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Employee Engagement Drivers in Russia - A Case Study of Perceptions in a Western MNC

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Abstract

The main objective of this research was to achieve a better understanding of employee engagement in an organizational context in Russia. Moreover, the aim was to find out how the Russian cultural context affects the way employee engagement drivers are perceived, to provide recommendations on how to enhance engagement in different cultural contexts.

The theoretical framework of this study rests on an idea that drivers of employee engagement consist of job resources (positively valued aspects of the job) and job demands (negatively valued aspects of the job) stemming from the task, organization of work, organization, interpersonal and social relations and the employees themselves. The proposition is that because cultural values guide attitudes related to resources and demands, employees tend to perceive these drivers of employee engagement differently, according to their potential to promote learning, personal growth and goal attainment within that particular environment. Thus, the extent to which employees experience different types of engagement is also likely to be influenced by cultural values.

To achieve a coherent view of employee engagement drivers within Russian business environment, the activities and processes used to create and support employee engagement were studied from employee perspective in one subsidiary of a Finland-based multinational in Russia. The results from a corporate employee engagement survey were examined to map out how different level resources were perceived. In-depth interviews with employees were then conducted to study the demand side of the phenomenon. Finally, to provide a localized explanation for why different resources were perceived as they were, all results were discussed in the light of the European Social Survey results describing cultural context in Russia.

Analysis of the data revealed that Russian employees perceived interpersonal and social relations resources most positively, followed by personal and task level resources, whereas the organization level resources were perceived least favourably. Most of these findings related systematically and in theoretically meaningful ways to the ESS results and were further supported by the results of qualitative interviews with the company representatives, implying that Russian employees are likely to be highly engaged to their group, whereas they are less likely to be engaged to their work, task and organization respectively. However, it was also found that organizational values and societal level expectations play a role in how willing people are to engage themselves. Moreover, because people are likely to vary in their ability to mobilize resources in a value generating way, there are likely to be individual differences in the experience of engagement. Thus, the findings indicate that although a company can make a wide variety of resources available for employees, not all of them will be perceived of equal importance in all countries by all employees.

In conclusion, the findings illustrate that although values play an important part in the experience of employee engagement by affecting the way different job resources and job demands are perceived in Russia, organizational, societal and personal aspects also play a role in the experience of engagement. Therefore, international organizations planning interventions to improve engagement levels should focus on finding practices that are perceived as useful and practical within the particular business environment they are used in.

Keywords Culture, employee engagement, job demands, job resources, organizational commitment, work engagement

Tiivistelmä

Tämän tutkimuksen päätavoite oli selvittää, millainen vaikutus kulttuuritekijöillä on työntekijän sitoutumisen kannalta venäläisessä toimintaympäristössä. Lisäksi sitoutumisen osatekijöiden tutkimuksen tarkoituksena oli auttaa yrityksiä edistämään sitoutumista venäläisessä kulttuuriympäristössä, mutta myös muunlaisissa toimintaympäristöissä.

Tutkimuksen teoreettinen viitekehys perustuu olettamukselle, jonka mukaan työntekijän sitoutumiseen vaikuttavat työtehtävistä, työn organisoinnista, organisaatiosta, ihmissuhteista ja henkilökohtaisista ominaisuuksista kumpuavat voimavarat ja vaatimukset. Kulttuurille ominaiset piirteet ja arvot vaikuttavat siihen, millainen asenne työntekijällä on erilaisia resursseja ja vaateita kohtaan. Näin ollen sitoutumiseen vaikuttavat tekijät koetaan eri tavoin eri kulttuureissa, riippuen niiden tarjoamista mahdollisuuksista edesauttaa oppimista, kehittymistä ja tavoitteiden saavuttamista kyseisessä toimintaympäristössä. Täten henkilön sitoutuminen työtehtäviin, organisaatioon ja työyhteisöön on myös riippuvainen kulttuurisidonnaisista arvoista.

Tutkimuksessa sitoutumiseen vaikuttavia tekijöitä tarkasteltiin venäläisessä toimintaympäristössä kartoittamalla kuinka monikansallisen, Venäjällä toimivan yrityksen työntekijät suhtautuivat sitoutumista edistäviin resursseihin ja toimintatapoihin. Pääasiallinen aineisto koostui yrityksen teettämästä sitoutumiskyselystä, mutta työhön liittyviä vaateita käsiteltiin myös haastattelujen avulla. Lopuksi molemmista tietolähteistä saatuja tuloksia arvioitiin suhteessa venäläisen kulttuurin erityispiirteisiin, joita selvitettiin European Social Surveyn avulla.

Aineiston analyysi paljasti, että venäläiset työntekijät kokivat omaavansa eniten hyvistä ihmissuhteista kumpuavia resursseja. Toiselle ja kolmannelle sijalle tulivat henkilökohtaisiin ominaisuuksiin ja työtehtävin liittyvät voimavarat, kun taas viimeiselle sijalle jäivät organisaatiosta lähtöisin olevat resurssit. Suurin osa tuloksista kuvasti systemaattisesti ESS:n avulla selvitettyjä venäläiselle kulttuurille ominaisia arvoja. Myös haastattelut tukivat osittain tuloksia, antaen aihetta uskoa, että venäläiset työntekijät sitoutuvat todennäköisimmin hyvin vahvasti työyhteisöönsä, mutta hieman heikommin itse työhön, työtehtäviin ja organisaatioon. Siitä huolimatta, tuloksista kävi myös ilmi, etteivät ainoastaan kulttuuriarvot määritä ihmisen halukkuutta sitoutua vaan myös organisaation arvoilla ja työyhteisön odotuksilla on suuri merkitys. Lisäksi ihmisten kyky käyttää hyväkseen erilaisia resursseja vaihtelee. Näin ollen sitoutumisen kokemuskin luultavimmin vaihtelee eri ihmisten välillä. Sen vuoksi onkin tärkeää ymmärtää, että vaikka organisaatio voi tarjota työntekijöilleen laajan valikoiman erilaisia resursseja, kaikki eivät kuitenkaan edistä sitoutumista samalla tavalla, koska eri ihmiset eri kulttuureissa voivat kokea ne eri tavoin.

Yhteenvetona todettakoon, että tutkimuksen tulokset osoittavat kulttuuriarvojen näyttelevän merkittävää roolia siinä, kuinka ihmiset kokevat sitoutumiseen vaikuttavat resurssit ja vaatimukset. Kuitenkin myös organisaatioon liittyvät piirteet sekä työyhteisön odotukset ja henkilökohtaiset tiedot ja taidot vaikuttavat ihmisen halukkuuteen sitoutua työtehtäviin, työhön, työyhteisöön ja itse organisaatioon. Näin ollen suunniteltaessa sitoutumista edistäviä toimintatapoja on erittäin tärkeää etsiä juuri niitä tapoja, jotka kyseisessä toimintaympäristössä koetaan hyödyllisinä ja käytännöllisinä.

Avainsanat Kulttuuri, sitoutuminen, työn imu

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In Helsinki, February 10th, 2016

Niina Sistonen

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The notion of "war for talent" rests on an idea that in a knowledge-based economy human talent is a renewable resource not easily copied or stolen by competitors (Michaels et al., 2001). To develop this competitive edge, organizations look for employees with specific competencies and behaviors that support adaptation to environmental pressures, organizational changes and changes in the workforce (Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008). For example, diversity requires perspective taking, whereas teamwork requires assertiveness, working in vertical networks requires communication skills, job crafting requires personal initiative, boundarylessness requires self-control and emotional demands require resilience (Schaufeli, 2015).

Organizational leaders have long recognized the costs associated with losing employees with such transferable skills: Undesired turnover of talented professionals affects negatively the firm's effectiveness and profitability (Frank et al. 2004). Unfortunately, employees with in-demand skills often look for employability, not employment (Holland et al, 2007). They are career focused and willing to change jobs in search for new challenges or opportunities for self-development (Holland et al, 2007; Dries, 2013). Hence, there is a risk that upgrading their knowledge, skills and ability may eventually end up subsidizing competitors, which could hinder the company's overall competitiveness (Mourdoukoutas, 2013). As a result, companies might be reluctant to commit resources to talent development and retention, leading talents to look for better opportunities elsewhere.

To break the vicious circle, many modern organizations are now turning to enhancing levels of employee engagement within their influence (Wollard & Schuck, 2011). Although the definition of employee engagement remains a debated one (Bakker et al., 2008), recent research has reported on the benefits of developing an engaged workforce (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008; Wollard & Schuck, 2011). Engaged employees are consistently more productive, profitable, safer, and healthier (Fleming & Asplund, 2007; Wagner & Harter, 2006). They are more likely to be motivated and to stay focused on achieving business goals (Frank et al. 2004; Leigh & Roper, 2008; Anitha, 2014). Above all, numerous studies suggest that the presence of higher levels of employee engagement significantly reduces turnover intention (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Saks, 2006; Lockwood, 2006; Macey & Schneider, 2008; Anitha, 2014). Consequently, building and sustaining an organizational environment that supports engagement makes an organization attractive to potential recruits (Leigh & Roper, 2008), as it fosters the image of an

employer of choice to return to, or recommend to other highly skilled workers (Holland et al., 2007). Thus, employee engagement is considered a crucial element in the successful management of a productive workforce in organizations today (Farndale et al., 2014)

Interestingly, only 30% of the global workforce is estimated to be engaged (Harter et al., 2002; Saks, 2006; Christensen & Rog, 2008; Chalofsky, 2010). Recent research has even suggested significant engagement declines (Gebauer et al., 2008) in developed economies, including North America, Western Europe and Japan (Shuck et al., 2011). Thus, the question no longer seems to be whether employees are engaged, but rather why only a few are, while others are not. This question is even more acute in markets where the business environment is characterized by increasing levels of skilled labor shortages (Bhatnagar, 2007; Farndale et al., 2010) and where better-paid opportunities constantly become available for those who possess desired skills (Farndale et al., 2014): When more has to be done with fewer people, organizations do not need a merely professional workforce, but a motivated workforce that is engaged and committed to the organizational goals (Rothwell, 2014).

One example of such a market is Russia. The official statistics predict that the overall employee deficit in Russia is going to be 22 billion people by 2020 (Latukha, 2014). Moreover, according to the EBRD-World Bank survey (2012) of Russian firms, there is a significant mismatch between the skills demanded by the market and the skills provided by the education system. Not only is it difficult to find local talent with the required technical skills or the right managerial and people skills, but to attract the right expatriate talent due to Russia's stringent immigration laws and the lack of general willingness to move to Russia (ERBD, 2012; Järvinen, 2012). Moreover, retention is a major issue in Russia. According to Rosstat, over 11 percent of Russian working population remains employed at their primary place of employment for less than a year (Vostrov, 2012). Indicatively, when employees in various firms in Russia were asked about how likely are to try and find a job with another firm or organization within the next 12 months, over 25% of the respondents answered "likely" or "very likely" (International Social Survey Program, ISSP, 2005).

