross-cultural motivational research, the Two-Factor-Theory is controversially discussed. In fact, it could not be confirmed that the list of motivators and hygiene-factors found by Herzberg is the same for all countries and cultures. Empirical results obtained in New Zealand (Hines, 1973), Israel (Macarow, 1972), Zambia (Machungwa and Schmitt, 1983) and the United Kingdom (Kanungo and Wright, 1983) show that although results may be generally clustered into two different groups similar to the ones identified by Herzberg the content of these two groups varies across countries. However, these aspects of work which form the two groups (motivators and hygiene factors) are different from one country to another. They are often not identical with the ones

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[17] In the course of the so-called "Pittsburgh-Studies" in 1959, Herzberg and his colleagues interviewed 200 book-keepers and engineers. With the help of some overall interview guidelines they asked them about pleasant and unpleasant work situations. Herzberg's study was, therefore, not quantifiable (comp. Wunderer and Grunewald, 1980 as well as Gebert and Rosenstiel, 1981).

found by Herzberg. As an example, Herzberg classifies 'remuneration' as a hygiene factor. Yet, referring to Derekhshan and Fathehi (1996, p.242) and other authors (Locke, 1980), money can be a real motivator especially in the case of poor and third-world countries.

In his work 'Cultures and Organisations' Hofstede discusses a possible relationship that might exist between the hygiene factors company policy and administration on one side and the cultural dimensions power distance and uncertainty avoidance on the other side. He argues (Hofstede, 1994, p.154) that in countries with   power distance (like Austria and Germany) dependence on more powerful people is a basic need which can be a real motivator. With this relationship, Hofstede contradicts the universal validity of Herzberg's motivational model.

The described studies by Hofstede, Hines, Macarow, Machungwa et al. and Kanungo et al. that have tested Herzberg's findings in an international context show that his motivational theory cannot claim universal validity. Its use in non-American cultures is problematic, because abroad hygiene -and motivational factors can be of different nature.

An overall comparison of Maslow's and Herzberg's theory shows that major traits and model structures identified by the two scholars (like the existence of Two-Factor-Clusters or a pyramid of needs) are probably true for all cultures. Content and details within these model structures, however, vary across cultures. Hofstede therefore concludes (Hofstede, 1984, p.220) that 'theories of human motivation should take account of the relativity of societal norms'.

C.IV. McClelland's Needs Theory

Another content theory which has taken from the beginning an international perspective is the motivation model outlined by David McClelland.

McClelland is sometimes called father of the modern 'theory of achievement motivation' (Berthel, 1991, p.22). Referring to a wide list of human needs first developed by Murray in 1938 (Murray, 1938), McClelland has identified three human needs that he considers to be the most important determinants for motivation in all countries (McClelland, 1987) :

- the achievement motive
- the affiliation motive and
- the power motive.

According to McClelland, these three key needs are placed at the borderline of consciousness and sub-consciousness and are being learned through a process of socialisation during early childhood, within the family and in school. The three behavioural motives are thus closely related to and dependant on national culture (Berthel, 1991, p.22).

McClelland has put major emphasis on the achievement motive.[18] The achievement motive is a latent, but relatively stable inclination of individuals to strive for achievement and success in almost all situations. It is the ability to feel proud for the outcome of ones' work (Atkinson, 1964, p.214). Achievement oriented people are looking for responsibility and concrete feedback. They prefer a middle level of risk in work situations and they are often outsiders. The strength of the achievement motive seems to be related to the level of expectations instilled into the individual by the socialisation process (McClelland, 1953, pp.110-11). The achievement motive is often cited as an example for intrinsic motivation :

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[18] The discussion of McClelland's theory will be restricted in this chapter to the achievement motive. This is, because cross-cultural management research has focused almost uniquely on this motive. The empirical part

'Striving for achievement means to work for its own sake and not in order to obtain social or financial rewards' (Neuberger, 1978, p.225).

What is most decisive about McClelland's theory is that he stated (McClelland, 1961) that achievement motivation within a country's population is one major engine to determine the economic development of that country. By the help of an international comparison he found that the level of achievement motivation within a population is positively correlated with the level of its economic development. In this way he was also the first scientist looking seriously into motivational theory from a cross-cultural perspective. Believing that the achievement motive can be learned, he advised third-world countries and disadvantaged groups of the working class to become more familiar to the achievement motive.

Motivational research during the 1970s has been marked by the attempt to replicate and test McClelland's achievement theory for a number of different countries (Bhagat et al., 1982, p.667). There have been contradicting results concerning McClelland's findings : A number of studies cited by Bhagat et al. (1982) were able to support McClelland's theory. This includes studies carried out in Turkey, Brazil, Saudi Arabia and Afghanistan (Melikian, 1971) as well as in New Zealand (Hines, 1973a). Other surveys, however, could not ascertain a direct relationship between the need for achievement within a country's population and the economic growth of this country. Iwawaki and Lynn (Iwawaki and Lynn, 1972) for example found a similar need for achievement among Japanese and British people; yet, at the same time, the economic growth was much higher in Japan than was the case in the UK.

Probably the most important criticism McClelland had to face is the possibility that the relationship he showed between economic growth and achievement motivation is built on fortuitous empirical results (Barrett and Franke, 1971). Hofstede even remarked (Hofstede, 1994, p.127) that his findings are 'an artefact of the particular measures and measuring periods that were chosen'.

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of this thesis will treat the affiliation and the power motive in more detail as they have been included in the empirical research for this work.

Hofstede also showed that a high need for achievement tends to be found in countries in which IBM respondents show low uncertainty avoidance and high masculinity. These two cultural dimensions are particularly strong in Anglo-American cultures. He, therefore concludes (Hofstede, 1984, pp.127-8):

McClelland, an American, has been describing a typical Anglo-American value complex - the one present in his own environment - and offered it as a model to the world. A Frenchman, Swede, or Japanese would have been unlikely to discover a world-wide achievement motive.

In accordance with this, Derekhshan and Fathehi say (Derekhshan and Fathehi, 1996, pp.219-20) that while McClelland's idea would permit cross-cultural theorising, it assumes only one path to economic development manifest through high need achievement, which is characteristic of Western individualistic societies. Recent economic progress in some Asian countries would, however, indicate the existence of alternative paths.

Altogether, it seems that McClelland's study is subject to the same problematic phenomenon marking many research works of cross-cultural management : the theoretical model or the way of thinking of the researcher is being projected into the research study and its result. The scientist is looking to prove the results he already expects to find due to his own cultural heritage. In the case of McClelland this means that he attributes prosperity only to achievement and performance. Yet, there might be other cultural factors, for example in Asia, which are able to explain economic growth in these regions.[19]

Another problem of McClelland's theory is an insufficient certainty as to the definition of 'achievement'. Hofstede has remarked (Hofstede, 1984, p.128) that the term 'achievement' cannot even be translated into a number of languages. Maehr has criticised (Maehr, 1977, p.103) that achievement is seen by

McClelland only as economical and entrepreneurial success. Yet, in many cultures there might exist different types of achievement. Even though some cultures are defining achievement in terms of academic and economical success (especially in Anglo-Saxon countries) there might be others looking at it from a family or personal perspective (especially in Latin countries).

Heckhausen views a generalisation of McClelland's work as problematic, because it does not specify those factors which lead to the achievement need (Heckhausen, 1971, p.258). Is it fear of failure or hope to be successful that leads people to strive for achievement? Answering this question is crucial for the design of motivational systems. There is no doubt about the fact that it makes a difference to motivate people through fear or reward.

The discussion of McClelland's theory shows that his model is controversial. From a cross-cultural perspective it is obvious that achievement can take many different meanings in different countries and also that the reason to achieve varies across borders. McClelland's main argument that achievement motivated people cause economic growth has been contested.

Yet, despite the fact that McClelland's achievement theory suffers from some major weaknesses it is still widely accepted - from a scientific and cross-cultural perspective – that the achievement motive is one possible growth-factor for all societies. To a certain extend, McClelland's theory can therefore be applied in the context of a multinational company.

For two reasons McClelland's insights might serve international companies' management: First, it could be argued that international companies should build up their production sites in those countries where high achievement motivation is prevalent. Productivity of employees might be relatively high. Second, management should be careful to fully satisfy achievement motivated employees

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[19] One of these factors could, for example, be found in the 'integral way of thinking' of Asian people that has been developed through Buddhism and that is recognised today as one important origins of economic success in Asian countries.

by giving them responsibility, feedback and medium-risk tasks. Achievement motivated employees should get the possibility to perform visibly. Little work, monotonous jobs and little responsibility might cause them to be psychologically stressed and demotivated.

C.V. On the state of cross-cultural motivational research

Cross-cultural research on human motivation has looked to a great extend at the transferability of Maslow's, Herzberg's and McClelland's theories. It was shown that all of these theories (which are probably the most well known ones in company practice today) must be viewed critically as to their international validity..

It becomes obvious that almost all cross-cultural studies on motivation have limited themselves to test the theories by Herzberg, Maslow and McClelland. However, there has been almost no attempt to develop and test a new model, valid and flexible across cultures. Very often work motivation takes only a minor stake in bigger studies, simply equating work motivation with work satisfaction.

Bhagat et al. (1990) remark that research on cross-cultural motivation lacks conclusions as to concrete measures to take in order to motivate employees more efficiently. Most studies are of theoretical nature leaving out any practical advice.

There are many publications on international management that mention the importance of culturally adapted motivational systems. Yet, there are rarely any true suggestions or discussions that would treat the problem of motivation in more detail.

For these reasons, there is no doubt about the need to put more research emphasis on cross-cultural motivation. The empirical study that will be presented hereafter is an attempt to contribute to this vaguely treated field of research. It has been realised in close co-operation with the company HENKEL and its subsidiaries in Eastern Europe.

D. THE HENKEL-STUDY

D.I. Development and realisation of the study

D.I.a. Methodology

In March and April 1996 the author of this present thesis carried out a survey among 131 HENKEL employees. The inquiry treated the subject of human motivation. All *informants* responded to a questionnaire of 51 items.

People questioned are coming from four Eastern -and Western European regions where HENKEL *has* production sites, namely Poland (Raciborz), Slovakia (Nove Mesto), East-Germany (Genthin) and West-Germany (Thompson/Siegel and WDP/Holthausen). Figure 6 summarises the professional positions held by employees interrogated. It becomes obvious that at each site there were about 50% of the questionnaires filled out by employees from a lower level of management (foremen) and 50% by those from middle management positions.

position	share in %
head of production	15
chief engineer	5
production engineer	10
resource manager	5
controller	5
quality manager	5
foreman	55

fig.6

The reason for choosing this profile of positions within the company is that motivation - as described in fig.6 - may be created as a result of superior -

subordinate interaction. The interrogated lower and middle management levels therefore allow for a good cross-section through the organisational hierarchy. All employees questioned are leading others, but are also *managed* themselves.

The inquiry has respected a congruence of all employees: All people interrogated belong to the same company, hold the same positions and are about the same age. This congruence guarantees that differences in answering behaviour can be explained only through the varying factor of 'nationality'.

One weakness of the is that for technical reasons, there have been more women integrated in the study in Eastern Europe.[20] As a result, it cannot be excluded from consideration that different answers in Eastern Europe are a result of a greater feminine influence. Figure 7 summarises the structure of sex and age included in the study for each region.

	sample size (n)	male share (%)	female share (%)	average age
total	131	74,8	25,2	41
Poland	34	64,7	35,3	42
Slovakia	29	55,2	44,8	39
West – G	37	94,6	5,4	40
East - G	31	80,6	19,4	44

fig.7

The process of inquiry has been the same in all five HENKEL subsidiaries. Beginning of March 1996 a translated version of the questionnaire was sent to heads of the subsidiaries. At the production sites the questionnaires were replicated and distributed among the employees described earlier. Employees were asked to take the questionnaires home and to return them anonymously

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[20] The share of women working in Eastern Europe and holding traditionally masculine positions is much higher than in Western Europe (especially Germany).

within the three weeks following. In Germany and Poland an introductory page has been added asking everybody to respond carefully, but also spontaneously.[21]

Due to the company support the return of questionnaires was around 100% in all regions. Originally there were 30 filled-out questionnaires planned for each region as a sample of 30 is considered a statistical minimum to derive statements for a bigger population. It must be remarked, however, that a sample of 30 people interrogated is certainly to small (from a scientific point of view) to justify statements on the whole of a country's population. The limits of the present study thus becomes obvious.

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[21] Copies and translations of the questionnaire can be consulted and appendix 1.

D.I.b. Translation of the questionnaire

The author of this present work has striven for a very close translation of the original questionnaire into all four languages (the original was formulated in English).

In cross-cultural literature scientists call for the back-translation of each translated questionnaire. This requirement has been respected as far as possible for the present study:

The German version of the questionnaire was translated by the author h   self. A profound reflection on the significance and content of all questions as well as the translation into the author's mother-tongue should have lead to a relative precise reproduction of the English original. The Polish translation was gained by the co-operation of three Polish students studying at Oxford University. The Slovak translation was made by one Slovakian student of Oxford University. A back-translation was realised in co-operation with the author of this thesis.

As a result of the thorough translation procedure, the translations should be almost identical with the original.

D.I.c. Content of the questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of 51 questions testing cultural traits and the motivational structure of people interrogated. Out of these 51 questions, 35 questions are based on works by Hofstede and Murray. The remaining 16 were taken from a motivational study by Alpander and Carter. In this way, none of the questions employed were used for the first time in scientific research. Reference to already existing questions that have been tested empirically allowed to investigate in this present study a number of behavioural phenomenona of proven scientific validity.

Questions taken from Hofstede

20 questions (F1 - F17, F19, F20 and F24) were taken directly from Hofstede's IBM study. In his book „Culture's Consequences" Hof stede proposes himself to use questions developed by himself for further research in cross-cultural management (Hofstede, 1984a). Just as Hofstede himself draws some conclusions on employee motivation his questions allow to deduct some aspects as to the design of motivation systems in the countries studied. Yet, with the 20 questions chosen it was technically impossible to replicate Hofstede's results and to identify any four dimensions similar to the ones he mentions in his publications.

Questions taken from McClelland

8 questions integrated in the questionnaire (F37 - F44) and taken from renown psychological publications by H.A.Murray and D.McClelland have been most significant for the psychological investigation of human motivators in the empirical study (McClelland, 1987). Employees interrogated are scrutinised as to the strength of their achievement- (F37 - F39), power- (F42 - F44) and affiliation motive (F40 - F41). The goal of these questions was to identify the relative importance of each motive in all regions. According to the strength of these motives, motivational systems should correspond to one or the other in order to be successful.

While the achievement motive has been discussed in great detail earlier, a description of the power- and affiliation motive will now be expanded on. The relative strength of the three behavioural motives will be at the centre of interest and discussion in the empirical work hereafter.

Anthropologists, biologists and philosophers like Nietzsche have always been impressed by the aggressive instincts of human beings that lead them to compete and fight. These instincts can be attributed to peoples' power motive which is a part of their personality determining their behaviour. Veroff defines the goal of the power motive as the desire to „exercise influence" (Veroff, 1957). Winter sees the power motive of people when they strive to make an impression on and have control and influence over other people, groups or the world at large (Winter, 1973). According to McClelland, power motivated employees tend to collect symbols of their success and prestige (McClelland, 1987). Addressing the power motive of employees means to give them the possibility to be competitive and to set out visible rewards.

The affiliation motive which is regularly negatively correlated with the power motive can be described as the basic need and desire of people to be with others. It is important for individuals with a strong affiliation motive to build up and maintain positive emotional relationships and to be liked and accepted by others. In organisational context affiliation motivated employees prefer to work with friends instead of professional experts and try to avoid any kind of conflict (McClelland, 1987). It is important to see that employees with a strong affiliation motive are better integrating in groups which is increasingly important for organisational practices (McClelland, 1987).

Questions taken from Alpander and Carter

16 questions were taken from a quite recent work by Alpander and Carter (Alpander and Carter, 1991). In their article „Strategic multinational intra-company

differences in employee motivation" the two authors identify four basic dimensions of motivation: economic security, control and recognition, self-worth and affiliation.

Economic security is a motivational dimension based on Maslow's theory who identified the need to satisfy thirst and hunger through money. Herzberg calls money a hygiene factor. Certainly, the integration of „money" or „salary" is important for the present motivational study (F21 - F22, F29).[22] To what extend money is, however, purely a hygiene factor will have to be discussed on the basis of the empirical data won.

The motivational dimensions control and affiliation identified by Alpander and Carter are very much related to McClelland's motivational theory (power and affiliation), as can be seen from above. For the analysis of the empirical data it is therefore important to recognise that those questions related to control (F23, F25, F33) and affiliation (F26, F35 - F36) are serving as a further test and investigation of McClelland's motivators.

Recognition (F27 - F28, F31 - F32) and self-worth (F30, F34) are interesting aspects in the context of an Eastern European study as these regions are historically marked by their fight for recognition and sovereignty (e.g. Poland). Also current political discussions on the integration of Eastern Europe in the European Union are characterised by the desire of Eastern European countries to be recognised - through integration - as emancipated and democratic industrial nations; apart from economic and financial arguments. The desire to be recognised and respected also leads to motivate individuals.

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[22] After all, many people defend the thesis that money is the only mean to motivate employees.

D.II. Limits and weaknesses of the HENKEL - study

There have been a number of problems discussed earlier that occur when carrying out empirical cross-cultural studies. Some of these problems could not be avoided for this present empirical work.

It must be pointed out, for example, that the samples of people interrogated in each country have not been bigger than 30. As a result, the samples are probably too small to justify valid statements on the national character of Polish, Slovakians and Germans. Also, there have just been HENKEL employees interrogated. The present empirical study thus holds the character of a pilot study.

The present empirical research can be characterised as a pilot study also because the questionnaire used was not tested in advance as to its content validity; even though the questions themselves were developed and tested earlier by other scholars. As a result, behavioural motives and motivators that have turned out to be important in the course of analysis have been tested by too few items in order to be reliable. At the same time, many questions integrated in the questionnaire have turned out to be of little importance for the subject of human motivation.

Empirical research testing cultural phenomenona often risk to be out of date quickly (Kumar, 1991). Especially in Eastern Europe societies are currently undergoing continuous changes. Domsch and Lichtenberger even call these changes "cultural turbulences" (Domsch and Lichtenberger, 1993, p.354). It is therefore questionable whether the insights won in the present empirical study are of long-term validity.

As was mentioned earlier there has been an unequal distribution of sexes in the current study. This has eventually influenced the outcome of data collected. The distribution of sexes was not respected when analysing the data statistically.

Finally, the study was carried out within the company HENKEL and it cannot be excluded from consideration that answering behaviour has been influenced partially by what is socially desired and expected.[23] Especially in Eastern Europe, employees have so far rarely been confronted with opinion polls. They might therefore have treated the questionnaires differently than their German colleagues.[24]

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[23] People interrogated answer in such a way as they believe is expected from them and not in the way they really feel.

[24] Perhaps people in Eastern Europe think more before answering to a question and are suspicious whether their answers are really treated anonymously.

D.III. Discussion of empirical findings1 – graphical interpretations

D.III.a. Some introducing explanations concerning statistical and graphical interpretations

The discussion of empirical results is closely linked to those classical behavioural motives that have been described earlier and that have been identified to motivate employees and people in general. An emphasis will be put on motives found by McClelland and Murray : **achievement (1), power (2)** and **affiliation (3)**. In the context of the power motive management behaviour and **leadership stiles (4)** will be discussed. Affiliation is treated wit respect to its significance for group work and team building within companies. Finally, the importance of money and **remuneration (5)** will be analysed for motivating employees in the regions surveyed.

For each of these five factors influencing employee motivation a set of questions will be raised:

1) What rank of importance do the five factors have for employees interrogated from each region?
2) To what extend does this rank of importance vary across borders?

If it should turn out that employees from the four geographic regions are differing significantly in the way they value the five motivating factors, then it might be argued that they probably dispose of different motivation structures. This might be due to their culture and thus to the cultural and systems heritage people have experienced. If behavioural motives (and thus the sources of human activity) are culturally determined, then motivational systems in international companies should respect this cultural force. Motivational systems should be adapted to underlying cultural expectations of employees. They should directly address those motives that are predominant among employees of one culture, respecting the

fact that it is only possible to motivate employee A in country A if you know **what** motivates him/her. By showing that motivation is a culturally determined phenomenon it is possible to prove the limits of conventional, universal motivation theory.

In order to scrutinise the importance and strength of each motive the questionnaire included several questions testing it from different angles. When discussing the empirical findings for one motive then the first step will be to summarise all questions that were used to test this motive in the questionnaire.

A prerequisite for further analysis is that all employees have answered similarly to those questions testing one motive. The similarity of answering behaviour is expressed through correlation coefficients. If the correlation coefficient (of those questions testing one motive) is greater then 0,3, then statistics are indicating that answering behaviour concerning this particular motive has been very similar. The complex of several questions describing one motive can be regarded as statistically relevant. It therefore makes sense to analyse the answering behaviour of employees. If, however, questions are not significantly correlated, then a discussion of the motive tested is senseless as there is no statistical foundation on which it could be based.[25]

Once a behavioural motive (as for example affiliation) has turned out to be statistically significant, a cross-cultural and comparative analysis of replies follows. Chi-Square-Values indicate whether employees from different regions have answered differently to the same questions or, in contrast, have answered very similarly. If the Chi-Square-Value is smaller than 0,05 than statistics indicate that there has been significantly different answering behaviour in different regions (concerning this motive). The finding will be elucidate through a graphical presentation contrasting different answering profiles visually. Contingency tables on which these graphs are based can be found in appendix 2.

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[25] In this case, employees have answered differently to questions that are the same in their content and are actually testing the same thing.

The statistical and graphical analysis is complemented by a discussion of the statistical findings. Partly, these findings will be compared with external studies that have been carried out with a similar direction in the same Eastern European regions. They either support or contradict the present results. Finally, a conclusion will be drawn on the implications of the empirical findings for employee motivation and the structuring of motivational systems in a company context.

By the help of the Chi-Square-Value and the graphical demonstrations it will be made plain that there are probably no concepts of human motivation that can claim true universal validity. It will eventually become obvious how different people from different regions are concerning their motivational expectations and structure. Universalism of conventional motivation theory will indirectly be questioned in this way.

D.III.b. The achievement motive

As was described above, the achievement motive is dominant in a person's motivative structure if he/she gets satisfaction from the work itself, independent from social or financial reward.

The three questions formulated by Murray and McClelland testing the achievement motive (F37 - F39) have had the following correlation coefficients in the statistical data analysis :

(1) Q37 & Q38 = 0,087 (< 0,3)
(2) Q37 & Q39 = 0,383 (> 0,3)
(3) Q38 & Q39 = 0,254 (< 0,3)

The correlation coefficients indicate that there has not been a congruent answering behaviour for three questions testing the achievement motive. As a result, it is problematical if not impossible to say anything about the achievement motivation of employees interrogated. Only questions 37 and 38 are slightly correlated. It could therefore be possible that those employees who set high goals for themselves (Q37) are often enjoying work as much as play (Q39). Whether this is true across cultures or just a phenomenon of individual nations can be answered by the Chi-Square-Value :

no.	question	Chi-Square- Value
37	I often set difficult goals for myself, which I attempt to reach	0,055
39	I enjoy work as much as play	0,001

fig.8

The Chi-Square-Values indicate that the answering behaviour of HENKEL-employees was more or less the same in all regions for question 37. A discussion

of cross-cultural differences concerning the question 37 is thus not possible. Graph 1 which is visualising the answers given demonstrates how similar people have corresponded.

F 37 : I often set difficult goals for myself, which I attempt to reach
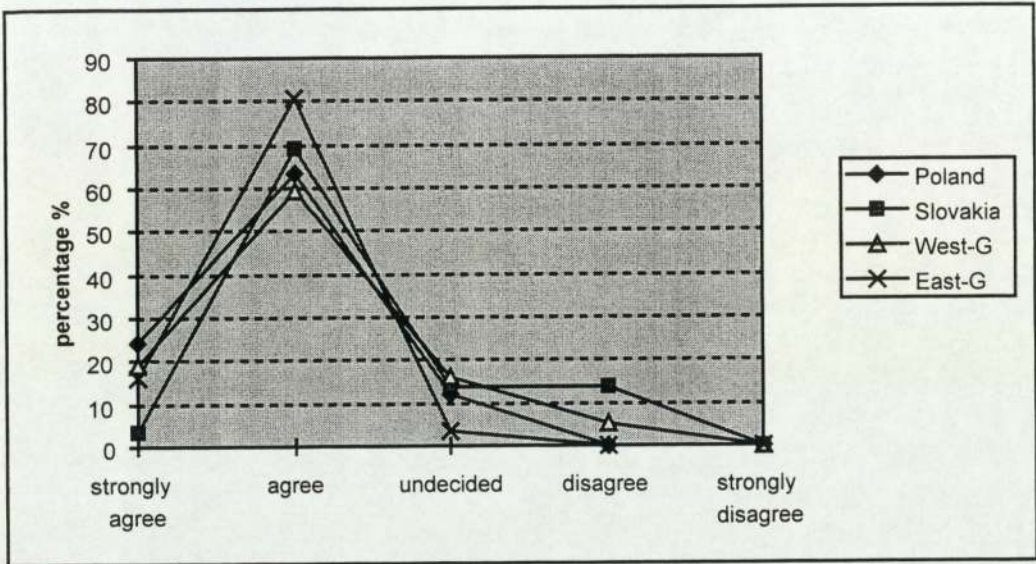
graph 1

Setting high goals to oneself seems to take an important place in peoples' lives in all regions surveyed. However, taken Murrays achievement-test-question whether one enjoys work as much as play, employees from different regions seem to be quite distinct. While around 70% of Slovaks disagree that they enjoy work as much as play some Germans even strongly agree to this. In fact, Germany seems to take a leading position in achievement motivation. The data obtained indicate that the further one moves to the East the less achievement motivation can be found (if one considers question 39).

F39 : I enjoy work as much as play
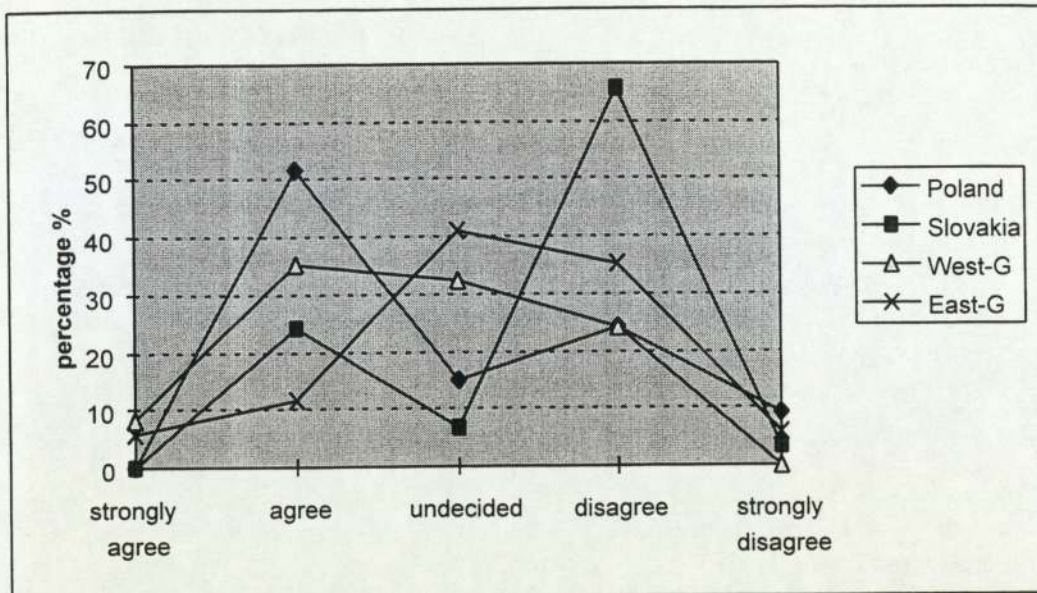
graph 2

All results taken together, work seems to be enjoyed for its own sake in most regions (with Slovakia being a slight exception for question 39). Most HENKEL-employees set themselves personal goals and are occupied to some extend thinking about what they want to attain in their lives and their job.

Yet, as there has not been any correlation between questions 37 and 39 testing the achievement motive an in-depth analysis of the subject should not be pursued at this point.

It is worthwhile mentioning, however, that the so called Sokult92-study has also identified a high degree of achievement motivation in East Germany. According to research results, achievement has - among many other value patterns studied (such as discipline, participation, autonomy, etc.) - the biggest importance for East Germans (Lang, 1993).

The results obtained lead to the conclusion that there might be some differences between the four regions as far as the achievement motive is concerned. Due to low correlation coefficients this finding is, however, not scientifically founded.

D.III.c. The power motive

It has been shown that people's power motive is the desire to exercise influence on others and control them.

There were seven questions integrated in the study testing the strength of the power motive among HENKEL-employees (F23 - F25, F33, F42 - F44). All of these questions were statistically highly correlated within all regions (fig. 9). The statistical analysis has thus proved the existence and relevance of the power motive among those people questioned.

Correlation Coefficients	Poland	Slovakia	West-Germany	East-Germany	total
F42 & F43	0,442	0,412	0,377	0,275	0,398
F42 & F44	0,623	0,133	0,465	0,246	0,400
F43 & F44	0,598	0,476	0,306	0,502	0,465
F33 & F43	0,665	0,572	0,065	0,242	0,466

fig.9

Correlation coefficients imply that the desire to make one's own decisions rather than taking orders (F33) is linked up with the conviction to influence others more than they influence oneself (F43). If people believe that they are able to dominate social situations (F44) they also usually state that they enjoy organising or directing activities of a group (F42). The correlation coefficients indicate that employees have a tendency to answer all four power related questions in the same way. Graphs 3 to 6 elucidate the context.

Figure 10 summarises the corresponding Chi-Square-Values and shows to what extend answering behaviour has been statistically different across national borders.

no.	question	Chi-Square-Value
F33	In a work situation I generally like to make my own decisions rather than taking orders	0,390
F42	I enjoy organising or directing activities of a group - no matter if in a team, club or committee	0,600
F43	I usually influence others more than they influence me	0,612
F44	I feel that I can dominate a social situation	0,210

fig. 10

Figure 10 shows that all Chi-Square-Values are greater than 0,05. This means that also in the case of the power motive answering behaviour in respect to all four questions has been very similar across borders. A discussion of cross-cultural differences in power motivation is therefore not possible. Nevertheless it might be of some interest to look at answers given by HENKEL-employees in this context. How do they see their own role and define their personal capacities within the company context?

F 33 : In a work situation I generally like to make my own decisions rather than taking orders
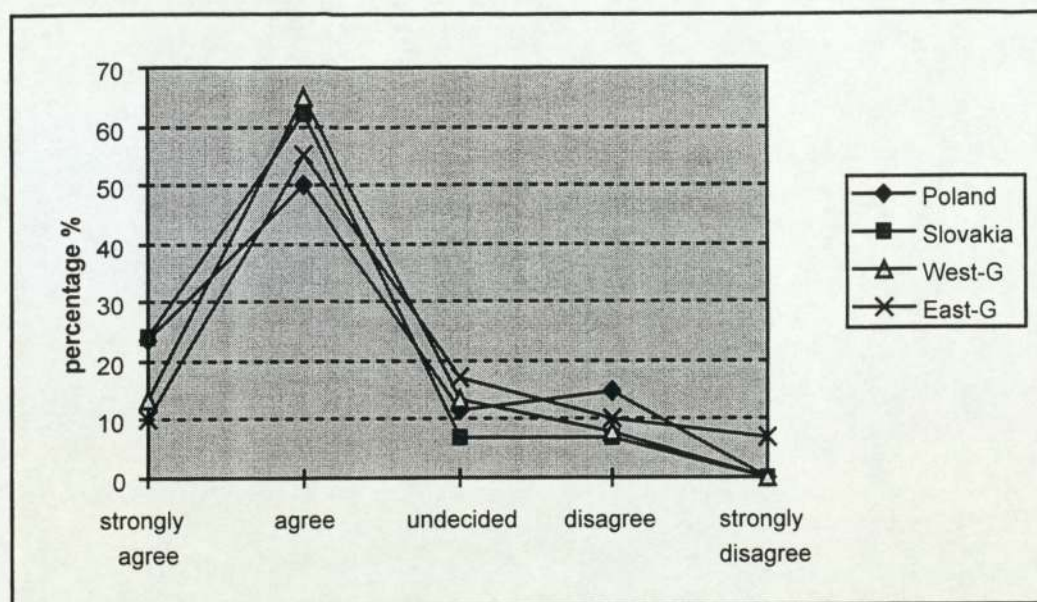
graph 3

Graph 3 demonstrates that autonomous decision making is very important to HENKEL-employees. In all countries at least 70% of those questioned state that they generally prefer to make their own decisions rather than taking orders. This may hint at the fact that they feel competent within their habitual working environment. Intervention of the superior may be perceived as a disturbing factor.

A study by Schlese and Schramm (Schlese and Schramm, 1996, p.175) that was carried out recently in Eastern Europe confirms the desire of Eastern Europeans and Germans to have freedom of decision-making in their working environment. They state (Schlese and Schramm, 1996, p.174-75):

Freedom of decision-making on the job [is playing] an important role for the development of positive work attitudes...Within a country there is always a strong relationship between perceived autonomy and work satisfaction...and probably their correlates such as absenteeism, fluctuation and work motivation.