Furthermore, Russian employers have traditionally viewed employees as a cost rather than as a resource (Gurkov & Zelenova, 2011). Employees are therefore often placed in positions that require their current expertise, whereas relatively little consideration is given to the set of skills and abilities they should develop to be more instrumental for the company (Fey & Denison, 2003). After all, stars are needed now, but not necessarily in the future (Holden & Vaiman,

2013). As a result, the turnover for different groups of employees is very high – particularly in cities such as Moscow and Saint-Petersburg where well performing managers and employees in general have ample job opportunities and head hunters are increasingly active (Koveshnikov et al. 2012). In addition, many highly skilled Russian professionals prefer seeking jobs abroad (Skuza et al, 2013; Holden & Vaiman, 2013).

In sum, today – without a doubt – the war for talent is reality in Russia, where competition and the lack of availability of highly skilled employees make finding and retaining talent a major priority for organizations (The World Economic Forum, 2015). However, in order to stay competitive in the global business environment, employers in Russia should also look beyond acquiring a talented workforce to creating a work environment that fosters employee engagement and commitment to the organizational goals.

1.2 Research Gap

Although academic research on employee engagement is becoming more prevalent, there is still only a limited amount of empirical studies (Wollard & Shuck, 2011). The contemporary academic literature on employee engagement focuses on (1) the conceptualization of employee engagement, (2) antecedents of employee engagement and (3) the intended outcomes and effects of employee engagement. While the definition of employee engagement remains a debated one (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008), the dominating occupational psychology perspective has developed significant insights into the antecedents of engagement by emphasizing the importance of job and personal resources (Jenkins & Delbridge, 2013; Saks & Gruman, 2014). However, less attention has been devoted to the ability of management to deliver these resources, or the role played by contextual contingencies, such as environmental volatility, specific market conditions, particular industry sector, job types, organizational values and culture, ownership and governance arrangements or organizational size and internal structure (Jenkins & Delbridge, 2013; Dixon et al., 2014; Bailey et al., 2015).

As pointed out by Shantz et al. (2014, p.253) and Rothmann (2014, p. 163), most studies on engagement have been conducted in western countries that have demographic governments, privately owned companies and relatively strong emphasis on individualism. HRM practices typically reflect and reinforce national culture (Fey & Denison, 2003) and the question arises whether the dynamics highlighted by employee engagement research are applicable to other cultures with economic systems, governments and cultural values different from those in the

North America and Western Europe (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Shuck et al., 2011; Rothmann, 2014). Kiessling & Harvey (2005, pp.32-33) effectively sum up the problem:

> "A Western ethnocentric bias permeates much of global research literature, underpinning the universalistic approach that the instruments and measures developed in one culture are believed to be equally appropriate and applicable in other nations. This view fails adequately to specify the nature of societal/cultural differences and how they affect the phenomenon under investigation due to the use of instruments and measures that remove societal or cultural dimensions from organizations. Yet, the basic purpose of examining global perspectives is to contribute an understanding of the extent to which there are differences and similarities among nations as well as between organizations and their members in different relational settings."

Cross-cultural efforts to study engagement have usually been quantitative, the proposition being that individual-level engagement scores can be aggregated to measure engagement at the work group, organizational, or country level as well (Attridge, 2009; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010a). However, the results have been somewhat inconsistent and their applicability for practitioners and researchers questionable (Saks & Gruman, 2014). Firstly, country level differences are difficult to interpret as the composition of the samples often differs in terms of occupation, age, gender, tenure and occupational rank (Fong & Ng, 2011). While demographic factors in general cannot predict employee engagement, they are important in that within the country specific context there might be different expectations for different demographic groups.

Similarly, the general value characteristics that define the specific values and goals people display within their work context, often differ between cultures (Hofstede, 1980). These values provide a frame of reference against which employees define work experiences (Meindl et al., 1989). Although many research instruments are designed to tap some aspect of work experience, it is not readily apparent that respondents from diverse groups will complete the measure using same definitions of organizational concepts (Riordan & Vandenberg, 1994). For example, Maslach et al. (2001, p.412) point out differences in survey responding styles across cultures. In a collectivistic culture such as Japan, maintenance of social harmony is one of the most important values, which may result in suppressed expression of positive affect (Shimazu, 2010b), whereas North Americans may be more likely to respond using extreme points of scales (Maslach et al. 2001). Some argue that even the wording of the items (particularly responses to positive items, such as those tapping work engagement) in different measures is prone to be biased among various cultural groups (Ashill et al. 2015). Moreover, there is plenty of evidence

in the literature of a self-serving bias when employees report their own behavior (Gruman & Saks, 2011).

Nevertheless, existing cross-cultural studies typically focus on testing psychological models for the factorial validity of the engagement questionnaires (Fong & Ng, 2012; Schaufeli, 2015), or on their reliability in different cultural contexts, such as Japan, China or India (Robinson et al., 2004; Koyuncu et al. 2006; Shimazu et al., 2010b; Schaufeli, 2014). Russia, however, remains extraordinarily under-represented in the related management research and literature (Holden & Vaiman, 2013; Holland et al., 2007). In Russia, the low credibility of formal institutions emphasizes the role of cultural norms, traditions and ethics (McCarthy et al. 2008) that differ significantly from western ones (Magun & Rudnev, 2010). Moreover, the development of Russian market economy, the formation of private and public sectors and the growth of organizations have clearly been different from the western ones (Åslund, 2007). Given the importance of cultural and political hegemony on engagement (Jenkins & Delbridge, 2013), how these developments are reflected in today's business operations remains relatively unexplored in the academic literature (Linz, 2004; Koveshnikov et al. 2012).

In sum, because the experience of engagement is embedded in organizational cultures (Bakker & Leiter, 2011), the lack of academic interest in the setting within which the studies take place (Bailey et al., 2015) undermines the utility of the concept in practice (Macey & Schneider 2008; Wollard & Shuck, 2011). Although many frameworks and their applicability in different cultural contexts has been evaluated, much of the existing research on employee engagement focus on developing the construct in western business environments. Moreover, there is over-reliance on quantitative self-report methods within the field (Bailey et al., 2015). Thus, research could benefit from qualitative or multi-method studies that contextualize the more generic frameworks around employee engagement to particular organizational settings (ibid.). Furthermore, what academic research is lacking is not only studies on the generalizability of western theories, but qualitative research examining the climate for engagement (Bakker et al. 2011; Jenkins & Delbridge, 2013; Bailey et al., 2015) particularly in Russia.

1.3 Research Objectives and Questions

To fill the research gap and to tackle the problem described, the purpose of this research is to study the dynamics highlighted by western employee engagement research in a non-western cultural setting. In other words, the aim is to provide a localized explanation of the underlying constituents of employee engagement in Russia. The main research problem, thus, translates

into “How does Russian cultural context affect the way drivers of employee engagement are perceived in multinational corporations operating in Russia?”

The research problem is addressed from two different perspectives: employee and cultural perspective. The employee perspective focuses to discover employee perceptions and experiences related to the available resources and prevailing demands controlled by the organization. This part will be conducted by examining the drivers of engagement in one subsidiary of a Finland-based multinational in Russia through a secondary data analysis and interviews with the company representatives. The cultural perspective, then, aims to provide insights into the contextual aspects by identifying underlying cultural and organizational factors that might affect employees’ experience of engagement. The impact of contextual factors will be evaluated by comparing empirical data of resources and demands with existing data on cultural values. The two perspectives will be analyzed separately and combined only in the final discussion section. Accordingly, the research questions can be summarized into the following:

1. How employees perceive drivers of employee engagement in multinational corporations operating in Russia?

2. How perceptions of employee engagement drivers relate to features of Russian national culture?

This thesis contributes to the growing knowledge on employee engagement. As mentioned before, the study is academically important because there is no previous research on employee engagement in Russian context. In line with May & Stewart (2013, p.148), I think that thoughtful, informed contextualization of theory can produce more insight into non-western management situations, but also inform and improve the original theory. Hence, this study benefits organizations by providing useful recommendations on how to enhance employee engagement in Russian context, but it also supports the development of measures that are practical and useful within in a wider range of contexts (Shuck et al., 2011; Saks & Gruman, 2014). Consequently, exploring how cultural variables influence the development of employee engagement drivers in MNCs located in Russia, gives an opportunity to assess the extent to which western theories have relevance for Russia (Linz, 2004).

1.4 Definition of Key Terms

Employee engagement

An individual employee's positive cognitive, emotional, and behavioral state directed toward desired organizational outcomes (Shuck & Wollard, 2010), reflected in the degree to which an individual is willing to adapt his or her behavior with relation to his or her work, tasks, organization or group (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2004; Schuk & Wollard, 2010). Engagement is the extent to which employees commit to something or someone in their organization and how hard they work and how long they stay because of that commitment.

Employee engagement drivers

Job characteristics (demands and resources) that may influence employee health, well-being, and motivation.

Employee retention

The effort by an employer to keep desirable workers in order to meet business goals (Frank et al. 2004).

Job Demand

Job demands are negatively valued physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or psychological effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs. (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014)

Job Resource

Job resources are positively valued physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that are functional in achieving work goals, reduce job demands, or stimulate personal growth and development. (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014)

2 REVIEW OF PREVIOUS LITERATURE

This section starts with an overview of the achievements so far in the existing academic employee engagement literature and research, referring to the practitioner-field when necessary. First, a concise history of the concept and its origins is presented. Next, the dominant views expressed in the employee engagement literature are discussed through an overview of different employee engagement models and their possible limitations. Drawing from the earlier theoretical discussion, a definition of employee engagement is then presented. Lastly, the role of culture and different ways to enhance engagement are briefly addressed and a conceptual framework for examining the concept in Russian context is introduced.

2.1 Origins of Employee Engagement

One of the key challenges in the employee engagement literature is determining what engagement is. Although consensus on the conceptualization of engagement is important for both scholars and practitioners, no unanimous definition of employee engagement seems to exist (Bakker, 2008). This lack of precision originates from the fact that practical interest in employee engagement has increased faster than the research evidence regarding the construct, its antecedents and outcomes (Macey & Schneider 2008; Wollard & Shuck, 2011; Rothmann, 2014; Bailey et al., 2015). Concepts such as “employee engagement”, “work engagement”, “job involvement”, “job engagement” and “organizational commitment” are often used interchangeably (Bakker, 2008) without clearly identifying what is meant by them. As Saks (2008, pp.155-156) has criticized, engagement seems to serve as an umbrella term for whatever one wants it to be.

The origins of the concept in academia are often traced back to Kahn (1990, pp. 692-724), the first scholar to conceptualize engagement at work. According to Kahn (1990, p.692), the two most dominant roles for most organizational members are their work role and their role as a member of an organization. While Kahn's (1990, pp. 692-724) key reference of engagement was the work role, in popular business press attention was directed towards understanding employees' role with reference to the organization (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Perhaps the most influential publication in the general business press at the time was "First, break all the rules" (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999), which summarized survey materials gathered by the Gallup Organization since 1988. The book laid out the foundation for achieving an engaged and productive workforce, arguing that change is a fact of modern life and that changes in the work place require a substantial psychological adaptation and involvement from the part of

employees (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999, p.17; Schaufeli, 2014). The message was that when more has to be done with fewer people, organizations do not need a merely professional workforce, but a motivated workforce that is engaged and committed to the organizational goals (Schaufeli, 2014).