F 42 : I enjoy organising or directing activities of a group - no matter if in a team, club or in a committee
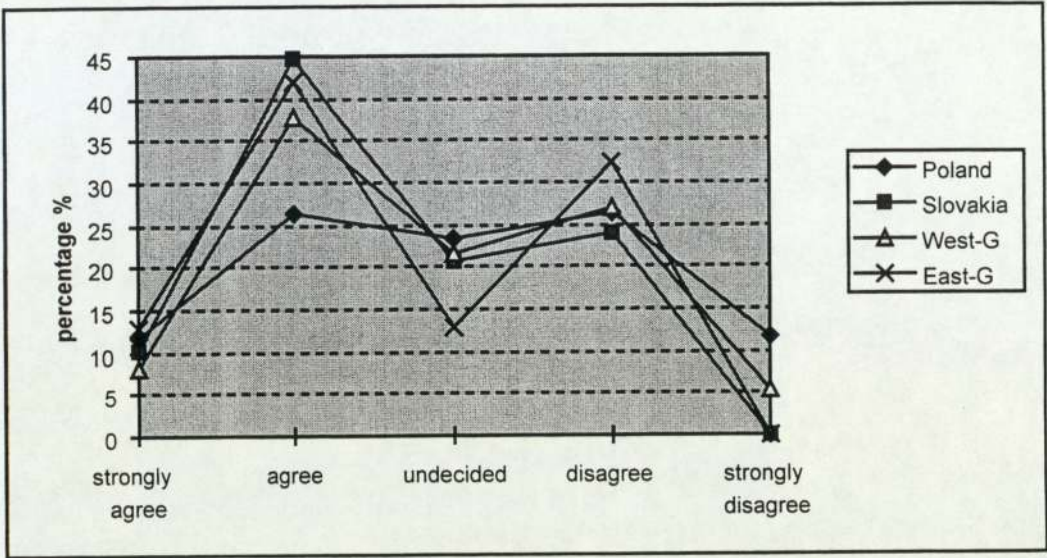
graph 4

When answering to question 42 employees were rather undecided whether they enjoy organising or directing group activities. This may be due to the fact that organisational activities always imply extra time and effort for the organiser. Many of those employees   might want to avoid this; even if they like to exercise influence and be a co-ordinator (and are thus motivated by power). Extra work might prevent them from becoming active.

Nevertheless, a remarkable percentage of HENKEL - employees from all regions (except for Poland) tend to hold positive attitudes towards organisational and leadership activities. About 30% - 40% like to take the role of a co-ordinator. It is questionable to what extend company context gives employees the possibility to do so (especially in Eastern Europe).

F 43 : I usually influence others more than they influence me
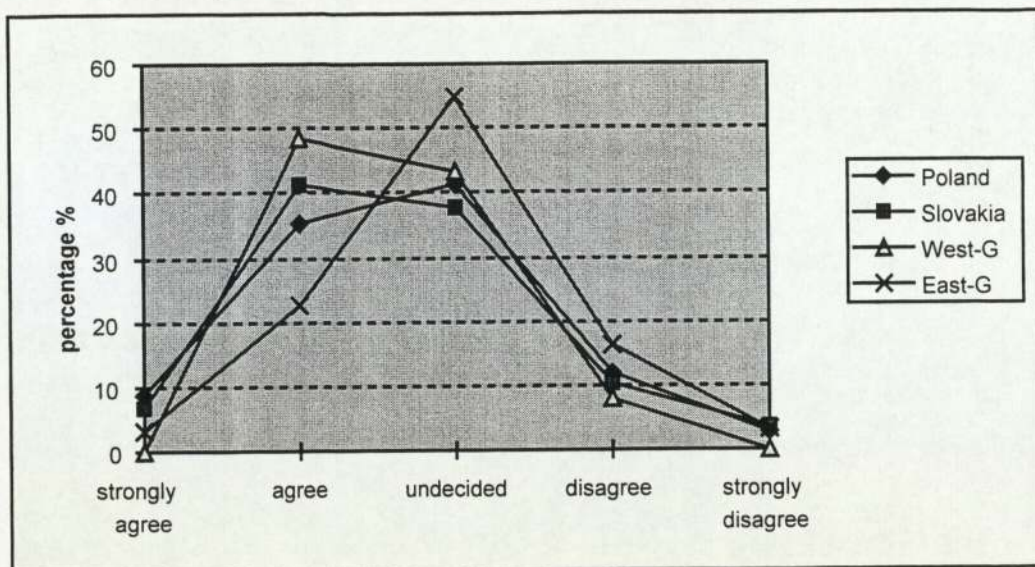
graph 5

F 44 : I feel that I can dominate a social situation
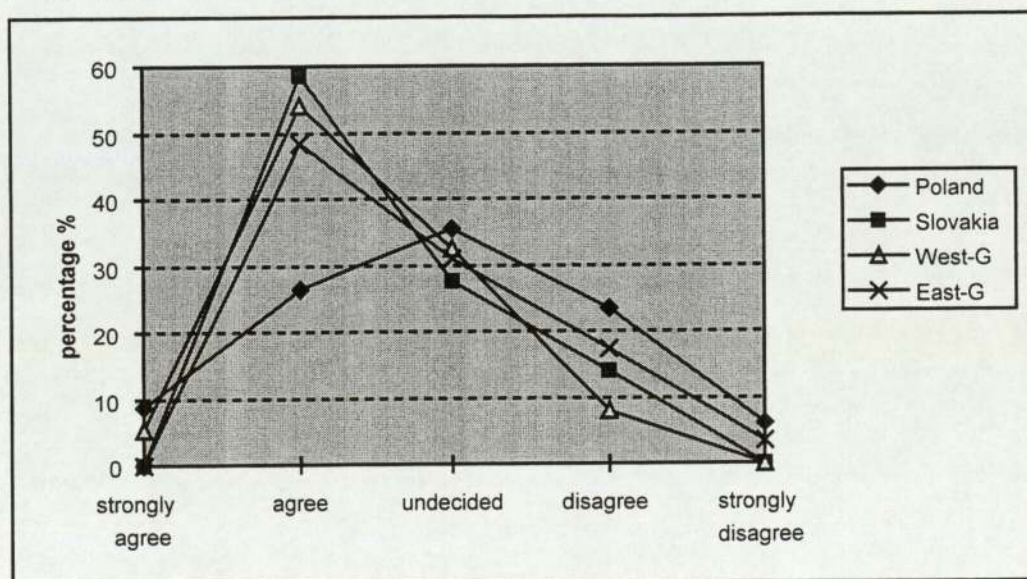
graph 6

Questions 43 and 44 have tested the personal power consciousness of HENKEL-employees. Indirectly, they were asked whether they have already been in a power situation ("often") and whether they see themselves capable of maintaining such a situation. The answers given indicate that there is a hardly neglectable power consciousness in all four regions. Except for Eastern Germans, every

second person believes that he/she usually influences others more than being influenced him/herself. And except for Polish people, every second also believes to be able to dominate social situations.

It would be extremely interesting to see how other cultures (such as the Asian one) would have corresponded to questions 43 and 44. For could it be possible that Middle European cultures are marked by a particularly strong power motive in international comparison?

Altogether, it can be concluded that all HENKEL-employees in all four geographic regions attribute high value to relative freedom of decision-making and a personal sphere of influence and power within the working place. For organisational development this means that employees from all regions should be given direct and individual responsibility within their working sphere. Here, they should be allowed to decide independently on certain tasks. The incentive to lead others or to exercise power might turn out to be a successful motivator for many employees.

There still exists a stereotype idea that managers from Eastern Europe are afraid to carry responsibility coming along with power (Bayer, 1995). Looking at the empirical results of this study it must be questioned, however, to what extend this idea can be maintained. Possibly, managers from Eastern Europe have not been familiar to carry responsibility for their actions. Yet, it seems that they might enjoy to exercise power and act independently. Cautiousness might be wise in Poland where HENKEL-employees have been the most reserved in their answers concerning the power motive.

Closely linked to the idea of exercising power is the organisational aspect of leadership. What type of leadership stile, what span of control, what degree of participation is being wished for, expected and experienced by employees? Obviously, employees wishing for a high degree of autonomy and power might have problems to obey to any authoritative or autocratic leadership style. If they

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are forced to obey, then their motivation and personal initiative will probably get lost. The following empirical results on leadership styles illuminate this context for HENKEL- employees.

D.III.d. Leadership Expectations

As can be seen from figure 1 of this thesis, the behaviour of superiors plays an important role in the motivation of employees. Through their leadership style and behaviour managers can function directly as a motivator or demotivator. As a result, leadership is an important aspect for this present empirical work on motivation. As was discussed above, universally valid leadership models have confronted some difficulties when being tested abroad. For effective leadership practices culturally grown expectations of employees should be respected.

By using two questions developed by G.Hofstede (F3 and F4) the attempt has been made to find out, which leadership styles are preferred by HENKEL-employees in different regions and which ones are experienced (Hofstede, 1984a). It is then analysed to what extend leadership expectations are varying across borders. Derivations are being made concerning leadership styles eventually maximising motivation among employees.

Correlation coefficients of questions F3 and F4 signal a strong relation between both questions studying power distance within each region :

Correlation Coefficients	Poland	Slovakia	West-Germany	East-Germany	total
F3 & F4	0,333	0,502	0,280	0,582	0,426

fig.11

Looking at figure 12, Chi-Square-Values indicate for the first time that there are strong cross-cultural variations in answering behaviour for both questions. The Chi-Square-Value is far below 0,05 for both questions. Graph 7 demonstrates the findings. A discussion of significant cultural differences concerning desired and experienced leadership is possible.

Employees answering the questionnaire had to choose one of the four types of managers described below as an ideal superior :

manager 1:   Usually makes decisions promptly and communicates them to his
              subordinates clearly and firmly. Expects them to carry out the
              decisions loyally and without raising difficulties.

manager 2:   Usually makes his decisions promptly, but, before going ahead, tries
              to explain them fully to his subordinates. Gives them the reason for
              the decision and answers whatever questions they may have.

manager 3:   Usually consults with his subordinates before he reaches his decisions.
              Listens to their advice, considers it, and then announces this decision.
              He then expects all to work loyally to implement it whether or not it
              is in accordance with the advice they gave.

manager 4:   Usually calls a meeting of his subordinates when there is an important
              decision to be made. Puts the problem before the group and invites
              discussion. Accepts the majority viewpoint as the decision.

| F3 | the preferred type of manager | 0,002 |
| F4 | the experienced type of manager | 0,002 |

fig.12

F3 : The preferred type of manager :
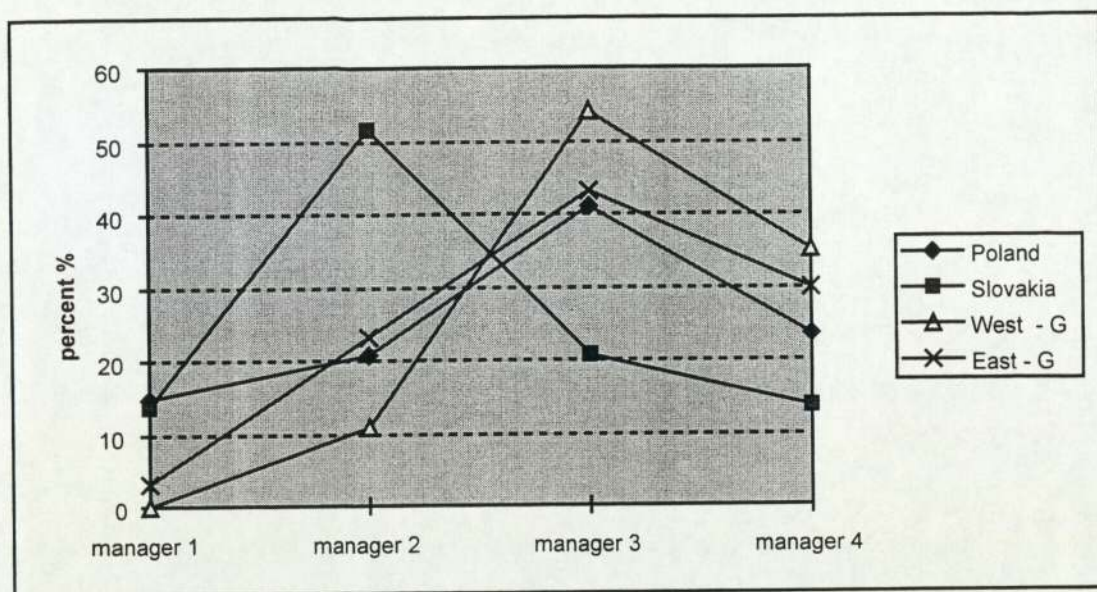
graph 7

Graph 7 indicates that except for Slovaks (who prefer an authoritarian - patriarchal type of manager) there is a general tendency in all other regions to welcome participative to delegative leadership stiles among superiors. Considering employees' overall desire for personal responsibility and power (discussed above) this result is not surprising.

The answers given suggest that West Germans obviously feel a need to participate in the decision-making process and would like „to be consulted" when there are important decisions to be made within the company. Only 10% of West Germans are looking for a manager who is explaining his decisions, but takes them, after all, independently of their opinion. Transferring this insight to organisational structure, West Germans working at HENKEL probably feel more comfortable to work in flat hierarchies where there is more space for participation. They might be easily demontivated by managers profiting from their superior position. The statistical result might indicate that 50 years of continuous German emphasis on democratic thinking have lead to an overall consciousness for equality, freedom of thinking and decision-making. Strong democratic thinking

within institutions and the educational system are playing a role in today's company context in Germany.

The more one moves from West Germany to the East the more do empirical results suggest a change in leadership expectations. Marked by decades of planned economy under communism (where planning and distribution was made from top to bottom) HENKEL - employees in Eastern Europe are convinced much more of the traditional and authoritative leadership stile. Especially Slovaks show an extremely conservative way of approving leadership. 70% of HENKEL-employees in Slovakia desire for an either authoritative or patriarichical type of manager. This result indicates that they expect their managers to make the decisions independently. If HENKEL-managers (e.g. expatriates) confronted their Slovakian employees with a participative or even delegative leadership stiles, they would probably feel overtaxed. This again might then lead to personal stress and fear (in contrast to motivation). As a result, a smaller span of control leading to more levels of hierarchy might perhaps be advisable in Slovakia and might (in contrast to West Germany) not be a barrier to motivation.

East Germans and Polish are relatively similar in their leadership expectations. Despite an equal experiences like Slovaks within a planned and centralised economy they express a clear preferences for the participative - delegative type of manager. Around 60% - 70% show a desire to participate in the decision-making process. This empirical result for East Germany is corresponding to results from the Sokult-study mentioned above (Lang, 1993) as well as data collected by Denisow and Stieler (Denisow and Stieler, 1992).

Contrasting West Germans and Slovaks graphically in this context makes clear to what extend cultural expectations can vary across cultures. Leadership models and -theories in the Western world have often pleaded for more participation and delegation of responsibility over the last decades (e.g. Harzburg model). Models developed by Maslow and Herzberg were one reason to believe that the need for self-fulfilment, responsibility, individualism and democracy would be universal motivators. It seemed as if motivation is inseparable from the delegative -

participative leadership style. The fact that this leadership style is not necessarily motivating in non-western cultures, that it is not even wished for, has apparently been ignored. The empirical data suggest that motivation through leadership should be designed differently in each country. Or there should at least be some consciousness for the cultural differences in leadership expectations. While there should be participative leadership practices in one country in order to motivate these should be strictly avoided in others.

D.III.e. The affiliation motive

As was shown earlier, the affiliation motive could also be described as a person's desire to maintain warm, emotional and affective relationships with others and to integrate in groups without conflict.

In the study there were five questions used to test the affiliation motive among HENKEL-employees (F26, F35 - F36, F40 - F41). In general, questions have turned out to be important for the analysis as they show a significant statistical correlation :[26]

	Poland	Slovakia	West-Germany	East-Germany	total
F35 & F26	0,248	0,518	0,163	0,259	0,368
F35 & F36	0,561	0,245	0,240	0,356	0,558
F40 & F41	0,447	0,220	0,505	0,389	0,420
F40 & F35	0,330	0,049	-0,155	0,448	0,325

fig.13

To act the way friends and close colleagues expect one to (F26) often went along with the attempt to avoid behaviour that would set oneself apart from the group (F35). And one who wishes for sociability and harmonious relationships within his/her group (F36) also tries to avoid setting-apart behaviour (F35). A strong emotional attachment to friends (F41) is often linked with the impression that one is in his/her element when he/she is with a group of people who enjoy life (F40).

The Chi-Square-Values summarised in figure 14 as well as graphs 8 to 11 suggest, however, that the affiliative structure of employees from the four geographic regions differs considerably.

no.	question	Chi-Square-Value
F26	I feel that it is often more wise to act the way friends and close colleagues expect me to than to do what I feel is right and convenient to me	0,002
F35	I try to avoid behaviour that would set me apart from my group	0,001
F36	I desire sociability and harmonious relationships within the groups I am a part of	0,001
F40	I am in my element when I am with a group of people who enjoy life	0,001
F41	I become emotionally very attached to my friends	0,001

fig.14

F35 : I try to avoid behaviour that would set me apart from my group
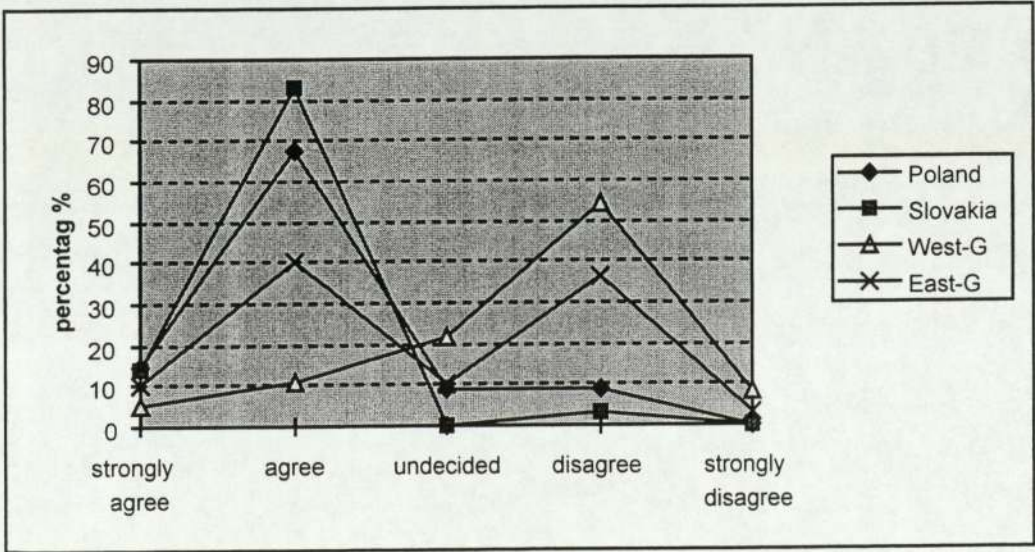
graph 8

As far as question 35 is concerned there is a relative difference between Eastern and Western Europe. While at least 80% of Poles and Slovaks try to avoid

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[26] In particular, Murray's questions stick out with high correlation coefficients.

behaviour that would set them apart from their groups, 65% of West Germans hold the exact opposite opinion. East Germans are split in this respect.

The data suggest that when operating in Poland or Slovakia it should be avoided to extol someone's merits and to distinguish him/her in this way from the group (regardless whether this happens in a positive or negative context).

F36 : I desire sociability and harmonious relationships within the groups I am a part of
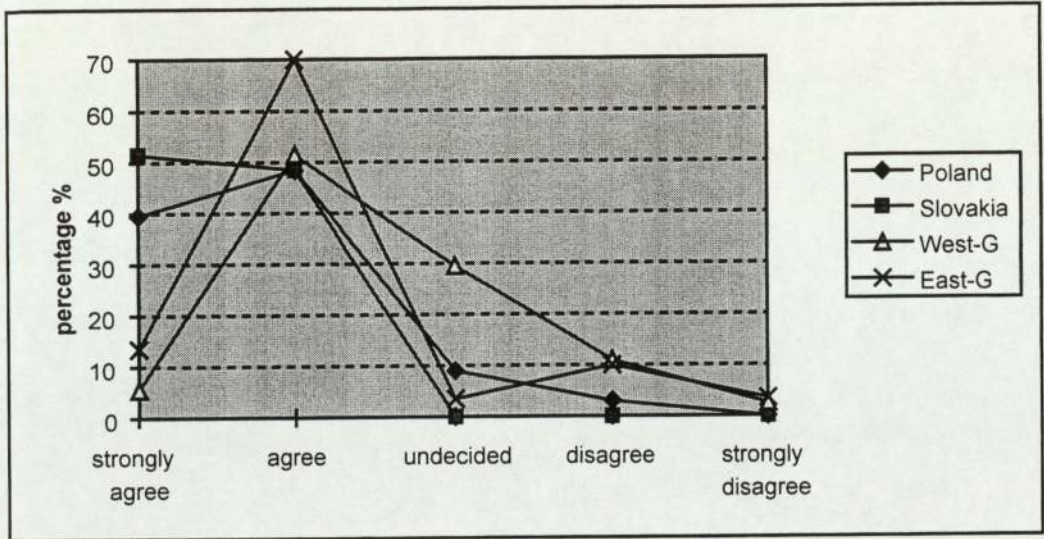
graph 9

Also for question 36 a clear distinction can be observed between Germany and Eastern Europeans. While at least 40% - 50% of Poles and Slovaks „strongly" agree that they wish for sociability and harmonious relationships in their groups this is the case for only 5% - 10% of Germans. In West Germany people appear to be quite group averse. Only every second person interrogated agreed at all to a harmonious group context.

F41 : I become emotionally very attached to my friends
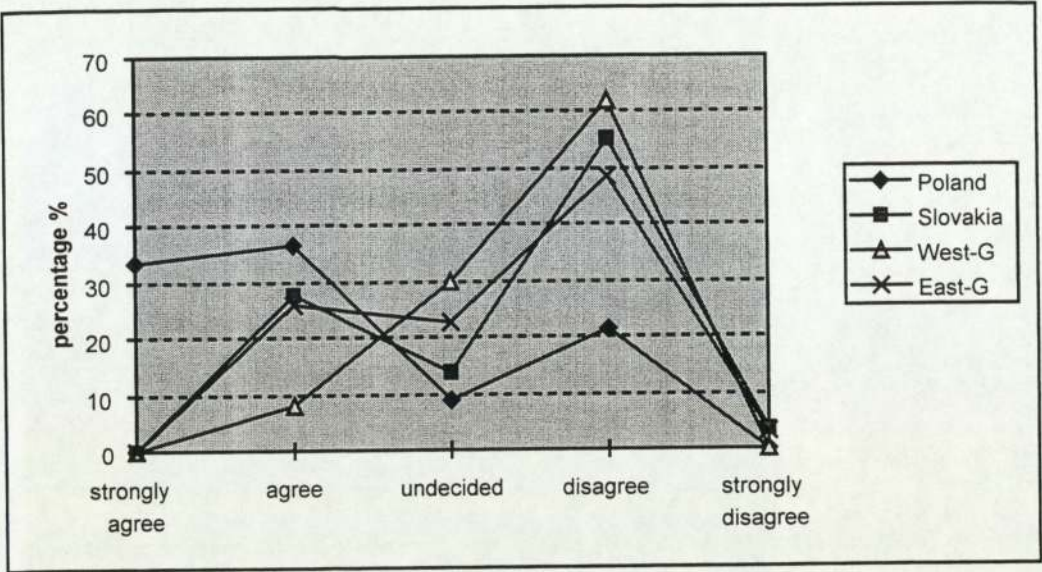
graph 10

An emotional attachment to friends is particularly strong in Poland where 70% of employees interrogated agreed on this point. Again, West Germans are representing the extreme opposite. Here, 60% of employees interrogated spontaneously reject the idea of a close attachment to friends. The rest of West Germans are mostly undecided. Slovaks and East Germans are, similarly to West Germans, reserved when asked about their attachment to friends.

F26 : I feel that it is often more wise to act the way friends and close colleagues expect me to than to do what I feel is right and convenient to me.
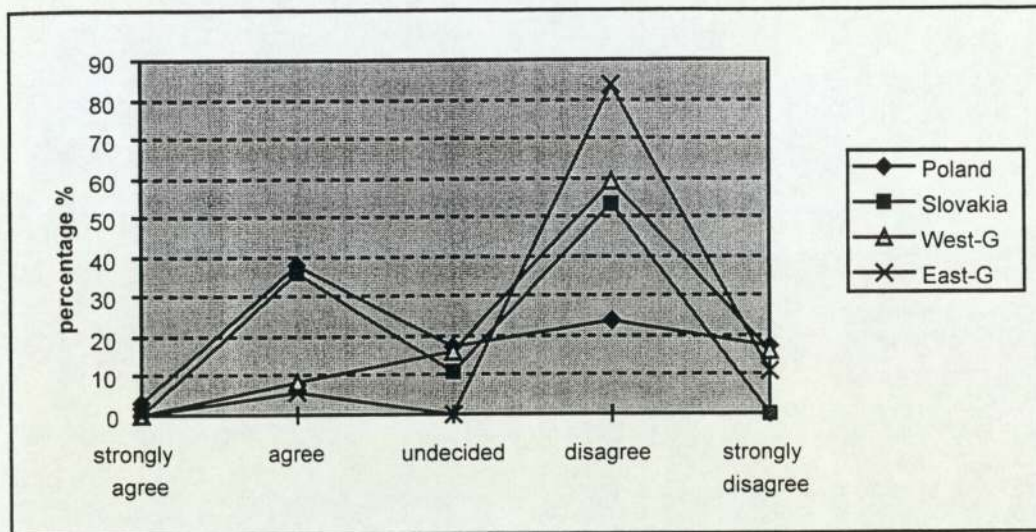
graph 11

Corresponding to the results obtained so far on the affiliation motive there is a difference between Eastern and Western Europe concerning question 26. After all, around 40% of Poles and Slovaks feel that it is more wise to act the way friends and colleagues expect them to than to do what they feel is right and convenient to them. At the same time only 9% of Germans interrogated can share this opinion.

All empirical results obtained in the study indicate that opinions differ between Easter and Western Europeans concerning the affiliation motive.

The reason for valuing friendship and harmonious group-relationships so completely differently might be traced back to the socialist experience in Eastern Europe until 1989. As Hofman and Bungart (cited in Schormair, 1985) remark the 'socialist work-group' (Arbeitskollektiv) was in its theoretical approach as well as in its practical constitution already a consequent realisation of team-work. Positive social relationships within the Arbeitskollektiv were considered as the most important condition to be satisfied with the entire work situation (Ladensack, 1990). Affiliation and group therefore take a completely different place/rank of importance in the experience of Eastern Europeans.

Special recognition should be attributed in this context to the role of East Germans. Except for question 26, East Germans have always taken a position 'in the middle' : One side and as in all former socialist countries, they highly value affiliative -and group thinking. On the other hand, East Germans do not seem to be as tangent to this motive as Poles and Slovaks are (see for example F35). It might be worth discussing why East Germans have expressed their values as such in the present empirical study. Perhaps, answering behaviour of East Germans can be explained by the history they have gone through: on one side, they are influenced by their socialist and 'humane' experience in the Arbeitskollektiv; on the other side, they are children of their German-Germanic cultural heritage. One could argue that perhaps it is their original German heritage that makes East Germans differ from the Slavs, the Poles and Slovaks, regardless of common political and institutional history over the past 50 years. Slavs, in fact, do put a traditionally high value on personal relationships and friendship. This chain of argument would suggest that not only instant and recent societal and institutional circumstances are influencing the motivational structure of people, but also long-term cultural heritage passed on from one generation to another.

Summing up, empirical results indicate that there is an important difference in the way Eastern and Western European value affiliation, friendship and group relationships. While according to Maslow and Herzberg relationships and social integration are playing a minor role in the West and might be counted among hygiene-factors, these same factors are playing a superior role in the East. The data thus suggest that positive group relationships at work could serve as a motivator in Eastern European countries. The affiliation motive as a source of human action is relatively strong in the East.

People from different cultures feel different needs for affiliation and personal relationships can thus be confirmed. As a result, the development of motivational systems should respect this finding. Respective to cultural heritage it should first be determined whether the group or the individual is important for employees

within a cultural environment. Then it should be decided on **who** is at the centre of a motivational system.

By introducing 'lean management' as one of the most promising business models today the choice between individual -or group focus seems to be globally predestined. 'The end of history' as Berggren referred to lean management (Berggren, 1993) is a business model successfully applied in Japan. It is adapted to and inseparable from the collectivist - group mentality of this nation. Company proposal-systems as well as reward systems (for example) are developed to motivate groups. In company practice, it has not been taken into consideration yet that this new 'wave' of group-work and group-thinking might eventually be destined to wreck in Western societies. A culturally caused rejection and unwillingness of individualist employees to adapt to any kind of group-mentality might be the cause. After all, empirical data from this present research suggest that 60% of West Germans interrogated reject emotional attachment even to their friends and are undecided as to harmonious relationships within their own groups. Instead, they are very open to conflict and rather do what they think right and convenient to them than to listen to their colleagues. Too much 'group' therefore risks to demotivate employees in West Germany.[27] At the same time, an existing group-mentality in Eastern Europe and in East Germany might become a local advantage (Hofman and Bungard, 1994).

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[27] The fact that communication, for example, can be regarded as a problem in German enterprises becomes evident from the following statement of a Toyota manager : " Somebody of whom I am really afraid of as a competitor are the Germans, if they ever learn how to communicate with each other" (comp. DIE ZEIT; 13/1997)

D.III.f. Remuneration

Conventional motivational theory (fig.3 and fig.5) is quite ambiguous as to the importance of money as a real motivator. According to Maslow and Herzberg money cannot be regarded as a need. It is simply a necessity to satisfy the desire for material goods. In contrast to this a study done by Edwin Locke has found that money is, in fact, the strongest motivator at all (Locke, 1980). In order to illuminate this debate from a cross-cultural perspective the current survey has integrated four questions testing the importance of money (F10, F21 - F22, F29). The goal was to determine what rank of importance money holds in the four geographic regions and whether money can be considered a motivator - in contrast to Maslow's and Herzberg's conviction.

Correlation coefficients have identified a clear correspondence of all answers given :

Correlation Coefficients	Poland	Slovakia	West-Germany	East-Germany	total
F10 & F21	0,671	0,334	0,540	0,439	0,467
F10 & F22	0,509	0,140	0,335	0,162	0,357
F10 & F29	0,415	0,107	0,278	0,107	0,272
F21 & F22	0,704	0,381	0,463	0,417	0,530
F21 & F29	0,720	0,262	0,484	0,415	0,481
F22 & F29	0,490	0,639	0,386	0,623	0,568

fig.15

Those employees who strongly value the opportunity for high earnings (F10) have a tendency to also see financial and material rewards as the most important incentive to take on a job (F21). Those who see money not only as a necessary mean to survive but also as something that makes them happy and satisfies them in some way (F22) are likely to enjoy setting themselves financial and material

goals for their future economic security (F29). They therefore like to think about money.

Chi-Square-Values listed in figure 16 as well as graphs 12 to 15 demonstrate that except for the context of question 10 the importance of money varies strongly across borders.

no.	questions	Chi - Square - Value
F10	How important would it be to you to have an opportunity for high earnings?	0,518
F21	Financial and material rewards are for me the most important incentives for taking on a job	0,001
F22	Money for me is not only a necessary mean to survive but also something that makes me happy or satisfies me in any other way	0,002
F29	I enjoy setting financial and material goals for my future economic security	0,024

fig. 16

F 10 : How important would it be to you to have an opportunity for high earnings?
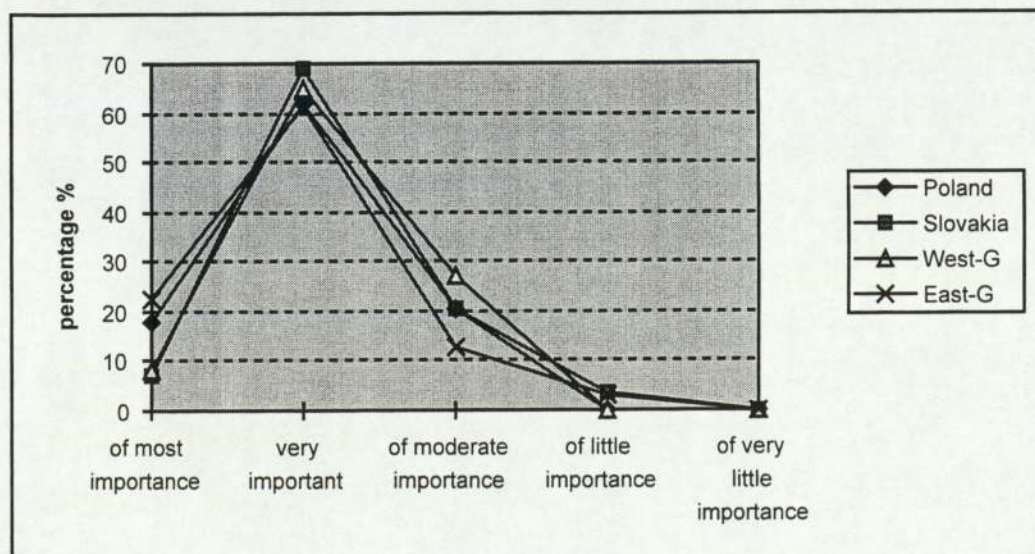
graph 12

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F 21 : Financial and material rewards are for me the most important incentives for taking on a job
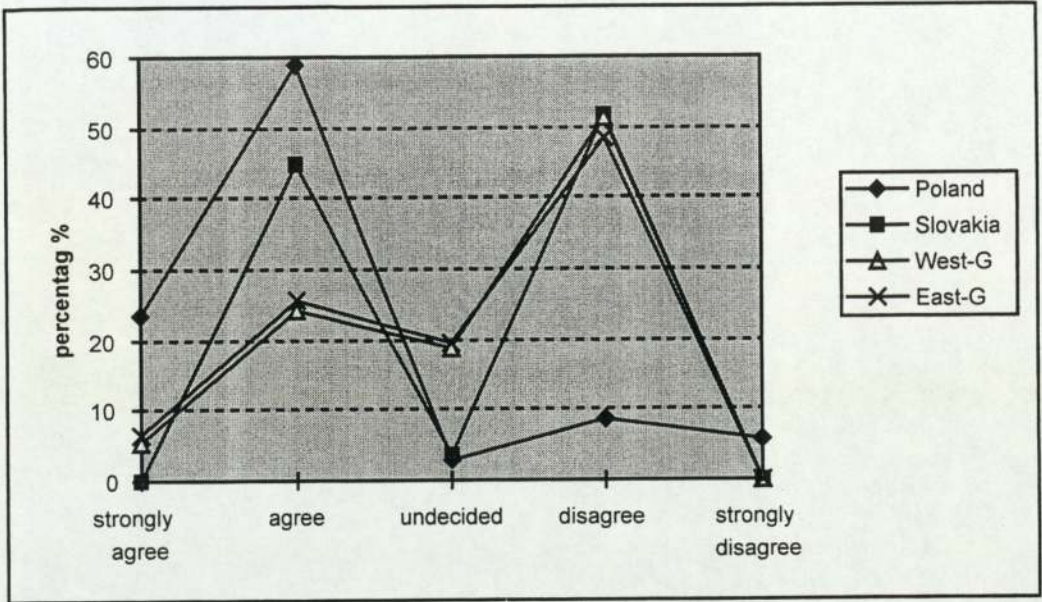
graph 13

According to graph 12 almost all employees in all regions are regarding the possibility of high earnings as an important factor.