Since then, employee engagement has been a popular concept in industry, especially during the period 1999-2005 when managers, consultants, and policy makers extensively discussed the theme of finding, focusing, and keeping talented employees (Anitha, 2014). Around the same time psychological researchers started to pay attention to the study of human strengths and optimal functioning (Maslach et al. 2001) and a number of studies extended the employee engagement concept. In business and among consultants the focus was on the organization and the unit level outcomes of a psychological state (e.g., performance, satisfaction, retention, and commitment), whereas academic researchers were more focused on the psychological construct and its measurement, attention sifting from engagement to work role to engagement to the work activity itself (Attridge, 2009).

Recently the topic has gained more attention, as researchers have become interested in the role of engagement as a mechanism that links employee characteristics and organizational factors (such as HRM activities) to employee job performance (Crawford et al., 2010; Truss et al. 2011; Albrecht et al. 2015). Once again, the need for precise definitions was acknowledged and extensive literature reviews studying the earlier conceptualizations and frameworks of employee engagement started to emerge (see Macey & Schneider 2008; Schuk & Wollard, 2010; Christian et al. 2011). The need for more comprehensive models has led researchers to propose integration of frameworks and models across different streams of literature (Jenkins & Delbridge, 2013; Albrecht et al., 2015).

Although academic research has followed the consultancies in that the focus is now more on identifying different practices organizations can use to foster engagement, the practitioners' focus on macro issues versus researchers focus on individual differences (the micro view) has created a gap in measurement and other methods (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Wefald & Downey, 2009; Simpson, 2009). Hence, there are various frameworks and instruments available both for applied research in organizations as well as for scientific purposes (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010b; Shuck et al. 2011; Christian et al, 2011). Next section outlines the developmental process of the tools and models designed to measure employee engagement (summarized in Table X).

2.2 Employee Engagement Frameworks and Models

2.2.1 Kahn's Framework of Engagement

According to Kahn (1990, pp.702-716), there are three psychological conditions associated with engagement or disengagement at work: meaningfulness, safety, and availability. Meaningfulness is conceptualized as feeling that one's work was worthwhile, accompanied by a sense of value in one's accomplishments at work (Kahn 1990). Employees are thought to both add value and significance to what they are doing as well as receive feedback about their value and significance to an organization (Kahn, 1990, see "job crafting" by Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Safety is conceptualized as the ability to be ones preferred self without fearing negative consequences to self-image, status, or career (Kahn, 1990). To be engaged, employees need to trust their working environment in ways that allow authentic selves to emerge in practice (Shuck et al., 2011). Availability, then, is conceptualized as having the physical, emotional, and psychological resources necessary for the completion of work (Kahn, 1990). As Shuck et al. (2011, p.429) put it,

> "Tangibly, the availability of resources could be understood as supplies, sufficient budget, and manpower to complete a task; intangibly, availability of resources can be understood as opportunities for learning and skill development, a reasonable degree of job fit, and commitment to the organization."

In other words, when the job is challenging and meaningful, the social environment at work is safe, and personal resources are available, the needs for meaningfulness, safety and availability are satisfied and engagement is likely to occur (Schaufeli, 2012). Kahn (1990, p.695) also theorized that characteristics of employees and organizations drive beliefs regarding these three psychological conditions. Kahn (1992, p.692) noted that engagement manifested through the behavioral investment of personal physical, cognitive, and emotional energy into work roles. People exhibit engagement when they become physically involved in tasks, whether alone or with others; are cognitively vigilant, focused, and attentive; and are emotionally connected to their work and to others in the service of their work (Kahn, 1990, p.694).

Some researchers have argued that the concept of engagement would be more useful, were it to be framed as a model comprising both psychological state and the behavior it implies (Saks, 2006; Macey & Schneider, 2008). According to this perspective, different types of engagement build on each other: trait engagement leads to state engagement and together they yield behavioral engagement, defined in terms of discretionary effort (e.g., demonstrations of initiative, proactively seeking opportunities to contribute, and going beyond what is typically

expected). However, although engagement is often manifested and measured behaviorally, these behaviors should be seen as positive outcomes of engagement, not as constituent parts (Kahn, 1990; Shuck &Wollard, 2010; Sonnentag & Demerouti, 2010). Hence, Kahn (1990, p.694) defined engagement as

> "harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles: in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitionally, emotionally and mentally during role performances."

Kahn's framework for engagement indicates the psychological conditions that are necessary for engagement and it has therefore been important for the theoretical thinking about engagement (Schaufeli, 2014). However, it does not fully explain why individuals will respond to these conditions with varying degrees of engagement (Saks, 2006; Bandura, 2001; Hirschfeld & Thomas, 2008) and the approach has only occasionally been used in empirical research (Schaufeli, 2014). Examples of operationalizing the definition and framework include May et al. (2004), Crawford et al. (2010), Reio & Sanders-Reio (2011) and Soane et al. (2012). The framework was first tested by May et al. (2004), who used a questionnaire to study employees in an insurance company in the US. They found that meaningfulness, safety and availability were indeed positively associated with engagement. They also found that job enrichment and role fit were positively related to meaningfulness, whereas rewarding co-worker and supportive supervisor relations were positively related to safety, and personal resources were positively related to availability (ibid.). Thus, Kahn's framework offers an empirically tested multidimensional motivational framework reflecting underlying conditions of an employee's willingness to engage; a limitation of other engagement frameworks (Crawford et al. 2010).

2.2.2 Maslach-Burnout Inventory and Oldenburg Burnout Inventory

Maslach and Leiter (1997), in turn, defined engagement as an antithesis for burnout, rephrasing burnout as an erosion of engagement with the job. The burnout antithesis framework (Maslach et al. 2001, p.416) illustrates the relationship between burnout and engagement as follows:

> "What started out as important, meaningful, and challenging work becomes unpleasant, unfulfilling, and meaningless. Energy turns into exhaustion, involvement turns into cynicism, and efficacy turns into ineffectiveness. Accordingly, engagement is characterized by energy, involvement, and efficacy – the direct opposites of the three burnout dimensions."

The argument is that because burnout and engagement are opposite sides of same phenomena, engagement is assessed by the opposite pattern of scores on these three dimensions using the

Maslach-Burnout Inventory (MBI), which was later transformed to MBI-General Survey (MBI-GS; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). MBI and MBI-GS have been criticized for their psychometric shortcoming, namely that the items in each subscale are all framed in the same direction, making them inferior to scales that include both positively and negatively worded items (Demerouti & Bakker, 2010).

Similar to MBI-GS, the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI: Demerouti, 1999; Ebbinghaus, 1996) was originally developed to assess burnout. The OLBI includes two dimensions: one ranging from exhaustion to vigor and a second ranging from cynicism to dedication. Exhaustion is defined as a consequence of intense physical, affective and cognitive strain, i.e. as a long-term consequence of prolonged exposure to certain job demands, whereas cynicism refers mainly to (lack of) interest in the job and job meaningfulness (Demerouti et al., 2000). In comparison to MBI-GS, OLBI includes both positively and negatively phrased items. In other words, the exhaustion and cynicism subscales include items that refer to their opposites, namely vigor and dedication, respectively (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

Although both MBI-GS and OBLI are widely used, the underlying assumption that engagement is an antipode of burnout has been criticized by many authors who consider engagement as an independent, distinct concept negatively related to burnout (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). These authors have highlighted the need to develop a valid measure of employee engagement that is truly distinct from other constructs and that the definition and measurement of engagement based on the job burnout perspective is not a unique and distinct construct, given its overlap with burnout dimensions and measures (Saks & Gruman, 2014).

2.2.3 Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

Other researchers view engagement as the conceptual opposite of burnout but, in contrast to MBI-GS and OBLI, regard these constructs as independent states with dissimilar structures that must be measured with different instruments (Schaufeli et al. 2002; Gruman & Saks, 2011). The most often used tool to measure engagement as a distinct construct is a self-report questionnaire called The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli et al., 2002; Attridge, 2009; Schaufeli, 2014), that defines work engagement as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind, characterized by vigor (energy and efficacy), dedication, and absorption. As Bakker et al. (2011, p.265) put it,

> "Vigor refers to high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, whereas dedication refers to being strongly involved in one's work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, and challenge. Absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in work, such that time passes quickly."

UWES is available in 28 languages (refer to http://www.schaufeli.com) and it has been validated and utilised extensively in a number of countries (Bakker et al., 2008). For example, Koyuncu et al. (2006) studied antecedents and consequences of work engagement using UWES questionnaire in a sample of women managers and professionals employed by a large bank in Turkey. Shimazu et al. (2010b) validated the Japanese version of UWES in a sample of Japanese engineers and nurses, whereas Fong & Ng (2012) explored the psychometric properties of the Chinese version of the UWES in elderly service sector of a nongovernmental organization in Hong Kong.

Despite the widespread usage, the UWES model has been criticized for its empirical redundancy with the MBI (Cole et al., 2011). Similarly, UWES includes items that confound engagement with the antecedent conditions suggested by Kahn (Crawford et al., 2010). This kind of tapping an existing construct under a new label has led researchers to suggest that engagement research move away from reliance on the UWES as a measure of engagement and begin to use measures that are more in line with Kahn's (1990, 1992) original conceptualization (Crawford et al. 2010; Shuck et al., 2011; Saks & Gruman, 2014).

2.2.4 Job Demands – Resources (JD-R) Model and Differentiated JD-R Model

Although both Kahn's (1990) and Maslach et al.'s (2001) models indicate the psychological conditions or antecedents that are necessary for engagement, they do not fully explain why individuals will respond to these conditions with varying degrees of engagement (Saks, 2006; Bandura, 2001; Hirschfeld & Thomas, 2008). To address the issue, Demerouti et al. (2001) introduced the Job Demands – Resources (JD-R) Model, which is one of the most often used models to explain engagement. The starting point of the JD-R model is that regardless of the type of job, the psychosocial work characteristics can be categorized into job resources, personal resources (including personal traits) and job demands (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Schaufeli & Bakker (2004, pp.86-89) state that job resources and job demands evoke different processes: job demands drain the employee's energy resources, leading to burnout and health impairment, whereas the availability of personal and job resources stimulates work engagement.

Resources can come from the task (e.g., skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, performance feedback), organization of work (e.g., role clarity, participation in decision-making), organization (e.g., pay, career opportunities, job security, training and other organizational processes), interpersonal and social relations (e.g., supervisor and coworker support, team climate, person's family; Shuck et al., 2011) or from the employees themselves (e.g., health, self-beliefs of efficacy, resiliency, optimism, trust, motivation, feeling valued, a desire to learn, ownership and the need for challenge; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Shuck et al., 2011). The proposition is that resources are then used to overcome or buffer from job demands, such as physical demands (the amount of physical effort necessary for a job), work conditions (health hazards, temperature, and noise), or other psychological, social, organizational aspects of the job, which require sustained physical and/or psychological effort or skills (Bakker, 2011; Christian et al. 2011).