But already when looking at answers given to question 21 there are clear differences in answering behaviour. In Poland 85% of employees feel that high earnings are the most important incentive for taking on a job. In Germany (East and West) people are holding an almost opposite opinion: Every second employee is rejecting money as the most important job incentive. Slovaks are in between these two extremes. Even though 45% of Slovaks agree that high earnings are an important incentive to take a job, 50% disagree with this opinion.
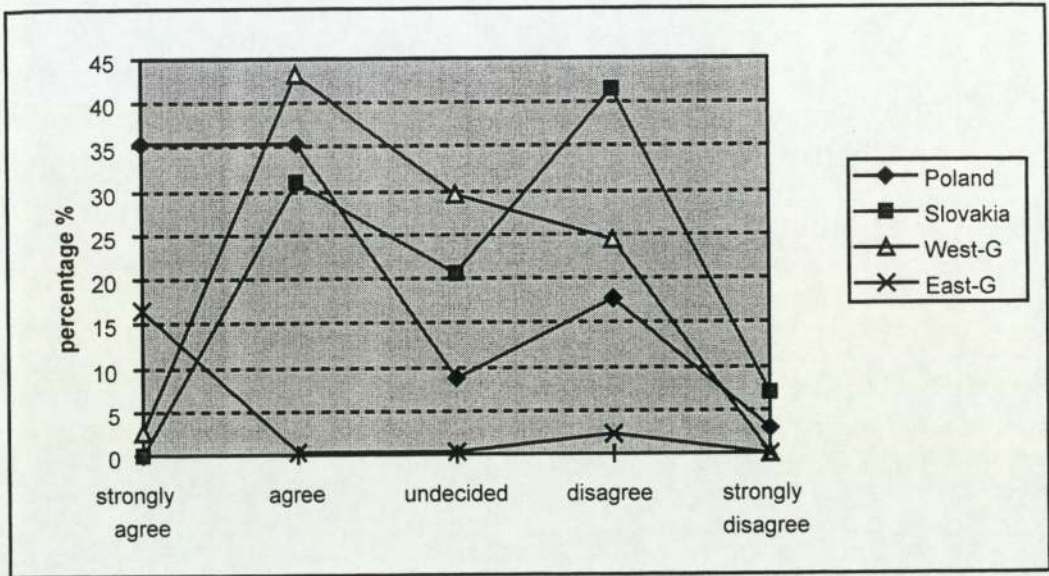
graph 14

Question 22 has examined the degree to which money can lead to inner satisfaction. Again, Poles are coming out extremely money-oriented : 70% regard the possession of money as a situation that gives them happiness and satisfaction. Slovaks are very critical in this respect : Every second employee in Slovakia does not consider money to be at all satisfying, 20% are undecided and only the remaining 30% (vs. 70% in Poland!) believe that money can make them happy in some way.

People in Germany share this more moderate attitude towards money. Although every second German employee interrogated considers money as something that makes happy and satisfies in some way there is a much smaller percentage of people who 'strongly' agree to this point than there is in Poland.

F 29 : I enjoy setting financial and material goals for my future economic security
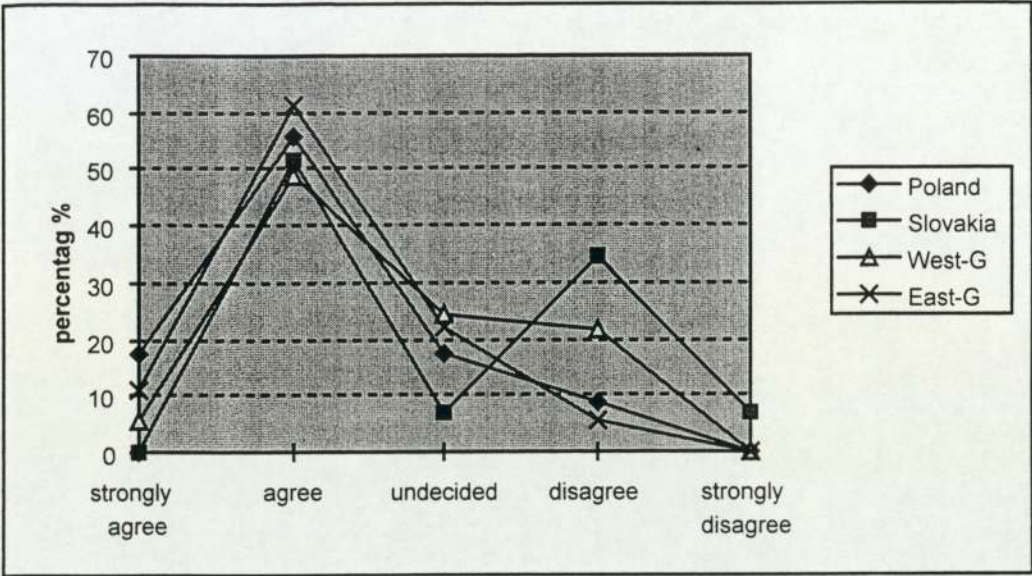
graph 15

Question 29 has looked at whether people interrogated like to imagine their own financial and material future and thus like thinking about money.

As was already observed for question 22, Poles and Slovaks are having contrasting opinions on this subject. While 70% of HENKEL-employees in Poland set themselves financial and material goals (almost 20% 'strongly' agree) there are only 50% of Slovaks agreeing to this (nobody 'strongly' agrees). Especially, the fact that 45% of Slovaks reject thinking about their own financial and material future manifests the difference between Poles and Slovaks.

In Germany there is a tendency to think difference about money and future economic security *as* in Poland.

Altogether, empirical results from this research show that people interrogated within the four European regions clearly have completely different attitudes towards money. Nevertheless, it is not possible to identify a difference between Eastern and Western Europe. Due to a strong backlog-demand one would expect money to be more important in all former communist countries. For Polish

employees interrogated, however, money has a much higher rank of importance than it has for Slovaks and East Germans. This apparently strong Polish materialism was confirmed by the study carried out by Schlese and Schramm (Schlese and Schramm, 1996).

Data indicate that it is not possible to attribute answering behaviour of Polish people to their privation of material goods under communism. After all, Slovaks and East Germans have experienced similar living conditions as Poles. They should consequently feel a similar backlog-demand. Still, relatively few Slovaks and East Germans share the materialist attitude of their geographic neighbour. If Polish materialism can, however, not be attributed to recent communist history it must be argued that materialism is a part of Polish mentality, rooting somewhere in this country's cultural heritage.[28]

All in all, the empirical data from this present research suggest that money or high income can serve as a motivator. This depends, however, on the region and its cultural heritage. The empirical data are therefore contrasting with conventional motivational theory by Maslow and Herzberg who stated that money can **generally** not be considered as a motivator.

The empirical data gained from the present study shows that there are differences in the valuation of money or financial reward across borders.
It is was thus shown that money and remuneration take different ranks of importance for people form different cultures.

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[28] In fact, this observation corresponds to the vernacular sayings which call Polish " the Dutch of the East" (for Dutch are known as good merchants). Another saying is that Polish are good merchants Czechs are good technicians. Finally, it should not be forgotten that Poland has always been a nation of merchants due to its geographical position between Russia and the Western European countries.

D.IV. Discussion of empirical findings 2 - factor analysis

Another approach to analyse the data won from HENKEL - employees has been to identify different types of general motivational characters. The question is whether motivation of employees can be explained by a limited number of traits or dimensional classifications and whether these motivational traits then differ across borders.[29] The following statistical and mathematical evaluations have attempted to illuminate this aspect:

First, a factor analysis was realised with all data won from 44 questions answered by HENKEL-employees from all geographical regions.[30] The goal of this factor analysis was to identify overall coherence of the motivational phenomenon and to identify items (factors) of explanatory power. The initial loading with 4 factors resulted in the identification of 17 items (questions) contributing little value to the explanation of the 4 factors (<0,4). They were therefore excluded from further analysis. A second, 3-factor loading led to the exclusion of a further 4 questions (<0,4). With 23 remaining items a final 3-factor loading was carried out. Figure 17 shows the factor scores of this third and final loading.

The distribution of items around the three factors shows a clear content coherence that was already present as such in the original questionnaire : remuneration, power and belongingness. As a result, it is be possible to describe or name the 3 factors as follows :

factor 1:   **the materialist**

he/she is motivated primarily through money and the side

effects of high income (such as recognition and prestige); in

the same time being liked by others is important for the

materialist

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[29] Hofstede, for example, explained the phenomenon of culture by identifying four stereotype characteristics or traits that may be found in every country, namely power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity and individualism.

[30] Questions concerning the employee's attitude towards HENKEL as well as personal data were excluded from the factor analysis.

factor 2:   **the power seeking person**

he/she is motivated by exercising power and being a leader; tasks can be demanding and risky

factor 3:   **the comrade**

he/she is motivated through affiliation, comradeship and good relations within the group; spending a lot of time with others is seen positively

question	item content[31]	factor 1[32]	factor 2	factor 3
F28	recognition	0,63233		
F21	money	0,56509		
F29	money	0,53309		
F22	money	0,51926		
F41	affiliation	0,51535		
F10	masculinity/money	0,51179		
F27	recognition/showing off	0,46957		
F17	masculinity/recognition	0,46403		
F40	affiliation/enjoying life	0,46367		
F33	control/autonomy of decision making	0,46102		
F11	masculinity/career opportunities	0,46087		
F16	individualism		0,52777	
F44	power		0,52606	
F43	power		0,51166	
F42	power		0,44918	
F15	uncertainty avoidance		-0,47103	

[31] Before the slash (/) is written the official term taken from literature for the respective item. Behind the slash is added a term representing more closely the content of the item.
[32] Those items with a factor score of less than 0,46 are excluded from consideration.

F36	belongingness	0,47168
F35	belongingness	0,46436
F12	individualism/personal free time	-0,46718

Fig. 17

Similar to what Hofstede did, an index has been developed and calculated for each of the three factors. This index gives an idea of the extent to which Polish, Germans, East - and West Germans are either materialists, power seeking comrades.

The index is calculated as the mean score of all answers given in the context of each factor [F] and within each region. However, all items are weighted by their factor score [g] (and thus the significance they have for explaining the factor). The total sum of weighted mean scores is then divided by the sum of all scores per factor [G]. The following formula summarise the mathematical procedure.

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questions : F1 - F44; weight : g1 - g44 (see fig. 17)

M1 =   {F28, F11, F43, F17, F29, F10, F25, F41, F22, F9, F18, F37, F6, F33, F42, F40, F31, F7}
M2 =   {F44, F16, F5, F21}
M3 =   {F27, F32, F26, F36, F12}

$G1 = \sum_{i\,M1} |gi| = 8,6323$ $G2 = \sum_{i\,M2} |gi| = 1,9380$

$G3 = \sum_{i\,M3} |gi| = 2,0539$

$\text{Index 1} = \sum_{i\,M1} (Fi \times gi) / G1] \times 100$

$\text{Index 2} = [\sum_{i\,M2} (Fi \times gi) / G2] \times 100$

$\text{Index 3} = \sum_{i\,M3} (Fi \times gi) / G3] \times 100$

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fig.18

Calculations generated motivation indices that correspond in their content to the results that were already discussed earlier in this paper:[33]

The materialist (factor 1)	
country	index score
Poland	214
Slovakia	267
East Germany	269
West Germany	276

fig. 19

As far as materialism is concerned, factor analysis has supported the leading position of Poles that was discussed earlier. And as was suggested as well, the gap between Poland and all other regions is considerable in this respect. West Germans being the most affluent people in the survey take the least materialist view. Slovaks are scoring higher on materialism than would have been expected from the analysis above.

The power seeking person (factor 2)	
Country	Index scores
East Germany	219
West Germany	244
Slovakia	251
Poland	295

fig.20

While fig. 19 suggests that Eastern Europeans are quite responsive to monetary incentives, Germans appear to be more attracted by positions of power where

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[33] It must be noted at this point that a small index result is corresponding to high factor relevance. If Slovakia has, for example, an index score of 79 on factor 3 while West Germans have an index score of 372, then this indicates that in contrast to West Germans, Slovaks are scoring extremely 'high' on 'comradeship'. The reason why low mathematical index scores are linked to high content importance is explained through the

they can exercise influence. Especially in East Germany the power motive seems to be widely spread. Surprisingly, index scores suggest more diversity between the regions concerning this factor than would have been expected from the graphical and Chi-Square-Value analysis .

The comrade (factor 3)	
country	index score
Slovakia	079
Poland	160
East Germany	167
West Germany	371

fig. 21

The term 'comrade' has been employed here to describe the dominance of the affiliation motive. The index scores generated from factor analysis strongly support earlier findings which indicate that West Germans are extremely group averse and have little link to the affiliation motive. In contrast, Slovaks highly value comradeship or positive group relations. As was seen also there is also a strong gap between East -and West Germans in this respect.

The distribution of results concerning all three factors shows that the motivational structure of HENKEL-employees differs considerably across borders. If one took the indices as valuable predictors for human motivation in the four territories, then one would conclude that Slovaks are mainly motivated by affiliation and positive group relations, Poles by money and Germans by positions of power and control. In fact, these results confirm the earlier and more detailed findings discussed above. They also support the view that human motivation is a phenomenon that differs across borders. Motivational systems should therefore be sensible to national culture and the motivational structures that dominate in one or the other

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set-up of the questionnaire where low numbers ('1' and '2') corresponded to positive answering behaviour ('strongly agree' or 'agree').

country. Standard or universal recipes on how to make people act in one desired way do not exist.

D.V. Conclusion on empirical results

A thorough analysis of empirical data has shown that HENKEL-employees from the four European regions are differing in almost all respects investigated (achievement motive, affiliation motive, leadership expectations, remuneration). As far as the power motive is concerned, graphical interpretations and Chi-Square values suggest regional similarities. Factor analysis, however, questions this point.

The empirical findings allow us to conclude that HENKEL-employees are distinct from each other. Slovaks welcome authoritative and patriarchal leadership behaviour of their superiors while West Germans reject this behaviour. A clear cultural separation exists in respect to values of friendship and group-belongingness. While West Germans appear to be extremely group averse Eastern Europeans are very much in favour of group integration and positive relations. Finally, opinions vary concerning remuneration and the importance of money. Here, Polish employees have proved to be extremely materialistic; a phenomenon which even seems to be an exception among formerly communist countries.

The findings of this present study thus show that human needs at the source of human motivation vary across country -and cultural borders. Taken seriously, they suggest that motivational systems should therefore also differ from one country to another; respecting these different needs and ways of feeling across borders. With this, the limits of conventional motivational theory as it has been formulated by Herzberg, Maslow and McClelland are displayed as well.

Finally, the empirical findings may serve, to some extend, to comment on cross-cultural organisational theory such as the societal effect approach and Hofstede's 'Culture's Consequences'. The present findings on leadership, for example, seem to support the societal effect model. The data have shown that West Germans are preferring a very democratic managerial environment and that, in contrast to the other regions, they want to be consulted on important decisions. This very

liberal, democratic and progressive attitude is remarkable, because originally (until World War II) Germany was highly marked by so-called Wilhelminien values such as obedience, discipline, subordination, loyalty etc. (Klages, 1984). Yet, since the 'hour zero' West Germany in particular has experienced strong institutional, educational and administrative changes that are marked by a liberal and democratic thinking, a strong sense for equality and a readiness for conflict resolution. This institutional -or 'system' environment seems to have influenced the West German HENKEL respondents in such a way that they have different leadership expectations today than they would have probably expressed fifty years ago. This institutional 'argument' for West German answering behaviour would support the view of the societal effect scholars.

The answering behaviour of West Germans in this context must also be viewed in comparison to East Germans. If systems and institutions were to influence actors in the way suggested by the societal effect scholars, then the socialist system that governed in the former GDR should have influenced East Germans in a different direction and manner than was the case for West Germans.[34] In fact, East Germans - who have experienced the communist system - do not express such strongly participative and liberal leadership expectations as their Western colleagues. Different institutional influences and leadership practices in East -and West Germany over the last 50 years seem to have superimposed the originally equal cultural roots in the Wilhelmenian value system. The importance of institutional and 'system' influences proposed by the societal effect model thus seems to confirm itself.

The question is whether this institutional argument can be confirmed also by other findings of this present research work. For this it might be of some interest to investigate the data won on affiliation and values of friendship. As was pointed out earlier, East Germans differ from the Slavs, Poles and Slovaks, in the relative

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[34] German HENKEL-employees from the East and from the West who filled out the questionnaire have been born into and raised either in the socialist or in the capitalist environment of the former FRG or GDR. Having been subject to completely different institutional environments (in which most of them have worked for at least 20 years) the answers given by East -and West Germans should therefore differ remarkable, if the societal effect argument was to hold true.

strength of the affiliation motive; and this regardless of their common political and institutional history. Looking at Rank sums calculated for the affiliation factor 3 entitled 'the comrade' and listed in appendix 3 it is also statistically justifiable to state that East Germans do not share the affiliation motive to the same degree as do Eastern Europeans.[35] It thus seems as if the 'systems' influence and the socialist way of thinking as a community has not had such a strong impact on East Germans as might be suggested from a societal effect perspective. As was also said already earlier, the German cultural heritage might perhaps be at the origin of East Germans differing answering behaviour in comparison to Slavs. Yet, comparing East -and West Germans in this same respect of affiliation Germans are also differing among themselves (see figure 21 and graphs 8 - 11). As well common cultural roots therefore do not seem to provide the exclusive answer for the divergence of the affiliation motive across borders (as might be suggested by Hofstede who would have argued that Eastern Europeans are more collectivists than are Germans).

All in all, neither institutionalist nor ideationalist arguments seem to be able to explain the position of East Germans concerning affiliation. The author of this present thesis therefore wants to propose a compromise between the institutional and ideationalist perspective on culture. This compromise is combining the 'Actors-system Configuration' defended by Sorge (Sorge, 1995, p.106) and the model of cultural patterns described by Hofstede (Hofstede, 1984, p.22). Figure 22 demonstrates the idea.

If 'SOCIETAL NORMS' are held by 'actors' and 'CONSEQUENCES' are manifested in systems, then the model suggests that systems **can** influence actors, **but do not have to in all cases**. Values that have a high degree of individual subjectivity (such as the affiliation motive or the power motive) may be the subject of institutional influences only in a very limited way or not at all. Other societal norms such as leadership expectations may by more system-bound.

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[35] Rank sums or Wilcoxon scores investigate statistically whether countries are significantly differing within each factor dimension. If rank sum [Z] < 0,005, then index scores between two countries are varying considerably across the borders of these two countries; regional answers have definitely been distinct from each other as far as the respective factor is concerned.
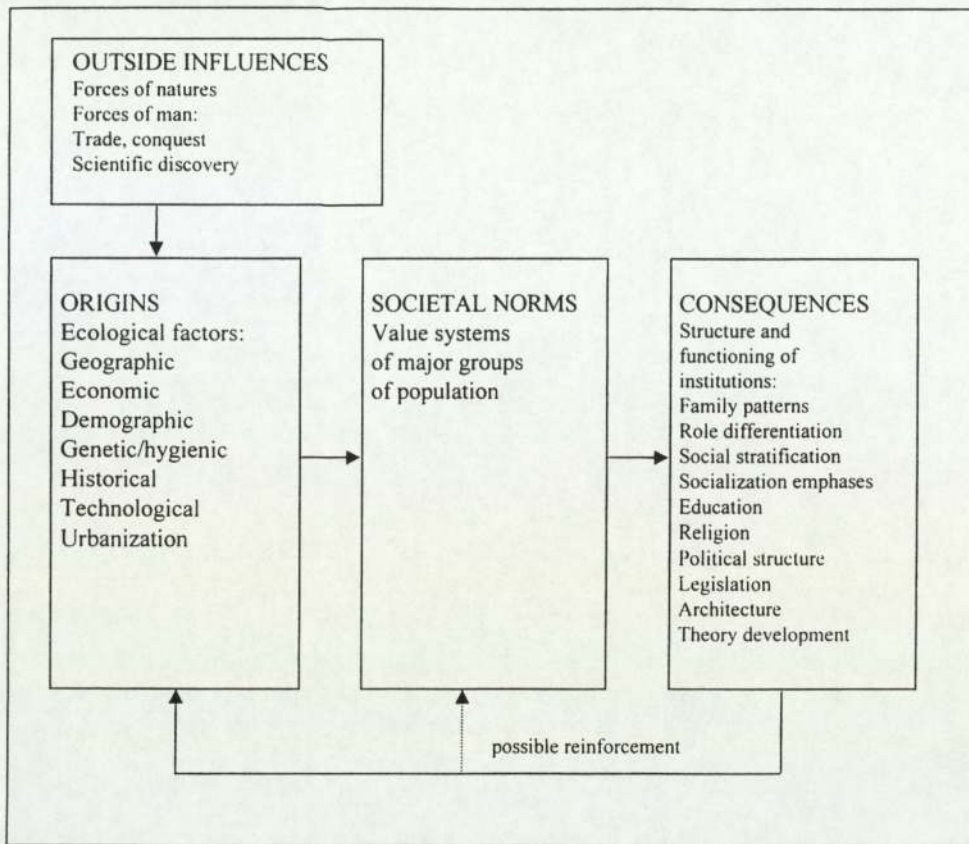
fig. 22 Model of Cultural Patterns; G.Hofstede, Culture's Consequences, 1984a, p.22

Taking all results together, the author of this present thesis believes that cultural forces are playing an important role in the value system of people and the societal effect model might underestimate them if it considers them only to be 'indirect and additive'. The great cross-cultural diversity of motivational preferences and patterns that were demonstrated in this study and that were shown to exist despite common institutional-communist influences in Eastern Europe may support this opinion.

E. Conclusion

We are working in yesterday's structures with today's methods on tomorrow's problems with people who have built yesterday's structures in cultures of the day before yesterday and who will not survive the day after tomorrow their enterprise. (Calzaferri)

How are multinational companies to deal with this dilemma?

One key to make the best out of the situation described by Calzaferri is certainly to maintain a staff of employees that is highly motivated. For it is the motivation of employees that determines whether these will make an effort to give up yesterday's structures and to adapt them to today's circumstances. It is their motivation which determines whether they will carry responsibility for the day after tomorrow in the company and prepare the structure of their enterprise for the future. Motivation is thus a key competence of organisations that are globally powerful and successful in the long run.

The present work has shown that the validity of those motivational theories which are the most popular ones and the most well known ones in practice today are very limited. Seen from an international or cross-cultural perspective they fail to address employees' needs as they fail to respect their culture. One reason for this is that 'culture' has never been considered as an important variable for the functional context of employee motivation. For future research in the area of employee motivation it is therefore vital to respect, from the beginning, employee's cultural background and heritage. For multinational companies, there is a need to develop cross-culturally valid and psychologically founded standardised concepts of motivation. These concepts should then allow companies to identify and address those needs and motivational traits that are dominant among employees in one country. Motivational systems should be flexible as well as adaptable to the respective culture of foreign countries. This is what the present research work suggests.

It might be discussed at this point whether an increased convergence of cultures will not lead, in the future, to the same motivational patterns and needs in all countries. The convergence argument is based on the believe that the global development and influence of media and telecommunications, increased travel across borders, transnational trade -and political unions etc. will lead to one common culture. Is thus the idea of culturally adapted management systems (and motivational systems) already outdated? Will not those universal management solutions be sufficient to resolve problems that are going to be the same everywhere for people that are going to be the same everywhere?

Especially, observations collected in Eastern Europe for this present study question whether convergence of cultures will take place to such a degree as proposed by some scholars. After all, Eastern Europe has already lived through a period where one common political power has imposed one equal economic and societal system on all nations. Institutions, education, politics and propaganda were standardised in all Eastern European countries and frequent exchange of goods across borders made people from one nation constantly interact with other nations. Still, the results of this present research work and also personal observations of the author of this present thesis prove that there are tremendous differences between Eastern European people. The personal opinion of the author is therefore that the convergence argument also in a wider geographical context is probably a very remote one.

Another question the author wants to raise is whether motivation is at all a phenomenon that can ever be resolved efficiently in a company context. Even though this present thesis has shown the drawbacks of conventional motivational models and attempted to develop some sensibility for the cultural dependency of the motivational phenomenon it is questionable whether cultural sensibility will be the 'key' to make people act in the way desired (this was suggested in the introductory pages of this work by Alpander and Carter). It is questionable whether 'motivation systems' are not overestimated as an organisational management tool. As Sprenger points out (Sprenger, 1994, p.44) in his best-selling title 'The myth of motivation' (Sprenger, 1994), company practice (reality!)

does not correspond to the theoretically ideal argument that 'identified need + corresponding incentive = desired action'. In contrast, it should not be forgotten that motivation of employees is also the result of a magnitude of the most diverse influences and circumstances that have nothing to do with the company context (Sprenger, 1994, p.29). In addition to this, it is extremely difficult to identify the true needs of an individual and to learn about the origins of his/her actions. Here, Seneca already remarked:

Everybody knows that there is something that makes his decisions move; what it is, however, he does not know. He also knows that there is a driving force within him; of what kind it is and where it comes from yet he does not know. (Seneca)

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APPENDIX 1
(questions)

Questionnaire

1. How often, in your experience, does the following problem occur : employees being afraid to express disagreement with their managers ?

> always
> usually
> sometimes
> seldom
> never

2. How often do you feel nervous or tense at work ?

> always
> usually
> sometimes
> seldom
> never

The description below applys to four different types of management. First, please read through these descriptions :

Manager 1: Usually makes decisions promptly and communicates them to his subordinates clearly and firmly. Expects them to carry out the decisions loyally and without raising difficulties.

Manager 2: Usually makes his decisions promptly, but, before going ahead, tries to explain them fully to his subordinates. Gives them the reason for the decision and answers whatever questions they may have.

Manager 3: Usually consults with his subordinates before he reaches his decisions. Listens to their advice, considers it, and then announces this decision. He then expects all to work loyally to implement it whether or not it is in accordance with the advice they gave.

Manager 4: Usually calls a meeting of his subordinates when there is an important decision to be made. Puts the problem before the group and invites discussion. Accepts the majority viewpoint as the decision.

3. Now, for the above types of manager, please mark the one which you would prefer to work with.

        Manager 1
        Manager 2
        Manager 3
        Manager 4

4. And to which one of the above four types of managers would you say your own superior most closely correstonds ?

        Manager 1
        Manager 2
        Manager 3
        Manager 4

The following questions from 5-17 must be answered by :

    (1) of most importance
    (2) very important
    (3) of moderate importance
    (4) of little importance
    (5) of very little importance

Please think of an ideal job - disregarding your present job. In choosing an ideal job, how important would it be to you to... :

5. Have a good working relationship with your direct superior?

   (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

6. Have considerable freedom to adopt your own approach to the job?

7. Have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lightening, adequate workspace)

8. Work with people who cooperate well with one another?

9. Have the possiblilty to fully use your work skills and abilities on the job?

10. Have an opportunity for high earnings?

11. Have an opportunity for advancement to higher level jobs?

12. Have sufficient time left for your personal life?

13. Have training possiblilities?

14. Have security of employment?

15. Have little stress and tension on the job?

16. Have challenging tasks to do form which you can get a personal sense of accomplishment?

17. Get recognition you deserve when you do a good job?

The following questions from 18-44 must be answered by :

      (1) strongly agree
      (2) agree
      (3) undecided
      (4) disagree
      (5) strongly disagree

18. I do not mind to take on positions of power and responsibility even if there is a higher risk attached to them.

19. It is important for a manager to have at hand precise answers to most of the questions that his subordinates may raise about their work.

20. When the respective roles of the members of a department become complex, detailed job descriptions are a useful way of claryfying.

21. Financial and material rewards are for me the most important incentives for taking on a job.

22. Money for me is not only a necessary mean to survive but also something that makes me happy or satisfies me in any other way.

23. Sometimes, I like influencing people and make them think the way I do.

24. A company's or organisation's rules should not be broken - even when the emplyee thinks it is in the organization's best interest.

25. I seek out positions of authority.

26. I feel that it is often more wise to act the way friends and close colleagues expect me to than to do what I feel is right and conveniant to me.

27. Sometimes, I like to display symbols of my success.

28. I welcome assignments that provide a lot of recognition.

29. I enjoy setting financial or material goals for my future economic security.

30. I want ot feel that what I am doing is making a contribution to others.

31. I feel that positive contributions one makes to the company should be openly appreciated.

32. If I had the choice, I'd rather take on a position that provides me with a lot of recognition and a slightly smaller remuneration than getting a lot of money and receiving no recognition.

33. In a work situation I generally like to make my own decisions rather than taking orders.

34. I feel that one carries not only responsibility for him or herself, but, to a certain extend, for society as a whole.

35. I try to avoid behaviour that would set me apart from my group. (need to belong)

36. I desire sociability and harmonious relationships within the groups I am a part of (need to belong)

37. I often set difficult goals for myself, which I attempt to reach.

38. I enjoy periods of relaxation wholeheartedly only when I have the feeling that I have completed a substantial piece of work before.

39. I enjoy work as much as play.

40. I am in my element when I am with a group of people who enjoy life.

41. I become emotionally very attached to my friends.

42. I enjoy organising or directing activities of a group - no matter if in a team, club or in a committee.

43. I usually influence others more than they influence me.

44. I feel that I can dominate a social situation.

45. Do you think that Henkel is an attractive company to work for ?

46. Are you :
         male
         female

47. How old are you ?

48. How many years of formal education did you receive altogether (from your first year of school on)?

49. What is your nationality?

50. What is your work description?

in the case of Poland and Slowakia the following 2 questions were added:

51. Do you think that with the opening of your country to the Western World things are changing to the better ?

52. Do you think it would have been better to maintain certain aspects of the former working environment ?

Fragebogen *(german)*

	immer	normalerweise	manchmal	selten	niemals
1. Wie oft taucht Ihrer Erfahrung nach folgendes Problem auf: Angestellte fürchten sich, ihr Nichtübereinstimmen mit ihren Vorgesetzten auszudrücken?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Wie oft fühlen Sie sich am Arbeitsplatz nervös oder gestreßt?	1	2	3	4	5

Die untere Beschreibung bezieht sich auf vier verschiedene Managementformen. Bitte lesen sie zuerst diese Beschreibungen durch

Manager 1 : Normalerweise trifft er unverzueglich seine Entscheidungen und teilt sie seinen Mitarbeitern klar und direkt mit. Er erwartet, daß sie seine Entscheidungen loyal durchführen, ohne Schwierigkeiten zu machen.

Manager 2 : Normalerweise trifft er unverzueglich seine Entscheidungen aber bevor er sie weiterleitet, versucht er sie seinen Angestellten vollständig zu erklären. Er gibt ihnen den Grund für seine Entscheidung an und antwortet auf alle auftauchenden Fragen.

Manager 3 : Normalerweise berät er mit seinen Angestellten bevor er eine Entscheidung trifft. Er hört auf ihrer Ratschläge, bedenkt sie und verkündet dann seine Entscheidung. Er erwartet daraufhin von allen die getreue Umsetzung des Entschußes unabhängig davon, ob dieser in Übereinstimmung ist mit dem einbezogenen Rat.

Manager 4 : Normalerweise beruft er ein Treffen mit seinen Mitarbeitern ein, wenn es darum geht, eine wichtige Entscheidung zu treffen. Er konfrontiert die Gruppe mit dem Problem und fordert zur Diskussion auf. Er akzeptiert die mehrheitliche Sichtweise als gültige Entscheidung.

3. Jetzt markieren Sie bitte denjenigen der obenstehenden Managertypen, mit dem Si bevorzugt arbeiten würden:

   Manager 1
   Manager 2
   Manager 3
   Manager 4

1

4. Und welchem der vier Managertypen entspricht Ihrer Meinung nach Ihr eigener Vorgesetzter am ehesten?

        Manager 1
        Manager 2
        Manager 3
        Manager 4

Bitte denken Sie jetzt an einen idealen Arbeitsplatz - unabhängig von Ihrem derzeitigen Bei der Wahl eines idealen Arbeitsplatzes, wie wichtig wäre es für Sie, ... :

	von besonderer Wichtigkeit	sehr wichtig	von bescheidener Wichtigkeit	von geringer Wichtigkeit	von sehr geringer Wichtigkeit
5. ...ein gutes Arbeitsverhältnis mit Ihrem direkt Vorgesetzten zu haben ?	1	2	3	4	5
6. ...eine erhebliche Freiheit zu haben, um Ihren eigenen Angang an die Arbeit anzunehmen ?	1	2	3	4	5
7. ...unter guten physischen Arbeitsbedingungen zu arbeiten (gute Belüftung und Lichtverhältnisse, angebrachter Platz) ?	1	2	3	4	5
8. ...mit Leuten zu arbeiten, die gut miteinander kooperieren ?	1	2	3	4	5
9. ...die Möglichkeit zu haben, Ihre Arbeitsfertigkeiten -und Fähigkeiten voll auszunutzen ?	1	2	3	4	5
10. ...die Möglichkeit hoher Einkünfte zu haben?	1	2	3	4	5
11. ...die Möglichkeit von Aufstiegschancen zu haben ?	1	2	3	4	5
12. ...genügend Zeit für Ihr persönliches Leben übrig zu haben ?	1	2	3	4	5

2

	von besonderer Wichtigkeit	sehr wichtig	von bescheidener Wichtigkeit	von geringer Wichtigkeit	von sehr geringer Wichtigkeit
13. ...Weiterbildungsmöglichkeiten zu haben ?	1	2	3	4	5
14. ...einen gesicherten Arbeitsplatz zu haben ?	1	2	3	4	5
15. ...wenig Spannung und Streß am Arbeitsplatz zu haben ?	1	2	3	4	5
16. ...herausfordernde Aufgaben zu erledigen, von denen Sie ein Gefühl persönlicher Befriedigung ziehen können ?	1	2	3	4	5
17. ...die verdiehnte Anerkennung zu bekommen, wenn sie eine gute Arbeit leisten?	1	2	3	4	5

	stimme voll zu	stimme zu	bin unentschlossen	stimme nicht zu	stimme ueberhaupt nicht zu
18. Es macht mir nichts aus, Posititionen anzunehmen, die Macht und Verantwortung bedeuten, selbst wenn ein höheres Risiko mit ihnen verbunden ist.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Es ist wichtig für einen Manager, präzise Antworten auf die meisten Fragen bereit zu haben, die ihm seine Untergeordneten bezüglich ihrer Arbeit stellen könnten.	1	2	3	4	5

3

	stimme voll zu	stimme zu	bin unentschlossen	stimme nicht zu	stimme ueberhaupt nicht zu

20. Wenn die jeweilige Rolle eines Abteilungsmitglieds komplex wird, ist eine detaillierte Stellen - beschreibunge ein nützlicher Weg, um Klarheit zu schaffen.