According to the model, organizations are responsible for the provision of physical, social, individual or organizational aspects of the job that support employees in successfully coping with job demands, attaining goals, and achieving personal growth and development (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Bakker, 2011; Crawford et al. 2010; Saks & Gruman, 2014). However, the revised version of JD-R model (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) also proposes that employees can engage in job crafting, which refers to the process of actively shaping the content or design of the work by choosing tasks, negotiating different job content and assigning meaning to the tasks or jobs if needed (Bakker, 2011). Employees can, for example, increase their own job demands in order to create a more challenging work environment. Similarly, they can choose to increase their job resources by asking feedback from their supervisors or colleagues (Bakker, 2011) and develop their personal resources through learning and development initiatives and through self-initiated action (Albrecht et al. 2015).

The JD-R model has been operationalised in a number of countries. For example, Hakanen et al. (2008) used JD-R model in a three-year follow-up study among Finnish dentists. Their research supported the argument that job resources influence future work engagement, which predicts organizational commitment, whereas job demands predict burnout over time. Similarly, a study among Dutch managers showed that increases in job demands and decreases in job resources predicted burnout across a one-year period, whereas increases in resources predicted work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2009). However, the model has been criticized for its inability to differentiate between the types of job demands with respect to the way they tend

to be appraised by employees (Crawford et al., 2010). Indeed, research using JD-R model as a basis has produced conflicting, inconsistent, and unexpected findings on the relationship between demands and engagement, leading scholars to conclude that demands are not relevant for predicting engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

In contrast, Crawford et al. (2010, p.835) argue that job demands can be divided in challenge demands and hindrance demands. Challenge demands (e.g., high workload, time pressure, and high levels of job responsibility) have the potential to promote mastery, personal growth and future gains. Employees tend to perceive these demands as opportunities to learn, achieve, and demonstrate the type of competence that tends to be rewarded. Hindrance demands (e.g., resource inadequacies, emotional conflict, role conflict/ambiguity/overload, organizational politics, and administrative hassles or red tape) have the potential to thwart personal growth, learning, and goal attainment. Employees tend to perceive these demands as constraints, barriers, or roadblocks that unnecessarily hinder their progress toward goal attainment and rewards that accumulate as a result of being evaluated as an effective performer. (Crawford et al., 2010, pp.836-838)

In other words, the Differentiated JD-R Model (Crawford et al., 2010) posits that challenge demands trigger positive emotions and cognitions that result in active, problem-focused coping styles reflected in increased engagement, whereas hindrance demands trigger negative emotions and cognitions that result in passive, emotion-focused coping styles reflected in decreased engagement (ibid.). This view is in line with other researchers, who have argued that although job resources are expected to be a source of work engagement when job demands are high, job demands may also somewhat diminish employee vigor and dedication (e.g., Mauno et al., 2007). Such claims have led researchers such as Schaufeli & Taris (2014, p.56) to clarify that in the JD-R Model "challenges" should be conceptualized as "resources," because they are valued positively, whereas a negatively appraised resources (threat) should be conceptualized as a demands. Moreover, the authors argue that as a rule, resources are appraised positively, whereas demands are appraised negatively, but occasionally demands can be challenging and resources can be threatening (ibid.).

According to Bailey (2015, p.7) the JD-R model assumes individuals respond in rational ways to a limited range of aspects within their work setting and are driven purely to optimize their situation, but fails to take account of heterogeneous, micro- and macro-level contextual factors, interpersonal interactions and emotional or irrational responses. It fails to address issues of

power and politics within the workplace, and the question of who controls the resources and demands experienced by workers (ibid.). Naturally, there are also country level differences in the prevailing mix of demands and resources. For example, Greek employees work longer hours than Dutch, they are at a higher level of risk exposure, they perceive lower levels of autonomy at work, lower task rotation, and they receive significantly less training (Demerouti et al. 2001). Hence, the potential drivers of engagement or work conditions related to employee engagement might not be equally important for all employees in all countries (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Gruman & Saks, 2011). Although the Differentiated JD-R model highlighted the importance of taking account of how demands are experienced by employees, it fails to explain such contextual factors.

Another limitation of the JD-R model is that it focuses on "work" engagement (the relationship between an employee and his or her work) even though, as suggested by the various terms used to describe engagement, there are other forms of employee engagement (Saks & Gruman, 2014). Employees have numerous roles and responsibilities at work in addition to their job or work role and it is possible for employees to be engaged or disengaged in various domains of their work lives (Saks & Gruman, 2014; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2011). As Saks & Gruman (2014, p.174) describe, "it is possible for employees, such as university professors, to be fully engaged in their tasks (e.g., teaching) but disengaged when it comes to their role in their department or university. Conversely, an employee might be highly engaged in activities associated with their role as a member of the organization but disengaged from their job."

In sum, people do not only engage themselves in their work role but also in particular tasks. Job demands and job resources can be understood as antecedents of engagement. The fact that all sorts of demands and resources can be included in the JD-R Model is a strength, as well as a weakness, as it adds to the model's flexibility, in that it can be used in many different contexts, but at the cost of limited generalizability (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). While employees can perceive job demands as either hindrances of challenges, job resources are usually claimed to have only positive impact on engagement. Nevertheless, because there are individual differences in how both demands and resources are perceived, it is likely that the same demands or resources can evoke different responses or varying degrees of engagement in different individuals.

2.2.5 Social Exchange Model of Engagement

Building on earlier work of Bakker and Demerouti (2004), Saks (2006, p.603) points out that social exchange theory (SET) argues that obligations are generated through a series of interactions between parties who are in a state of reciprocal interdependence: actions of one party lead to a response or actions by the other party. In other words, relationships at work evolve over time into trusting, loyal, and mutual commitments as long as all parties involved abide by reciprocity or repayment rules (Schaufeli, 2014). Drawing from this idea, the conditions of engagement in both Kahn's (1990) and Maslach et al.'s (2001) model can be considered economic and socio emotional exchange resources within Saks' (2006) social exchange model of engagement. Saks (2006, p.603) argued that when an organization fails to provide these resources, individuals are more likely to withdraw and disengage themselves from their roles. Thus, "the amount of cognitive, emotional, and physical resources that an individual is prepared to devote in the performance of one's work roles is contingent on the resources received from the organization" (Saks, 2006, p.603).

In addition, Tyler & Blader (2003, pp.356-357) propose that the degree to which people invest themselves in their groups (by working on behalf of the group) is influenced by the role the group plays in how the individual thinks and feels about himself. For example, group members with strong social identities vis-a`-vis a group can be motivated to meet the needs of the group and to advance group goals because for them, group success is equivalent to individual success (Tyler & Blader, 2003). Hence, the amount of resources that an individual is prepared to devote in the performance of one's work roles can also depend on the personal, interpersonal and social resources.

Macey and Schneider (2008, p.25) recently noted that there are limits on the pool of energy and resources available to employees. Therefore, sustained levels of engagement might be difficult to achieve. Indeed, Seppälä et al. (2015, pp.371-373) showed, that although the levels of work engagement can be quite stable over long periods (over the years, for example) they actually fluctuate within shorter periods (few days or few weeks). Thus, it can be argued that employee engagement is a rather momentary and transient experience that fluctuates within individuals within short periods of time (Sonnentag & Demerouti, 2010) depending on their personal or interpersonal resources and in response to the resources they receive from their organization (Saks, 2006; Sonnentag & Demerouti, 2010; Crawford et al., 2010). As a result, levels of

engagement vary within the same person from one day to another in response to contextual factors (Bakker, 2015).

2.2.6 Integrative Model of Employee Engagement

Aiming to integrate the JD-R model with Kahn's (1990, 1992) theory, Saks and Gruman (2014) introduced an Integrative Model of Employee Engagement. Within their model, job resources can be located at various levels, such as the organization, interpersonal and social relations, task and personal level (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The model proposes that personal resources are influenced by other job resources and mediate the relationship between job resources and engagement (Saks & Gruman, 2014). Similarly, the ability of management to deliver the resources and to buffer employees from hindrance demands also plays an important role in the engagement process (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Spreitzer et al., 2010; Saks & Gruman, 2014). Hence, in comparison to the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), this model does address issues of power and politics within the workplace, as well as the question of who controls the resources and demands experienced by workers.

The model focuses on linking specific job resources and job demands to each of the Kahn's (1990, pp. 702-716) psychological conditions (meaningfulness, safety and availability). Task level resources (task characteristics, role characteristics, and work factors) influence psychological meaningfulness in work (Kahn, 1990). As Saks & Gruman (2014, p.175) put it, people experience meaningfulness in work when they feel worthwhile, useful, and valuable – as though they make a difference and are not taken for granted. Organization level resources are characteristics that influence meaningfulness at work. In contrast to meaningfulness in work, meaningfulness at work is more derives from one's membership in the organization itself rather than one's specific tasks (Saks & Gruman, 2014). Meaningfulness at work is believed to result in organization engagement.

Interpersonal and social relations resources (such as supervisor or coworker support; Shuck et al., 2011) are important for meaningfulness at work, psychological safety and availability. Safety means, that employees must feel safe to fully engage themselves in a role without fear of negative consequences to their self-image, status, or career. Such feelings are important and necessary for all types of employee engagement (Gruman & Saks, 2012). Availability means that employees must possess the physical, emotional and psychological resources necessary for investing oneself in role performance. Personal level resources, such as self-efficacy (i.e. people's beliefs about their capabilities to control events that affect their lives), organizational-

based self-esteem (i.e. employees' beliefs that they can satisfy their needs by participating in roles within the organization) and optimism (i.e. the tendency to believe that one will generally experience good outcomes in life) are associated with psychological availability (Saks & Gruman, 2014). Personal resources not only predict different types of engagement but are also influenced by other job resources. Thus, personal resources mediate the relationship between job resources and types of engagement and are therefore important and necessary for all types of employee engagement (ibid.).

Table 1. Relationship of resources, psychological conditions and types of engagement

Resource	Psychological Condition	Type of Engagement
1. Task level	Meaningfulness in work	Task engagement and work engagement
2. Organization level	Meaningfulness at work	Organization engagement
3. Interpersonal and social level	Safety	Task, work, organization, and work group engagement
4. Personal level	Availability	Task, work, organization, and work group engagement

Saks and Gruman (2014, p.177) also argue that the consequences of employee engagement are a function of the type of engagement (task, work/ job, group/team, and organization), as shown in Table 1. For example, work engagement will be most likely to influence work or job outcomes such as job satisfaction and job performance, whereas organization engagement will be most likely to influence organization-related outcomes such as organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior (ibid.). In contrast to previous models, the integrated engagement model helps to explain why employees are likely to vary in the extent to which they are engaged in their work, certain tasks, the organization, and their work group. Thus, the model has implications for the interventions that will be required to increase engagement, especially in terms of the type of engagement that an organization will be most concerned about improving (ibid.).