	1	2	3	4	5

21. Finanzielle und materielle Belohnungen sind für mich der wichtigste Anreiz, einen Arbeitsplatz anzunehmen.

	1	2	3	4	5

22. Geld ist für mich nicht nur eine notwendiges Mittel zum Überleben, sondern etwas, was mich glücklich macht und mich irgendwie befriedigt.

	1	2	3	4	5

23. Manchmal mag ich es, Leute zu beeinflussen und so denken zu lassen, wie ich es tue.

	1	2	3	4	5

24. Die Regeln eines Unternehmens oder einer Organisation sollten nicht gebrochen werden - selbst wenn der Angestellte denkt, daß dies im besten Interesse der Organisation ist.

	1	2	3	4	5

25. Ich strebe nach Positionen mit Autorität.

	1	2	3	4	5

26. Ich empfinde, daß es oft klüger ist, so zu handeln, wie Freunde und nahestehende Kollegen es von mir erwarten als das zu tun, was ich für richtig und günstig halte.

	1	2	3	4	5

27. Manchmal genieße ich es, Symbole meines Erfolgs öffentlich zu zeigen.

	1	2	3	4	5

28. Ich begrüße Aufgaben, die mit viel Anerkennung verbunden sind.

	1	2	3	4	5

29. Ich mag mir gerne finanzielle und materielle Ziele für meine zukünftige wirtschaftliche Sicherheit setzen.

	1	2	3	4	5

4

	stimme voll zu	stimme zu	bin unentschieden	stimme nicht zu	stimme überhaupt nicht zu
30. Ich möchte das Gefühl haben, daß das was ich mache einen Beitrag gegenüber anderen leistet.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Ich empfinde, dass positive Beiträge, die jemand im Unternehmen leistet öffentlich anerkannt werden sollten.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Wenn ich die Wahl hätte, würde ich eher eine Position annehmen, die mich mit viel Anerkennung auszeichnet und einem etwas geringeren Gehalt, als sehr viel Geld zu verdiehnen und wenig Anerkennung zu haben.	1	2	3	4	5
33. In einer Arbeitssituation treffe ich generell gerne meine eigenen Entscheidungen, anstatt Anweisungen anzunehmen.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Ich empfinde, dass man nicht nur Verantwortung gegenüber sich selbst hat, sondern, in einem gewissen Rahmen, gegenüber der Gesellschaft als ganzes.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Ich versuche Verhalten zu vermeiden, welches mich von der Gruppe unterscheiden könnte.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Ich wünsche mir Geselligkeit und harmonische Beziehungen innerhalb einer Gruppe zu der ich gehöre.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Ich setze mir selbst oft hohe Ziele, die ich versuche zu erreichen.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Ich genieße Erhohlungsphasen nur dann völlig, wenn ich das Gefühl habe, vorher ein anständiges Stück arbeit geleistet zu habe.	1	2	3	4	5
39. Ich genieße die Arbeit ebenso sehr wie das Spiel.	1	2	3	4	5

5

	stimme voll zu	stimme zu	bin unentschieden	stimme nicht zu	stimme überhaupt nicht zu
40. Ich bin in meinem vollen Element, wenn ich mich mit einer Gruppe von Leuten befinde, die das Leben genießen.	1	2	3	4	5
41. Ich binde mich gefühlsmäßig sehr stark an meine Freunde.	1	2	3	4	5
42. Ich genieße es, die Aktivitäten einer Gruppe zu organisieren oder zu leiten - egal ob im Team, im Club oder in einem Komitee.	1	2	3	4	5
43. Ich beeinfluße andere oft mehr als sie mich.	1	2	3	4	5
44. Ich empfinde, daß ich eine Situation sozialer Art dominieren kann.	1	2	3	4	5

45. Denken Sie, daß Henkel ein attraktiver Arbeitgeber ist?

        Ja, unbedingt
        Ja, wahrscheinlich
        Ich bin nicht sicher
        Nein, wahrscheinlich nicht
        Nein, ueberhaupt nicht

46. Denken Sie, daß sich mit der Öffnung Ihres Landes zur westlichen Welt die Dinge zum besseren entwickeln?

        Ja, unbedingt
        Ja, wahrscheinlich
        Ich bin nicht sicher
        Nein, wahrscheinlich nicht
        Nein, überhaupt nicht

47. Denken Sie, daß es gut gewesen wäre einige Aspekte der ursprünglichen Arbeitsumstände aufrecht zu erhalten?

48. Wie alt sind sie ?

49. Sind Sie

        # männlich
        # weiblich

50. Wieviele Jahre haben Sie insgesamt an Ausbildung (einschließlich Grundschule) erfahren?

51. Welche Staatsbürgerschaft tragen Sie?

KWESTIONARIUSZ *(Polish)*

Droga Pani / Drogi Panie,

Bardzo prosimy o poswiecenie 3-5 minut na wypelnienie ponizszego anonimowego kwestionariusza. Bedzie to dla nas bardzo pomocne.

Serdecznie dziekujemy !

1. Jak czesto Pani/Pana zdaniem pracownicy boja sie powiedziec, ze nie zgadzaja sie z szefem ?

(a)   zawsze
(b)   zwykle
(c)   czasami
(d)   rzadko
(e)   nigdy

2. Jak czesto czuje sie Pani/Pan zdenerwowana(y) lub pod napieciem w trakcie pracy ?

(a)   zawsze
(b)   zwykle
(c)   czasami
(d)   rzadko
(e)   nigdy

3. Ponizszy opis odnosi sie do czterech roznych sposobow "szefowania". Prosimy o ich przeczytanie :

Szef 1:Zwykle podejmuje decyzje szybko i przekazuje je swoim pracownikom jasno i stanowczo. Oczekuje, ze beda wykonywac swoje zadania lojalnie i dokladnie.

Szef 2:Zwykle podejmuje swoje decyzje szybko, przy czym stara sie dokladnie je wyjasnic swoim podwladnym. Tlumaczy im powody podjecia takiej wlasnie decyzji i chetnie odpowiada na zadawane pytania.

Szef 3:Zwykle naradza sie ze swoimi podwladnymi zanim podejmie decyzje. Wysluchuje ich punkt widzenia i bierze go pod uwage podejmujac ostateczna decyzie. Nastepnie oczekuje od nich lojalnego wykonania polecenia niezaleznie od tego czy bylo wydane zgodnie z ich zdaniem czy nie.

Szef 4:Gdy zachodzi koniecznosc podjecia waznej decyzji zwykle zwoluje
zebranie ze swoimi podwladnymi. Przedstawia problem podwladnym i prosi
ich o wyrazenie zdania. Punkt widzenia wiekszosci akceptuje jako decyzje.

Teraz prosze zaznaczyc z ktorym z powyzszych typow Szefa Pan/Pani wolalby
pracowac.

Szef 1
Szef 2
Szef 3
Szef 4

4. A ktory z powyzszych opisow najbardziej pasuje do Pani/Pana obecnego
szefa ?

Szef 1
Szef 2
Szef 3
Szef 4

Pytania 5 - 17

Prosze wyobrazic sobie idealna prace - nie biorac pod uwage swojej obecnej
Jak wazne bylyby dla Pani /Pana cechy pracy , aby mozna ja nazwac idealna?

(1) ogromnie wazne
(2) bardzo wazne
(3) srednio wazne
(4) malo wazne
(5) bardzo malo wazne

5. Bycie w dobrych stosunkach ze swoim bezposrednim przelozonym -
    (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

6. Spora dowolnosc w wybraniu wlasnego podejscia do pracy -
    (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

7. Dobre warunki BHP (dobra wentylacja i swiatlo, odpowiednia ilosc miejsca
-
    (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

8. Znalezienie sie w zespole osob, ktore potrafia dobrze ze soba wspolpracowa
-
    (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

9. Mozliwosc pelnego wykorzystania swoich umiejetnosci i zdolnosci -
    (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

10. Mozliwosc wysokich zarobkow -
    (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

11. Mozliwosc awansu -
    (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

12. Wystarczajaca ilosc czasu na zycie osobiste -
    (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

13. Mozliwosc dalszego szkolenia sie -
    (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

14. Pewnosc dalszego/ciaglego zatrudnienia -
    (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

15. Malo napiecia i stresu w pracy -
    (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

16. Otrzymywanie trudnych polecen, ktorych wykonanie dostarcza duzo satysfakcji -
    (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

17. Odpowiednie uznanie za dobra prace -
    (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

Pytania 18-44

Przy odpowiadaniu na ostatnia serie pytan prosze wybrac jedna z nastepujacych mozliwosci :

        (1) absolutnie tak
        (2) w zasadzie tak
        (3) nie mam zdania / nie wiem
        (4) w zasadzie nie
        (5) absolutnie nie

18. Nie mam nic przeciwko przyjmowaniu funkcji i zadan zwiazanych z duza odpowiedzialnoscia (nawet wtedy gdy wiaze sie to z ryzykiem) -
    (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

19. Wazne jest, aby szef posiadal gotowe odpowiedzi na wiekszosc pytan ktore podwladni moga mu zadawac w zwiazku z praca -
    (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

20. Gdy zespol pracownikow otrzymuje trudne zadanie do wykonania, szczegolowy przydzial czynnosci wyjasnia sytuacje i czyni zadanie latwiejszym -
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

21. Wynagrodzenie finansowe to najwazniejsza zacheta przy wybieraniu pracy-
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

22. Pieniadze sa dla mnie nie tylko srodkiem koniecznym do zycia, ale takze czyms co daje mi radosc i satysfakcje samo przez sie -
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

23. W niektorych sytuacjach lubie wywierac wplyw na ludzi i powodowac aby przyjmowali moj punkt widzenia -
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

24. Regul zwiazanych z organizacja pracy nie powinno sie lamac, nawet wtedy gdy pracownik sadzi ze byloby to w interesie firmy -
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

25. Chcialabym/chcialbym sprawowac stanowisko zwiazane z wladza -
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5

26. Wydaje mi sie, ze czesto bardziej rozsadnie jest zachowac sie tak jak przyjaciele i bliscy koledzy z pracy oczekuja ode mnie, aniezeli zrobic to co jest dla mnie wygodne i co uwazam za sluzne -
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

27. Czasami lubie pokazywac symbole swjego sukcesu -
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

28. Lubie zadania ktorych wykonanie przynosi wiele uznania ze strony innych -
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

29. Sprawia mi przyjemnosc stawianie sobie zadan majacych na celu materialne zabezpieczenie sobie przyszlosci -
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

30. Chce miec poczucie, ze to co robie przynosi pozytek innym -
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

31. Uwazam, ze w zakladzie pracy dobre pomysly racjonalizatorskie powinny spotykac sie z otwartym i oficjalnym uznaniem -
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

32. Gdybym mogla/mogl wybrac to wolal/a/bym stanowisko, ktore dawalo mi bedzie wiele unania ze strony ludzi a troche mniejsza place, aniezeli takie ktore przynosilo bedzie duzo pieniedzy i malo uznania -
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

33. W pracy zwykle wole raczej podejmowac decyzje sama/sam, niz wykonywac polecenia -
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

34. Uwazam, ze odpowiedzialni jestesmy nie tylko za siebie, lecz takze do pewnego stopnia za cale spoleczenstwo -
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

35. Staram sie unikac takiego zachowania, ktore moglo by pogorszyc moje stosunki z kolegami -
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

36. Zalezy mi na dobrych stosunkach z grupa do ktorej naleze -
(1)   (2)   (3)   , (4)   (5)

37. Stawiam sobie trudne cele, ktore postaram sie osiagnac.
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

38. Najbardziej odpoczywam tylko kiedz pomyslnie wykonam wazna prace.
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

39. Praca sprawia mi taka przyjemnosc jak zabawa.
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

40. Czuje sie jak ryba w wodzie kiedy jestem z grupa ludzi, ktorzy ciesza sie zyciem.
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

41. Bardzo przywiazuje sie do moich przyjaciol.
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

42. Lubie organizowac zajecia i przewodniczyc grupom takim jak zespol, klub albo stowarzyszenie.
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

43. Zwykle mam wiekszy wplyw na innych ludzi niz oni na mnie.
(1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

44. Czuje, ze potrafie dominowac w towanystwie.
    (1)   (2)   (3)   (4)   (5)

45. Czy sadzi Pani/Pan, ze Henkel jest na tyle aktrakcyjna firma iz warto w niej pracowac -

Tak, absolutnie tak sadze
Prawdopodobnie tak
Nie jestem pewien
Prawdopodobnie nie
Nie sadze

46. Czy uwaza Pani/Pan, ze w wyniku otwarcia sie Polski na Zachod sytuacja w kraju zmienia sie na lepsze -

Tak, absolutnie tak sadze
Prawdopodobnie tak
Nie jestem pewien
Prawdopodobnie nie
Nie sadze

47. Czy sadzi Pani/Pan, ze przy zachodzacych zmianach byloby dobrze zachowac pewne cechy aktualnych stosunkow w pracy ?

Tak, absolutnie tak sadze
Prawdopodobnie tak
Nie jestem pewien
Prawdopodobnie nie
Nie sadze39. Ile ma Pani/Pan lat ?

48. Ile ma Pani/Pan lat ?

49. Prosze podac swoja plec
        (a) mezczyzna
        (b) kobieta

50. Przez ile lat uczeszczal/a/ Pani/Pan do szkoly (wlaczajac szkole podstawowa i ew. studia wyzsze) -

51. Jaki rodzaj pracy Pani/Pan wykonuje ?

Bardzo dziekujemy !

Dotaznik (Slovakia)

	vzdy	zvycajne	niekedy	zriedka	nikdy
1. Ako casto sa podla vasej skusenosti vyskytuje nasledujuci problem: zamestnanci sa obavaju vyslovit nesuhlas so svojimi nadriadenymi?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Ako casto sa citite v praci nervozny alebo napaty?	1	2	3	4	5

V nasledujucom su popisane styri rozne typy manazerov. Najprv si prosim precitajte tieto popisy:

manazer 1: Zvycajne sa rozhoduje promptne a zadava svoje rozhodnutia jasne a presvedcivo. Ocakava, ze tieto rozhodnutia sa budu plnit loajalne a bez dalsich komplikacii.

manazer 2: Zvycajne sa rozhoduje promptne, ale skor ako pokracuje, snazi sa vysvetlit svoje rozhodnutia podriadenym. Zdovodni svoje rozhodnutia a odpovie na akekolvek otazky podriadenych.

manazer 3: Zvycajne sa poradi so svojimi podriadenymi skor ako dospeje k rozhodnutiu. Pocuva ich nazory, zvazi ich a az potom dospeje k nejakemu rozhodnutiu. Nasledne na to od vsetkych ocakava, ze budu jeho rozhodnutie plnit loajalne bez ohladu na to ci je v sulade s ich radami alebo nie.

manazer 4: Zvycajne zvola stretnutie s podriadenymi ked treba dojst k nejakemu dolezitemu rozhodnutiu. Predlozi problem na diskusiu. Prijme ako konecne rozhodnutie nazor vacsiny.