However, although the Integrative Model of Employee Engagement acknowledges that people might perceive job demands and job resources differently, it still fails to account for the individual's cultural and organizational context. To give an example, the authors state that the primary drivers of psychological safety are perceptions of social systems related to support and relationships (Saks & Gruman, 2014). However, simply stating that employees who experience strong support and commitment in their group, therefore feel psychologically safe, would be an over simplification. The existing research on intercultural differences has shown that, for

example, the importance of maintaining one's public image varies between cultures. In Russia, employees are highly sensitive and conscious of what their colleagues think of and see in their performance (Tourigny et al. 2013; Ashill et al., 2015) and there is a concern that a mistake at work could result in criticism by others and losing one's face. Thus, even if employees would report perceiving social and interpersonal resources favorably, it does not necessarily mean that they experience psychological safety.

2.2.7 Summary of Employee Engagement Frameworks and Models

Over the course of the last decade, employee engagement has received a great deal of attention in the academic literature. Scholars from a broad range of academic traditions have contributed to construction of frameworks and models summarized in Table 2. As stated before, cross-cultural efforts to study engagement have usually relied on quantitative self-report methods, focusing on developing the construct in western business environments (Bailey et al 2015). Even though the field has evolved, it can be concluded that employee engagement is a relatively young academic field that lacks a solid base of empirical research to test and validate core conceptual ideas.

Table 2. Summary of Employee Engagement Models and Frameworks

Author and measure	Idea in Brief
Kahn, (1990) Psychological engagement	Engaged employees are psychologically present when occupying and performing an organizational role. Engagement results from meaningfulness, safety, and availability.
Buckingham and Coffman, (1999) Employee engagement	Performance and commitment to the organizational goals require a substantial psychological adaptation and involvement from the part of employees due to changes in the work place.
Demerouti and Bakker, n.d Disengagement (OBLI)	OLBI includes two dimensions: one ranging from exhaustion to vigor and a second ranging from cynicism to dedication.
Maslach et al. (2001) Engagement and burnout	Engagement, characterized by energy, involvement, and efficacy, is a direct opposite of burnout and can therefore be measured using the same instruments.
Schaufeli et al. (2002) Work engagement • Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)	Burnout and engagement are opposite concepts, measured independently with different instruments. Work engagement is a persistent, positive, work-related psychological state characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption. Validity and reliability of UWES has been confirmed in multinational cultural contexts and samples.
Demerouti et al. (2001) Work engagement • Job Demands-Resources Model	Job demands drain employee's energy resources, leading to burnout and health impairment, whereas the availability of personal and job resources stimulates work engagement. To overcome job demands, employees actively mobilize and create different resources through job crafting.
Saks (2006) Work engagement • Social Exchange Model of Engagement	Engagement is distinct and unique construct that consists of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components associated with individual role performance depending on the available personal and organizational resources.
Macey and Schneider (2008) Trait, state and behavioral engagement	Employee engagement is a desirable condition with an organizational purpose. Individual traits and work conditions facilitate state engagement and together they yield behavioral engagement.
Sonnentag & Demerouti, (2010) Trait and state engagement	Trait engagement is a stable constitute reflected in state engagement - a momentary and transient experience that depends on the available personal and organizational resources.
Wollard and Schuk, (2010) Employee engagement	Employee engagement is an individual employee's cognitive, emotional, and behavioral state directed towards organizational goals.
Crawford et al. (2010) Work engagement • Differentiated JD- R Model	Job demands can be divided into challenge demands and hindrance demands. Challenge demands foster engagement, whereas hindrance demands lead to burnout.
Saks and Gruman (2014) Task, work, group and organization engagement • Integrative Model of Employee Engagement	Job resources and demands are antecedents of Kahn's psychological conditions and each results in different type of engagement. Outcomes of engagement are a function of the type of engagement.

2.3 Enhancement of Employee Engagement

Jenkins and Delbridge (2013, p.2670) argue, that organizational efforts to foster engagement can be driven either from a will to gain competitive advantage or, conversely, from a desire to improve working conditions and the employment relationship. Either way, although a variety of contemporary engagement frameworks exist for research, these models are limited in that while many offer useful insights into what constitutes engagement, they rarely provide guidelines on what needs to be addressed when adopting an employee engagement strategy (Truss et al., 2013; for an exception, see Gruman & Saks, 2011 and Albrecht et al. 2015). Nevertheless, because employee engagement is dependent on the job demands and the available personal and organizational resources (Sonnentag & Demerouti, 2010; Crawford et al., 2010; Saks & Gruman, 2014) there are multiple ways employee engagement can be influenced both by the individual and the organization (Shuck & Wollard, 2010; Leiter & Maslach, 2010).

In any organization, employees must deal with different types of job demands, such as physical demands (the amount of physical effort necessary for a job), work conditions (health hazards, temperature, and noise), or other psychological, social, organizational aspects of the job, which require sustained physical and/or psychological effort or skills (Bakker, 2011; Christian et al. 2011). Demands have the potential to be both a burden and a positive challenge for employees (Obschonka et al., 2012). Hindrance demands trigger negative emotions and cognitions that result in passive, emotion-focused coping styles reflected in decreased engagement, whereas challenge demands trigger positive emotions and cognitions that result in active, problem-focused coping styles reflected in increased engagement (Crawford et al. 2010). Because challenge demands have the potential to promote mastery, personal growth and future gains, these demands are often seen as rewarding work experiences well worth the discomfort involved.

The proposition is that organizations may increase employee engagement through the provision of physical, organizational and social aspects of the job that support employees in successfully coping with these different types of demands (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Bakker, 2011; Crawford et al. 2010; Saks & Gruman, 2014). In order to provide employees with sufficient resources, organizations must first understand what their employees want from their employment. From an economic perspective, the individual employee wants to see his or her efforts rewarded by financial or other material rewards, such as income (Jenkins & Delbridge, 2013) Moreover, the employee wants his or her need for job security to be fulfilled, now and in

the future (Oldham & Hackman, 2010; Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013). From a non-economic point of view, employees attach major importance to work that is meaningful and challenging, matches personal interests, provides opportunities for learning and career development and gives a feeling of accomplishment (Kalleberg & Marsden, 2013; Oldham & Hackman, 2010). In addition, employees also desire significant relationships and interactions with others at work (Oldham & Hackman, 2010). A resourceful work environment, thus, provides employees with opportunities to fulfill both economic and non-economic outcomes (Hakanen et al., 2008; Oldham & Hackman, 2010).

According to Gruman & Saks (2011, p.127) current organizational approaches for driving employee engagement involve the use of an employee engagement survey to measure the various factors that might be related to engagement. The results from the engagement surveys are then used to assess and benchmark engagement levels to identify opportunities for improvement. Examples of often measured factors are summarized in Figure 1 (Bakker et al. 2011; Anitha, 2014). "Work environment" refers to providing physical resources to complete tasks, but also to endorsing job characteristics (i.e. autonomy, challenging opportunities for learning) that promote an environment of working together (Saks, 2006). "Leadership" refers to perceived organizational and supervisor support (i.e. top-management employee relations, approachability of top management, their values and ethical conduct, equality in treatment, respecting the views of subordinates), whereas "team and coworker" refers to the perceived team orientation and support from colleagues (i.e. cooperation in teams, feedback; Anitha, 2014). "Training and career development" includes scope for advancement and career growth (well-designed policy, adequate opportunities for career growth and advancement, clearly laid down career growth paths; implementation of the promotion policy in a fair and transparent manner, help to the employees in achieving growth; Saks & Gruman, 2014), while "compensation" refers to rewards and recognition (attractive compensation/monetary benefits vis-á-vis qualifications and responsibility, adequate compensation for the work and intra-organization parity; Anitha, 2014). Procedural justice and distributive justice are examples of "organizational policies" and "work well-being" relates to work-life balance (appreciative of personal needs, able to spend time with family; Saks, 2006).

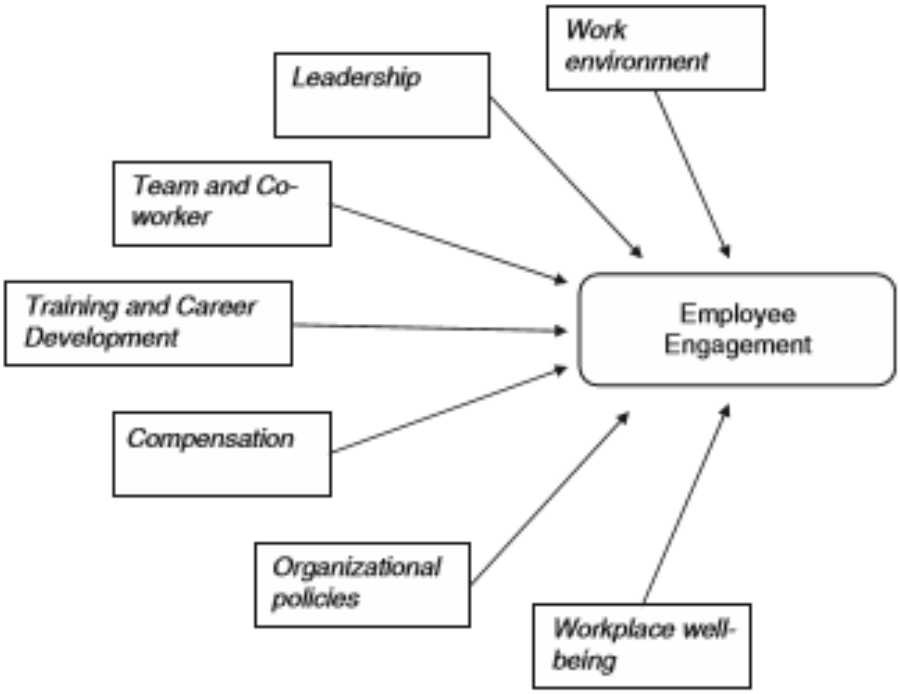


Figure 1. Factors facilitating employee engagement according to Anitha (2014, p.311)

However, although organizations can offer a wide variety of resources, employees may or may not use them in a way that creates value for them (Vargo & Lusch, 2015). For example, organizing rigorous training on customer service does not create any value, unless the employees perceive that being able to better serve the customer is somehow beneficial for them. Moreover, HRM practices aimed at improving engagement typically reflect and reinforce national culture (Fey & Denison, 2003). Culture specific values govern the thinking and behavior of individuals at work and provide a frame of reference against which employees define work experiences (Meindl et al., 1989). Accordingly, cultural values determine the way resources are perceived and, ultimately, the extent to which people choose to engage themselves to their work, tasks, organization or group (Shuck et al., 2011). Thus, not all investments in HR practices with the goal of improving engagement levels are likely to be equally productive for all employees in all countries (Macey & Schneider, 2008).

Similarly, the ability of management to deliver the resources also plays an important role in the engagement process (Macey & Schneider, 2008). However, not much attention has been devoted to the topic (Jenkins & Delbridge, 2013; Bailey et al., 2015). To provide managers with more tools, some researchers have argued that employee engagement should be approached from a talent management or performance management view, implying that employee

engagement could be measured and managed with similar tools (Gruman & Saks, 2011; Albrecht et al. 2015).