3. Oznacte prosim jeden z popisanych typov manazerov, ktoreho by ste preferovali pri vasej praci s nim.

        manazer 1
        manazer 2
        manazer 3
        manazer 4

4. Ktory z uvedenych styroch typov najviac zodpoveda vasemu nadriadenemu?

        manazer 1
        manazer 2
        manazer 3
        manazer 4

Zamyslite sa nad idealnym zamestnanim, bez ohladu na vase terajsie zamestnanie. Ake dolezite by pre vas bolo pri vybere vaseho idealneho zamestnania:

	extrmne dolezite	vel'mi dolezite	priemerne dolezite	malo vyznamne	bezvyznamne
5. Mat dobre pracovne vztahy so svojim priamym nadriadenym	1	2	3	4	5
6. Mat znacnu slobodu uplatnit vlastny pristup k praci	1	2	3	4	5
7. Mat dobre pracovne podmienky (dobre osvetlenie a klimatizacia, primerany pracovny priestor)	1	2	3	4	5
8. Pracovat s ludmi, ktori medzi sebou dobre spolupracuju	1	2	3	4	5
9. Mat moznost plne vyuzivat svoje zrucnosti a pracovne schopnosti v zamestnani	1	2	3	4	5
10. Mat moznost vysokeho zarobku	1	2	3	4	5
11. Mat moznost postupu v zamestnani	1	2	3	4	5
12. Mat dostatocne vela casu pre vas osobny zivot	1	2	3	4	5

	extrmne dolezite	vel'mi dolezite	priemerne dolezite	malo vyznamne	bezvyznamne
13. Mat moznost zucastnit sa vycvikovych kurzov	1	2	3	4	5
14. Mat istotu zamestnania	1	2	3	4	5
15. Mat v praci len zriedka napatie a stres	1	2	3	4	5
16. Mat narocne ulohy splnenim ktorych dosiahnete pocit osobneho uspokojenia	1	2	3	4	5
17. Dostat zasluzene uznanie pri odvadzani dobrej prace	1	2	3	4	5

	uplne suhlasim	suhlasim	neviem	nesuhlasim	vobec nesuhlasim
18. Nevadi mi zaujat miesto s vykonnou mocou a zodpovednostou hoci je snimi spojene vyssie riziko	1	2	3	4	5
19. Pre manazera je dolezite mat poruke presne odpovede na vacsinu otazok ktore mozu polozit jeho podriadeni o svojej praci	1	2	3	4	5
20. Ked su ulohy jednotlivych clenov oddelenia zlozite, uzitocnym sposobom ich objasnenia je podrobny popis pracovnej naplne	1	2	3	4	5

	uplne suhlasim	suhlasim	neviem	nesuhlasim	vobec nesuhlasim
21. Financne a materialne ocenenie je pre mna najdolezitejsim motivom pre vyber zamestnania	1	2	3	4	5
22. Peniaze su pre mna nielen prostriedkom na prezitie ale tiez niecim, co ma robi stastnym a uspokojuje ma akymkolvek inym sposobom	1	2	3	4	5
23. Niekedy rad ovplyvnujem ludi aby mysleli tak ako ja	1	2	3	4	5
24. Pravidla firmy alebo organizacie by sa nemali porusovat - i ked si zamestnanec mysli, ze ich porusenie je v zaujme organizacie.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Vyhladavam poziciu autority	1	2	3	4	5
26. Myslim, ze je casto mudrejsie konat tak ako to odo mna ocakavaju priatelia a blizki kolegovia ako konat tak ako si ja myslim, ze je spravne a vhodne pre mna.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Niekedy rad predvadzam veci, ktore svedcia o tom, ze mam uspech	1	2	3	4	5
28, Rad prijimam ulohy, ktore zabezpecuju vela uznania	1	2	3	4	5
29. Rad si stanovujem financne alebo materialne ciele, pre moje buduce ekonomicke zabezpecenie	1	2	3	4	5

	uplne suhlasim	suhlasim	neviem	nesuhlasim	vobec nesuhlasim
30. Chcem mat pocit, ze to co robim je prospesne aj pre ostatnych	1	2	3	4	5
31. Myslim, ze praca odvedena pre dobro firmy by mala byt verejne ocenena	1	2	3	4	5
32. Keby som mal na vyber, radsej by som si vybral miesto, ktore mi zabezpeci vela uznania a trochu menej penazi, ako miesto s vysokym prijmom ale ziadnym uznanim.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Pri svojej praci sa vo vseobecnosti rad rozhodujem sam radsej ako dostavam prikazy	1	2	3	4	5
34. Myslim, ze clovek nesie nielen zodpovednost za seba sameho, ale, do urcitej miery, aj za celu spolocnost	1	2	3	4	5
35. Snazim sa vyvarovat spravania, ktore by ma vylucilo (odcudzilo) z mojej pracovnej skupiny	1	2	3	4	5
36. V skupine kde pracujem by som si zelal harmonicke vztahy a .dobru spolocensku atmosferu	1	2	3	4	5

TABLE OF LAND BY F3

LAND   F3

Frequency Row Pct	1	2	3	4	Total
1	5 14.71	7 20.59	14 41.18	8 23.53	34
2	4 13.79	15 51.72	6 20.69	4 13.79	29
3	0 0.00	4 10.81	20 54.05	13 35.14	37
5	1 3.33	7 23.33	13 43.33	9 30.00	30
Total	10	33	53	34	130

Frequency Missing = 1

APPENDIX 2
(contingeny tables)

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF LAND BY F3

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	9	26.158	0.002
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	9	28.234	0.001
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	4.501	0.034
Phi Coefficient		0.449	
Contingency Coefficient		0.409	
Cramer's V		0.259	

TABLE OF LAND BY F10

LAND   F10

Frequency Row Pct	1	2	3	4	Total
1	6 17.65	21 61.76	7 20.59	0 0.00	34
2	2 6.90	20 68.97	6 20.69	1 3.45	29
3	3 8.11	24 64.86	10 27.03	0 0.00	37
5	7 22.58	19 61.29	4 12.90	1 3.23	31
Total	18	84	27	2	131

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF LAND BY F10

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	9	8.165	0.518
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	9	9.041	0.433
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	0.383	0.536
Phi Coefficient		0.250	
Contingency Coefficient		0.242	
Cramer's V		0.144	

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TABLE OF LAND BY F21

LAND   F21

Frequency Row Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1	8 23.53	20 58.82	1 2.94	3 8.82	2 5.88	34
2	0 0.00	13 44.83	1 3.45	15 51.72	0 0.00	29
3	2 5.41	9 24.32	7 18.92	19 51.35	0 0.00	37
5	2 6.45	8 25.81	6 19.35	15 48.39	0 0.00	31
Total	12	50	15	52	2	131

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF LAND BY F21

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	12	42.423	0.001
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	12	46.943	0.001
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	9.776	0.002
Phi Coefficient		0.569	
Contingency Coefficient		0.495	
Cramer's V		0.329	

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TABLE OF LAND BY F22

LAND   F22

Frequency Row Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1	12 35.29	12 35.29	3 8.82	6 17.65	1 2.94	34
2	0 0.00	9 31.03	6 20.69	12 41.38	2 6.90	29
3	1 2.70	16 43.24	11 29.73	9 24.32	0 0.00	37
5	5 16.67	12 40.00	6 20.00	7 23.33	0 0.00	30
Total	18	49	26	34	3	130

Frequency Missing = 1

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF LAND BY F22

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	12	31.323	0.002
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	12	34.259	0.001
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	0.119	0.730
Phi Coefficient		0.491	
Contingency Coefficient		0.441	
Cramer's V		0.283	

LAND   F26

Frequency Row Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1	1 2.94	13 38.24	6 17.65	8 23.53	6 17.65	34
2	0 0.00	10 35.71	3 10.71	15 53.57	0 0.00	28
3	0 0.00	3 8.11	6 16.22	22 59.46	6 16.22	37
5	0 0.00	1 5.56	0 0.00	15 83.33	2 11.11	18
Total	1	27	15	60	14	117

Frequency Missing = 14

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF LAND BY F26

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	12	31.167	0.002
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	12	38.720	0.001
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	12.665	0.001
Phi Coefficient		0.516	
Contingency Coefficient		0.459	
Cramer's V		0.298	

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TABLE OF LAND BY F29

LAND   F29

Frequency Row Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1	6 17.65	19 55.88	6 17.65	3 8.82	0 0.00	34
2	0 0.00	15 51.72	2 6.90	10 34.48	2 6.90	29
3	2 5.41	18 48.65	9 24.32	8 21.62	0 0.00	37
5	2 11.11	11 61.11	4 22.22	1 5.56	0 0.00	18
Total	10	63	21	22	2	118

Frequency Missing = 13

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF LAND BY F29

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	12	23.453	0.024
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	12	25.374	0.013
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	0.001	0.973
Phi Coefficient		0.446	
Contingency Coefficient		0.407	
Cramer's V		0.257	

LAND   F33

Frequency Row Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1	8 23.53	17 50.00	4 11.76	5 14.71	0 0.00	34
2	7 24.14	18 62.07	2 6.90	2 6.90	0 0.00	29
3	5 13.51	24 64.86	5 13.51	3 8.11	0 0.00	37
5	3 10.34	16 55.17	5 17.24	3 10.34	2 6.90	29
Total	23	75	16	13	2	129

Frequency Missing = 2

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF LAND BY F33

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	12	12.720	0.390
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	12	11.911	0.453
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	2.753	0.097
Phi Coefficient		0.314	
Contingency Coefficient		0.300	
Cramer's V		0.181	

LAND   F35

Frequency Row Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1	5 14.71	23 67.65	3 8.82	3 8.82	0 0.00	34
2	4 13.79	24 82.76	0 0.00	1 3.45	0 0.00	29
3	2 5.41	4 10.81	8 21.62	20 54.05	3 8.11	37
5	3 10.00	12 40.00	3 10.00	11 36.67	1 3.33	30
Total	14	63	14	35	4	130

Frequency Missing = 1

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF LAND BY F35

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	12	56.169	0.001
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	12	65.674	0.001
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	13.995	0.001
Phi Coefficient		0.657	
Contingency Coefficient		0.549	
Cramer's V		0.380	

LAND   F36

Frequency Row Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1	13 39.39	16 48.48	3 9.09	1 3.03	0 0.00	33
2	15 51.72	14 48.28	0 0.00	0 0.00	0 0.00	29
3	2 5.41	19 51.35	11 29.73	4 10.81	1 2.70	37
5	4 13.33	21 70.00	1 3.33	3 10.00	1 3.33	30
Total	34	70	15	8	2	129

Frequency Missing = 2

TABLE OF LAND BY F37

LAND   F37

Frequency Row Pct	1	2	3	4	Total
1	8 24.24	21 63.64	4 12.12	0 0.00	33
2	1 3.45	20 68.97	4 13.79	4 13.79	29
3	7 18.92	22 59.46	6 16.22	2 5.41	37
5	5 16.13	25 80.65	1 3.23	0 0.00	31
Total	21	88	15	6	130

Frequency Missing = 1

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF LAND BY F37

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	9	16.628	0.055
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	9	19.549	0.021
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	0.701	0.402
Phi Coefficient		0.358	
Contingency Coefficient		0.337	
Cramer's V		0.206	

TABLE OF LAND BY F39

LAND   F39

Frequency Row Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1	0 0.00	17 51.52	5 15.15	8 24.24	3 9.09	33
2	0 0.00	7 24.14	2 6.90	19 65.52	1 3.45	29
3	3 8.11	13 35.14	12 32.43	9 24.32	0 0.00	37
5	1 5.88	2 11.76	7 41.18	6 35.29	1 5.88	17
Total	4	39	26	42	5	116

Frequency Missing = 15

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF LAND BY F39

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	12	32.463	0.001
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	12	35.070	0.001
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	0.035	0.852
Phi Coefficient		0.529	
Contingency Coefficient		0.468	
Cramer's V		0.305	

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TABLE OF LAND BY F41

LAND   F41

Frequency Row Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1	11 33.33	12 36.36	3 9.09	7 21.21	0 0.00	33
2	0 0.00	8 27.59	4 13.79	16 55.17	1 3.45	29
3	0 0.00	3 8.11	11 29.73	23 62.16	0 0.00	37
5	0 0.00	8 25.81	7 22.58	15 48.39	1 3.23	31
Total	11	31	25	61	2	130

Frequency Missing = 1

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF LAND BY F41

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	12	52.330	0.001
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	12	53.111	0.001
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	13.808	0.001
Phi Coefficient		0.634	
Contingency Coefficient		0.536	
Cramer's V		0.366	

TABLE OF LAND BY F42

LAND   F42

Frequency Row Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1	4 11.76	9 26.47	8 23.53	9 26.47	4 11.76	34
2	3 10.34	13 44.83	6 20.69	7 24.14	0 0.00	29
3	3 8.11	14 37.84	8 21.62	10 27.03	2 5.41	37
5	4 12.90	13 41.94	4 12.90	10 32.26	0 0.00	31
Total	14	49	26	36	6	131

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF LAND BY F42

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	12	10.179	0.600
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	12	11.941	0.450
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	0.923	0.337
Phi Coefficient		0.279	
Contingency Coefficient		0.269	
Cramer's V		0.161	

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TABLE OF LAND BY F43

LAND   F43

Frequency Row Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1	3 8.82	12 35.29	14 41.18	4 11.76	1 2.94	34
2	2 6.90	12 41.38	11 37.93	3 10.34	1 3.45	29
3	0 0.00	18 48.65	16 43.24	3 8.11	0 0.00	37
5	1 3.23	7 22.58	17 54.84	5 16.13	1 3.23	31
Total	6	49	58	15	3	131

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF LAND BY F43

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	12	10.044	0.612
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	12	12.350	0.418
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	2.185	0.139
Phi Coefficient		0.277	
Contingency Coefficient		0.267	
Cramer's V		0.160	

157

LAND   F44

Frequency Row Pct	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1	3 8.82	9 26.47	12 35.29	8 23.53	2 5.88	34
2	0 0.00	17 58.62	8 27.59	4 13.79	0 0.00	29
3	2 5.41	20 54.05	12 32.43	3 8.11	0 0.00	37
5	0 0.00	14 48.28	9 31.03	5 17.24	1 3.45	29
Total	5	60	41	20	3	129

Frequency Missing = 2

STATISTICS FOR TABLE OF LAND BY F44

Statistic	DF	Value	Prob
Chi-Square	12	15.614	0.210
Likelihood Ratio Chi-Square	12	18.758	0.095
Mantel-Haenszel Chi-Square	1	0.338	0.561
Phi Coefficient		0.348	
Contingency Coefficient		0.329	
Cramer's V		0.201	

APPENDIX 3
(factor analysis, indices and rank sums)

Initial Factor Method: Principal Factors

Factor Pattern

	FACTOR1	FACTOR2	FACTOR3
F28	0.63233	-0.05836	0.05274
F21	0.56509	-0.48757	-0.25894
F29	0.53309	-0.06709	-0.22118
F22	0.51926	-0.15693	-0.33697
F41	0.51535	-0.29381	0.05506
F10	0.51179	0.00980	-0.28043
F27	0.46957	-0.04996	0.38985
F17	0.46403	0.05881	-0.00689
F40	0.46367	-0.36061	0.02125
F33	0.46102	0.25618	0.11852
F11	0.46087	0.24371	-0.41789
F25	0.44940	0.38078	0.09223
F37	0.44150	0.27442	-0.04945
F9	0.44149	0.25495	-0.08313
F31	0.41551	-0.21008	0.19590
F16	0.35290	0.52777	-0.05266
F44	0.19510	0.52606	0.22511
F43	0.48318	0.51166	0.16858
F42	0.37995	0.44918	0.21111
F15	0.42462	-0.47103	0.20057
F36	0.27253	-0.33210	0.47168
F35	0.33951	-0.39319	0.46436
F12	0.32845	-0.27794	-0.46718

$\Sigma 7.3440 \rightarrow$

$\Sigma 1.5436$

$\Sigma 0.4689$

Variance explained by each factor

FACTOR1	FACTOR2	FACTOR3
4.658857	2.529978	1.534400

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-- LAND=1 --

Variable	N	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
FAKTOR1	32	2.1420713	0.4952964	1.1500368	2.9953663
FAKTOR2	32	2.9564403	0.9971435	1.0000259	4.9040101
FAKTOR3	33	1.6046440	1.4955630	-0.0024312	6.9886543

-- LAND=2 --

Variable	N	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
FAKTOR1	27	2.6703467	0.4197232	1.9433932	3.5572781
FAKTOR2	28	2.5109688	0.8773915	0.7305260	4.2591669
FAKTOR3	29	0.7928108	1.1420760	-0.9987631	3.9804649

-- LAND=3 --

Variable	N	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
FAKTOR1	37	2.6949634	0.3981782	1.8239924	3.4503036
FAKTOR2	37	2.1977194	0.7068240	0.7211972	4.2684957
FAKTOR3	37	3.7194619	1.6722730	0.0131798	6.9982512

-- LAND=5 --

Variable	N	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
FAKTOR1	14	2.7605391	0.4216919	2.0743614	3.5531876
FAKTOR2	29	2.4446104	0.7395924	1.0619979	3.8991578
FAKTOR3	30	2.5613251	1.6715629	-1.9950949	6.0019194

N P A R 1 W A Y   P R O C E D U R E

Wilcoxon Scores (Rank Sums) for Variable FAKTOR3
Classified by Variable LAND

LAND	N	Sum of Scores	Expected Under HO	Std Dev Under HO	Mean Score
3	37	1454.50000	1258.0	79.0305061	39.3108108
5	30	823.50000	1020.0	79.0305061	27.4500000

Average Scores Were Used for Ties

Wilcoxon 2-Sample Test (Normal Approximation)
(with Continuity Correction of .5)

S = 823.500   Z = -2.48005   Prob > |Z| = 0.0131

T-Test Approx. Significance = 0.0157

Kruskal-Wallis Test (Chi-Square Approximation)
CHISQ = 6.1821   DF = 1   Prob > CHISQ = 0.0129