Moreover, because managers are not always available for feedback, the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004) suggests that also employees can affect the work environment and shape the content or design of the work by choosing tasks, negotiating different job content and assigning meaning to the tasks or jobs (Bakker, 2011). For example, in Lassila&Tikanoja garbage collectors no longer call themselves garbage collectors, but raw material collectors, referring to the fact that although most of the household waste was previously regarded as pure waste to be dumped to landfills, today it is used to generate energy (Lassila&Tikanoja, 2013). Employees can also increase their own job demands to create a more challenging work environment or choose to increase their job resources by asking feedback from their supervisors or colleagues (Bakker, 2011) and by developing their personal resources through learning and development initiatives or self-initiated action (Albrecht et al. 2015). Employees who are generally more optimistic, have higher self-efficacy (belief in one's own ability to complete tasks and reach goals), resilience and self-esteem, are typically better able to mobilize their resources (Bakker, 2008). This creation of resources, or job crafting, fosters engagement over time and can lead to a positive gain spiral (Bakker, 2011): gaining resources improves engagement, which in turn leads to gaining additional resources (Hobfoll, 2001).

In sum, a resourceful work environment provides employees with opportunities to fulfill both economic and non-economic outcomes (Hakanen t al., 2008; Oldham & Hackman, 2010) by offering possibilities for cooperation with colleagues, providing learning, development, promotion opportunities, and challenging work conditions that match its employees' personal interests and motives (Jenkins & Delbridge, 2013). Employee engagement requires a two-way relationship between employer and employee (Robinson et al. 2004): On one hand, organizations are responsible for the provision of physical and organizational aspects of the job that support employees in successfully coping with job demands, attaining goals, and achieving personal growth and development (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Bakker, 2011; Crawford et al. 2010; Saks & Gruman, 2014). On the other hand, employees can affect the individual, interpersonal and social aspects of the job or engage in job crafting to gain more organizational resources.

2.4 Definition of Employee Engagement

Based on the review of academic literature, employee engagement is a distinct and unique construct, often defined as an individual employee's positive, work-related psychological state of mind (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Although engagement is not an attitude (Saks, 2006), it is all about individual's attitudes, comprising feelings, beliefs and behavioral inclinations towards targets (one's work role, group or organization) and behaviors (work activity; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Ajzen, 2001; Solinger et al., 2008; Saks & Gruman, 2014). These attitudes directly lead to an intention (i.e., the conscious plan to carry out the behavior) and, subsequently, to the actual behavior (Solinger et al., 2008). Thus, engagement has no physical properties, but it precedes and guides actions (Ajzen, 2001), often resulting in a willingness to invest oneself and expend one's discretionary effort to help the employer succeed (Saks & Gruman, 2014).

People exhibit engagement when they become physically involved in tasks, are cognitively vigilant, focused, attentive, and emotionally connected to their work and to others in the service of their work (Kahn, 1990; Saks, 2006). Such a state cannot be mandated or forced (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Instead, employees will choose to engage themselves to their work, certain tasks, the organization or their work group (Saks & Gruman, 2014) to varying degrees, depending on their personal resources and in response to the resources they receive from their organization (Saks, 2006; Sonnentag & Demerouti, 2010; Crawford et al., 2010). Because organizational policies, procedures and behaviors that govern the behavior of individuals at work typically reflect and reinforce the national culture (Fey & Denison, 2003), the experience of engagement ultimately depends on the underlying national cultural values that provide clues to employees on how to behave and what is acceptable (Shuck et al., 2011).

Since engagement starts with one person's experience of the available resources and demands at a time (Sonnentag & Demerouti, 2010), there are individual differences in how and when people feel engaged (Bandura, 2001; Hirschfeld & Thomas, 2008). Moreover, there are limits on the pool of energy and resources available to employees and sustained levels of engagement might therefore be difficult to achieve (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Hence, engagement is a rather momentary and transient experience that fluctuates within individuals within short periods of time (Sonnentag & Demerouti, 2010): Trait engagement explains why someone might feel engaged at work while others do not, whereas state engagement explains why on specific days one might feel engaged and on others not (ibid.).

In sum, characteristics of organizations and employees drive beliefs regarding the antecedents of engagement (Kahn, 1990; Crawford et al. 2010). Accordingly, for the purpose of this thesis, employee engagement is defined as an individual employee's positive cognitive, emotional, and behavioral state directed toward desired organizational outcomes (Shuck & Wollard, 2010), reflected in the degree to which an individual is willing to adapt his or her behavior with relation to his or her work, tasks, organization or group (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2004; Schuk & Wollard, 2010). As Hellevig (2012, p.25) puts it,

> "employee engagement is about how to achieve a company's strategic goals by creating the conditions for human resources to thrive and, for each staff member, manager and executive to be fully switched on in their jobs so as to deliver their best efforts in the best interest of the business".

2.5 Employee Engagement and the Role of Culture

As stated before, characteristics of employees and organizations drive beliefs regarding the psychological antecedents of engagement (Kahn, 1990; Crawford et al. 2010). Because organizational policies, procedures and behaviors that govern the behavior of individuals at work typically reflect and reinforce the national culture (Fey & Denison, 2003), the general value characteristics provide a frame of reference against which employees define work experiences (Meindl et al., 1989). Consequently, the experience of engagement ultimately depends on the underlying national cultural values, that provide clues to employees on how to behave and what is acceptable (Shuck et al., 2011).

Culture, as defined by Schein (2010, p.18), is

> "a pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaption and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems."

According to Schwartz (2013, p.550), the three most important problems any society has to confront are related to (1) defining the boundaries between the person and the group and the optimal relations between them; (2) ensuring coordination among people to produce goods and services in ways that preserve the social fabric and (3) regulating the utilization of human and natural resources. For all societies, there is a limited number of possible solutions. The preference to overcome challenges in a particular way, then, determines the cultural orientation of the society (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961).

Parsons & Shils (1951), Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961), Hofstede (1991), Trompenaars (1993) and Schwartz (1994) are perhaps the best known researchers to study differences in national cultures. While the measures developed by these researchers have much in common, for the purpose of this research the Schwartz's (1994) theory of value constructs is studied in more detail, because his instrument is included in the biannual European Social Survey, the results of which form one part of the secondary data collected for this research. Schwartz (2013, pp.550-551) argues that there are three bipolar resolutions to each of the three societal problems mentioned before. The following descriptions of these cultural dimensions are adopted from the Handbook of the Economics of Art and Culture (Schwartz, 2013):

1. Autonomy versus embeddedness. The problem of defining the optimal relations and boundaries between the person and the group translates into the question: "To what extent should people be treated as autonomous versus as embedded in their groups?" In autonomy cultures, people are treated as autonomous, bounded entities who are encouraged to cultivate and express their preferences, feelings, ideas, and abilities, and to find meaning in their own uniqueness. Examples of important values include broadmindedness, creativity, pleasure, and varied life. Other cultures treat people as entities embedded in the collectivity: Meaning in life is expected to come largely through in-group social relationships, through identifying with the group, participating in its shared way of life, and striving toward its shared goals. Thus, emphasis is put on maintaining the status quo and restraining actions that might disrupt in-group solidarity or the traditional order. Important values in such cultures are social order, respect for tradition, security, obedience, and wisdom.

2. Egalitarianism versus hierarchy. The problem of ensuring coordination among people to produce goods and services in ways that preserve the social fabric translates into the question: "How can human interdependencies be managed in a way that elicits coordinated, productive activity rather than disruptive behavior or withholding of effort?" Egalitarian cultures socialize people to internalize a commitment to cooperate, to feel concern for the welfare of all, and to act voluntarily to benefit others. Important values in such cultures include equality, social justice, responsibility, help, and honesty. Hierarchy cultures, on the other hand, rely on hierarchical systems of ascribed roles to insure responsible, productive behavior. They define the unequal distribution of power, roles, and resources as legitimate and even desirable. People are socialized to take a hierarchical distribution of roles for granted, to comply with the obligations and rules attached to their roles, to show deference to superiors and expect deference

from subordinates. Values of social power, authority, humility, and wealth are highly important in hierarchical cultures.

3. Harmony versus mastery. The problem of regulating the utilization of human and natural resources translates into the question: "To what extent should individuals and groups control and change their social and natural environment versus leaving it undisturbed and unchanged?" In cultures that emphasize harmony, it is more important to fit in than exploit the social and natural world, and to accept, preserve, and appreciate the way things are rather than try to change them. In such cultures, efforts to bring about change are discouraged, whereas maintaining smooth relations and avoiding conflict is encouraged. Important values in harmony cultures include world at peace, unity with nature, protecting the environment, and accepting one's portion. In contrast, mastery cultures encourage active self-assertion by individuals or groups in order to master, direct, and change the natural and social environment, and thereby to attain group or personal goals. Active, pragmatic problem solving that can produce progress is appreciated. Values such as ambition, success, daring, self-sufficiency, and competence are especially important in mastery cultures.

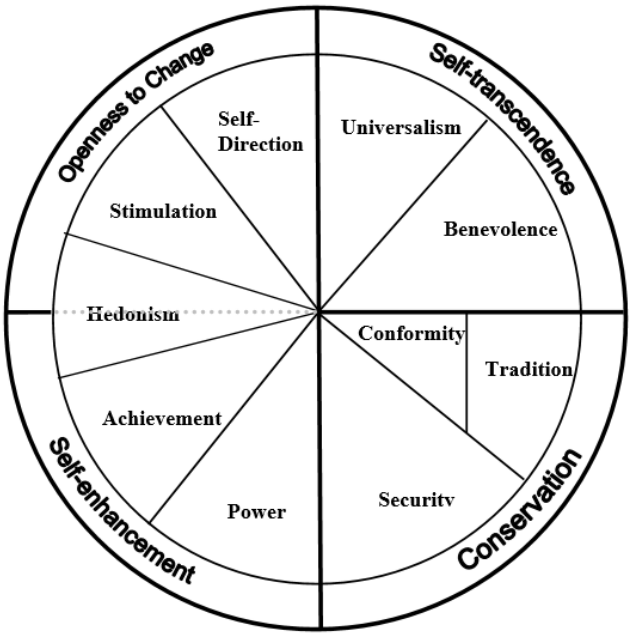


Figure 2. Value construct categories according to Schwartz (2012)

Each cultural value orientation consists of distinct value constructs: security, conformity, tradition, self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power, benevolence and universalism. These value constructs are described in more detail in appendix 1. Each value

construct can be further combined into larger categories of values, the importance of which varies between cultures. The relationships of the value constructs in terms of the different value categories is illustrated in Figure 2 above. According to Schwartz (2003, pp. 259-290), each value category has its own counter-pair, meaning that a rise in the significance of one category of values leads to the significance of the other category to go down. Hence, the relationships between the contradictory value categories and constructs should be seen as an interplay of opposing characteristics in a bipolar continuum.

The first value category, "conservation", comprises of security, conformation and tradition. Security connotes feelings of safety, harmony and stability of relationships, one self and the wider society. Consequently, tradition refers to the importance of maintaining and preserving cultural, family or religious traditions, whereas conformity is related to the importance of complying with laws, rules, social norms or formal obligations to avoid upsetting or harming other people. The second value category, "openness to change" consists of values of self-direction, stimulation and hedonism. Self-direction is connected to thinking up new ideas, being creative, making independent decisions and acting upon them. Hedonism refers to devoting time to what one personally thinks is fun and pleasurable, whereas stimulation, refers to willingness to try out new things and to take risks. (Schwartz, 2013)

Values of power and achievement make up the third category, labeled "self-enhancement". Power refers to the importance of attaining or maintaining a dominant position within the general societal system through exercising control over people and resources. Achievement, in turn, addresses the need to show personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards. The last category of values, formed by universalism and benevolence, is called "self-transcendence". Universalism is about committing to equality, justice and protections of people and environment, whereas benevolence is about devotion to the welfare of one's in-group by acting as a reliable, loyal and trustworthy member. (Schwartz, 2013)

Thus, according to Schwartz (2013), there are three distinct cultural value orientations consisting of distinct value constructs that can be combined into four larger categories of values. The importance of these different value categories varies between cultures, reflecting the populations' preference to overcome challenges in a particular way.

As already mentioned in the introduction and elaborated in the section 2.2, extant cross-cultural studies that take into account differences in the national context are somewhat rare. In addition,

most studies on engagement have been conducted in western countries (Rothmann, 2014), whereas research in the developing market contexts, such as China, India and Latin America, is only starting to develop (Farndale et al., 2014). Thus, researchers have raised the question of whether the dynamics highlighted by employee engagement research are applicable to other cultures with economic systems, governments and cultural values different from those in the North America and Western Europe (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Shuck et al., 2011; Rothmann, 2014; Farndale et al., 2014).

Likewise, it was stated that existing cross-cultural studies typically focus on testing psychological models for the factorial validity of the engagement questionnaires (Fong & Ng, 2012; Schaufeli et al., 2009), or on their reliability in different cultural contexts (Robinson et al., 2004; Koyuncu et al. 2006; Shimazu et al., 2010a; Schaufeli et al., 2014). The proposition is that quantitative, individual-level engagement scores can be aggregated to measure engagement at the work group, organizational, or country level as well (Attridge, 2009; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). The findings indicate that each country and/or culture has certain factors seen as important in the workplace. For example, in Canada competitive base pay, work-life balance and career advancement opportunities are considered important, whereas in India the focus is on the reputation of the organization as a good employer. In the United States the role of competitive health benefits is significant, while in Germany the level of autonomy is appreciated, in Japan it's the calibre of co-workers and in the Netherlands the collaborative environment. (Lockwood, 2007)

However, these results have been somewhat inconsistent and their applicability for practitioners and researchers questionable (Saks & Gruman, 2014). For example, country level differences are difficult to interpret as the composition of the samples often differs in terms of occupation, age, gender, tenure and occupational rank (Fong & Ng, 2012). While demographic factors in general cannot predict employee engagement, they are important in that within the country specific context there might be different expectations for different demographic groups. Moreover, there is a wide variety of different concepts and frameworks available for research. As a result, researchers have often used differing concepts and measures, as illustrated in the earlier sections. In addition, the over-reliance on quantitative self-report methods (Bailey et al 2015) ignores the fact that for example interview participants might have important, insights that cannot be explained in a standardized survey (Rubin & Rubin, 2005).

To summarize, the cultural value orientations consist of distinct value constructs that can be combined into four larger categories of values. The importance of these different value categories varies between cultures, reflecting the populations' preference to overcome challenges in a particular way. Although cross-cultural studies that take these differences into account are somewhat rare, the findings indicate that in countries with different cultural orientations different factors are seen as important in the workplace.

2.6 Theoretical Frame of Reference

Based on the literature review, a modified version of the Integrative Model of Employee Engagement (Saks & Gruman, 2014), presented in Figure 3, was selected as theoretical framework for this study. This framework was chosen because it addresses employee engagement as independent construct from burnout. In addition, it differentiates the constituents of engagement into psychological conditions and their antecedents and emphasizes the nature of engagement as being dependent on individual perceptions of job resources and job demands, which affect to what extent people are engaged in their work, certain tasks, the organization, and their work group. As the experience of engagement is embedded in the individual's cultural context, I added the component of cultural and organizational values.

Cultural and Organizational Values

The cultural perspective of the framework focuses on the second research question "How perceptions of employee engagement drivers relate to features of Russian national culture?" to provide a localized explanation of employee engagement in Russia. The aim is to understand the possible associations between the Russian cultural orientation and the way demands and resources are perceived. An organization's culture consists of a set of shared values, goals, ideals, norms for behavior, and cultural symbols that stem from the national culture. As was discussed in the literature review, values govern the thinking and behavior of individuals. Therefore, values are likely to affect the way employees perceive and experience different job demands and job resources. Accordingly, the extent to which people choose to engage themselves to their work, tasks, organization or group is likely to depend on these values. The Russian cultural orientation is examined through a secondary data analysis.

Job Resources and Job Demands

The employee perspective concentrates on employee attitudes towards job resources and demands to answer the first research question, "How employees perceive drivers of employee engagement in multinational corporations operating in Russia?" According to the model,

resources can come from the task (e.g., skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, performance feedback), organization of work (e.g., role clarity, participation in decision-making), organization (e.g., pay, career opportunities, job security, training and other organizational processes), interpersonal and social relations (e.g., supervisor and coworker support, team climate, person's family; Shuck et al., 2011) or from the employees themselves (e.g., health, self-beliefs of efficacy, resiliency, optimism, trust, motivation, feeling valued, a desire to learn, ownership and the need for challenge; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Shuck et al., 2011). These resources are then used to overcome or buffer from job demands, such as physical demands (the amount of physical effort necessary for a job), work conditions (health hazards, temperature, and noise), or other psychological, social or organizational aspects of the job, which require sustained physical and/or psychological effort or skills (Bakker, 2011; Christian et al. 2011).

The proposition is that employees will choose to engage themselves to varying degrees depending on their personal resources and in response to the other resources related to the task, organization of work, organization or interpersonal and social resources. In line with the literature review, simply providing employees with resources is not enough. Although the ability of management to deliver the resources plays an important role in the engagement process (Macey & Schneider, 2008), the way these resources are perceived by employees is of equal importance. Employees tend to perceive resources and demands differently, according to their potential to promote mastery, personal growth and future gains or to thwart personal growth, learning, and goal attainment. As stated before, employee attitudes towards job resources and demands are studied through quantitative survey material as well as qualitative interviews with the company representatives.

Psychological Conditions and Type of Engagement

According to the framework, employee perceptions on specific job resources and job demands result in different psychological conditions, namely meaningfulness in work, meaningfulness at work, psychological availability and psychological safety. Meaningfulness is a sense of return on investment of a person's effort in his or her work. Meaningfulness in work derives from task characteristics, role characteristics, and work factors, whereas meaningfulness at work derives from one's membership in the organization. Safety is a sense of being able to employ oneself without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status or career. Availability means possessing the physical, emotional and psychological resources necessary

for investing oneself in role performance. Each condition predicts different type of engagement (task, work, organization, or group engagement). Accordingly, the proposition is that because the experience of engagement is embedded in the cultural values that guide attitudes related to resources and demands, the extent to which employees experience different types of engagement is also likely to be influenced by those values.

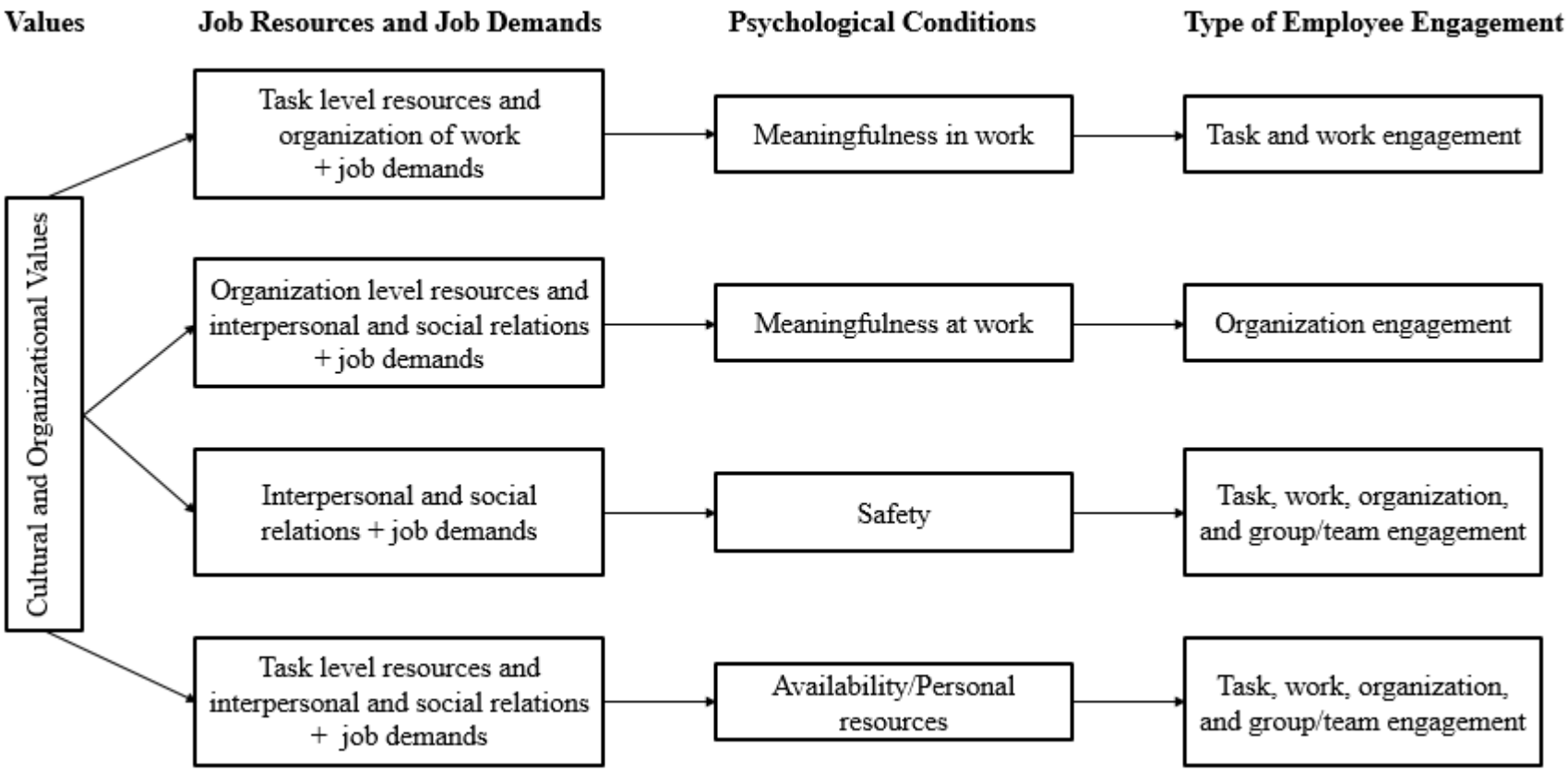


Figure 3. Theoretical framework modified and adopted from Saks and Gruman (2014)

3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

In this section, the research design for the study is described, along with the chosen research methods, justifying their use. First, the research process and selection of the topic is briefly discussed. Second, the case study approach is introduced and justified. Third, both quantitative and qualitative data collection procedures and data analysis methods are discussed. Finally, the validity and reliability of the research is evaluated.

3.1 Research Process

This thesis was started by finding a suitable topic. In addition to Aalto University School of Business, I also study in the Aleksanteri Institute in the National Russian and East European Studies Master's School because I have a personal interest in Russian business. To be able to incorporate my studies in the Institute to my Master's Degree in Aalto University, the thesis topic was to have some connotation with Russia or Eastern Europe. Because of my limited skills in the Russian language, I decided to look for a company with whom I could also work in Finnish or English. Fortum was chosen because of the company's long history of doing business in Russia. Therefore, I contacted Fortum to enquire whether they would have an HR related thesis topic in mind.

I was informed that since 2012, the focus of Fortum's personnel strategy has been on increasing personnel engagement and that a survey instrument called Fortum Sound is used to measure engagement levels approximately every 2 years. The results from surveys conducted in 2012 and 2014 were available for research. Based on our email discussions I created the initial research plan, which was later formalized at the corporate level. First set of material was sent to me in the end of April 2015 and the last interviews were completed in December 2015. Although the topic was crafted in co-operation, the company does not commission this thesis nor did I work as an intern.

3.2 Mixed Method Single Case Study Approach

The aim of this research was to study employee engagement in one Finland-based subsidiary in Russia to find out how employee engagement drivers are perceived within Russian business environment. Employee engagement research often lacks practical utility in organizational contexts (Macey & Schneider, 2008). To provide such contextual sense, a single case study was selected as an appropriate design frame, because it offers an opportunity and best tools to place the phenomena within its context (Yin, 2009). Critics of single case study approach argue that a small number of cases can offer no grounds for establishing reliability or generality of findings

(Gerring, 2004). However, the number of cases included in a study depends on the purpose of the study (Yin 2009): the objective of a case study is not always to strengthen a single explanation for a problem but rather to find multiple ways of seeing the phenomenon (Piekkari et al. 2008). Here, instead of finding a generalizable truth, the purpose is to provide insights into "why or why not" employee engagement, as conceptualized in the west, plays a role within Russian context. Accordingly, for the purposes of this thesis, case study is defined as an in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives of the complexity and uniqueness of a particular project, policy, institution, program or system in a “real life” context (Simons, 2014) through the use of a variety of data sources with the purpose of “confronting” theory with the empirical world (Piekkari et al. 2008).

While there are certainly other definitions available, Simons (2014, p.456) concludes that what unites them is, indeed, a commitment to studying the complexity that is involved in real situations and to defining case study other than by the methods of data collection that it employs. The differences in definition, then, partly stem from the diverse epistemological starting points from which practitioners and analysts of the case study arrive (Thomas, 2011). Therefore, there are a number of well-established exploratory, descriptive and explanatory methods to theorize from case studies (Welch et al., 2011).

Most common methods are inductive theory-building, natural experiment, interpretive sense making and contextualised explanation (Welch et al. 2011). The aim of inductive theory-building research is to propose associations between constructs and variables that can then be tested. Proponents of this method identify the main potential of the case study as lying in its capacity to induce new theory from empirical data (Eisenhardt, 1989). Others, however, argue that case studies are best suited to answer "how and why" questions (Yin, 2009). This kind of explanatory, rather than exploratory, case studies use deductive logic to test propositions, adjudicate among rival explanations, revise existing theories and establish causal relationships (Welch et al. 2011). In contrast, interpretive sense making, seeks to understand human experience through rich contextual description, narratives and personal engagement on the part of the researcher (Stake, 1995). Contextualised explanation, then, aims to combine the strength of the case study to contextualize with its explanatory potential: e.g., the context can be used to generate an explanation for the motives of human behavior (Welch et al. 2011).

Out of the methods described, exploratory and descriptive research are most common, because they enable a researcher to develop an initial, rough description and understanding of the topic (Yin, 2009). This research aims to describe the Russian business context to generate an explanation for how employee engagement drivers are perceived in Russia. Thus, this study can be classified as deductive, explanatory research in the sense that theoretical perspectives serve as guidelines for data collection and analysis. Yet, this research is also inductive, because the aim is to advance the understanding of employee engagement on the basis of empirical findings.

Interview-based case study is the most common qualitative research strategy in international business research (Baxter & Jack, 2008). However, within case study research multiple methods can be used (ibid.), if the elements of the research problem require it (Bryman, 2006). In this research, the aim was to study employee engagement in Russia to find out how employee engagement drivers are perceived within Russian business environment. In line with Heaton (2004, p.3) I chose to use pre-existing quantitative data to conduct a secondary data analysis, because locating and contacting a big enough sample to study values directing work in Russia or to discuss job resources related to organizational aspects of employee engagement would have created significant challenges and required far more resources than were available for this research. While the secondary data analysis using the ESS cultural value data and the employee engagement survey data provided by OAO Fortum gave insights into the cultural values and the job resources related to engagement, neither of these data sources could describe the job demands experienced by employees in OAO Fortum. Moreover, interview participants might have important, unique as well as common experiences regarding the survey items that could not be explained in a standardized survey (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Thus, interviews were needed to get additional information. Similar research design (combination of quantitative and qualitative data) has also been used to study employee engagement differences between the Netherlands and China (Farndale et al. 2014).

Such mixed methods approach allows tackling more complicated research questions and collecting richer and stronger evidence for the study, because it forces to collect complimentary data, and to conduct counterpart analysis (Yin, 2009). In other words, quantitative and qualitative approaches were mixed to elaborate, enhance, illustrate and clarify results from one method with the results from another, as well as to extend the breadth and range of enquiry by using different methods for different inquiry components (Kiessling & Harvey, 2005). In my opinion, doing so facilitated reaching deeper, broader and a more holistic understanding of

employee engagement in Russia than would have been possible with using only a single approach (Hurmerinta-Peltomaki & Nummela, 2006; Baxter and Jack, 2008). In addition, Hurmerinta-Peltomaki & Nummela (2006, p. 442) argue, that mixing methods can add value by increasing validity in the findings, informing the collection of the second data source, and assisting with knowledge creation.

3.3 Data Acquisition

The research process consisted of two different data collection methods that were sequentially conducted. First, secondary quantitative data was obtained from the company and retrieved from the ESS web page to study employee perceptions of job resources and the cultural values directing work in Russia. Second, email-based interviewing was selected as a method to gain more information of the demand side of employee engagement.

3.3.1 Secondary Data Collection

According to Kolb (2008, p.88) secondary data should only be used if the data are relevant and relate appropriately to the problem. For the purpose of this thesis, pre-existing quantitative data was collected for analysis from two different sources. To answer the first research question, "How employees perceive drivers of employee engagement in multinational corporations operating in Russia?" different documents mentioning the company and any effort(s) to engage employees were analyzed. The case company also provided quantitative data about different job resources in the form of Employee Engagement survey results from 2012 and 2014. The advantage of using the company's own data is that it allows examining items that the company regards important. In addition, because the presumption is that everyone in the company takes part to the global survey, the participation rate is high and the results more representative than would perhaps be if I were to make an additional survey myself.

However, using readymade material limits the amount of information that can be withdrawn and there is a risk that some aspects of the concept under study are not taken into account, as there is no opportunity to affect the content of the survey. Similarly, gaining access only to a limited part of the material made it impossible to make precise calculations. In this case, the material was sent to me in pdf format and it included only overall survey results, not individual answers. Even so, because the purpose of this thesis is to discover employee perceptions, not frequency of employee engagement drivers in Russia, the quantitative survey data serves as building basic understanding of the important resources in this specific context, while interviews were used to gain additional information.

To answer the second research question, "How perceptions of employee engagement drivers relate to features of Russian national culture?" quantitative data regarding cultural values in Russia was retrieved for analysis from the European Social Survey 2012 (ESS). By logging in to the online database, users may download any sections of the overall survey data from a specific year and country. In this case, the section called "human values" was the most important, as it concentrates on issues relevant to answering the second research question. The questions in this sections are based on Schwartz (1994) theory of value constructs and can be found in Appendix 2. To reveal implications of characteristics that are unique to Russian culture, it is important to take a closer look into the different value categories and constructs in comparison with the other countries. Thus, comparison data was retrieved for Netherlands, Spain, Norway and Finland. These countries were selected as comparison countries, because research on the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES, one of the most often used tools to measure engagement) was initiated in the Netherlands and most data so far has been collected in these countries.

The advantages of using ESS data include the fact that all participating countries are required to adhere to specifically defined methods (in terms of sampling, translation, questionnaire etc.) when conducting the ESS in their country. Moreover, anyone can familiarize themselves with these procedures in the ESS home page. Limitation of the ESS material is that instead of describing the values of a better defined group, such as people working in a specific industry, the data provides more general information about the human values within selected countries. However, for the purpose of evaluating the culture specific general value characteristics that define work in Russia, such descriptive information is enough as it is assumed that organizational culture in any industry reflects and reinforces the national culture.

3.3.2 Primary Data Collection

The aim of qualitative data collection was to capture and reflect narrative accounts of participants' experiences and provoke their in-depth reflection of their understandings of their work, work environment and the challenges they face. Because I was unable to travel to the company cite, Skype or telephone interviewing were first considered as alternative approaches to collect such data, since they are commonly used to access hard-to-reach participants (Hughes, 2012). However, it turned out that using Skype was off the limits, as it is a company policy not to use Skype at work to avoid potential information security risks. As for interviews on the phone, the busy schedule of the possible respondents would have made it difficult to agree on

a convenient time for conversations. I was also afraid that telephone interviewing could generate short answer responses, not the in-depth descriptive and reflective accounts that I was trying to elicit. Hence, the key informant proposed email interviewing, because this medium allows participants to have control over when to answer the questions.

Email interviews can be very close to or even hybrid with web-based surveys: the questions and other material can be either pasted into an email, or attached as a separate document (Burns, 2010). However, email interviewing through asynchronous email exchange is more interactive and can serve as a form of enriched interview, because it encourages participants to think about their responses and to draft and redraft what they want to write (Henson et al., 2000). In addition, answering by writing can result in more thoughtful and reflective answers, because people can take time to think about the questions or explore and revisit their narratives, unlike in face-to-face interviews (James, 2015).

Interviews were designed into a semi-structured format, because it allows for exploration of emergent themes, ideas as well as perceptions and opinions of respondents regarding complex issues. Although a standardized interview guide (a set of questions asked from all respondents), summarized in Appendix 3, was used, this method enables probing for more information and clarification of answers when necessary. Indeed, as recommended by James (2015), additional e-mail exchange took place after the actual interviews to clarify some of the issues and to revisit points that had been seemingly overlooked or only briefly responded.

Disadvantages of using email include misunderstanding the intent of the questions and not being able to immediately clarify them and the temptation to give short responses or responses that are not as focused as in face-to-face interviews (James, 2015). What is more, some people are not good at, or do not like, writing. Welch et al. (2002) also point out that when making interviews in Russia, researchers may experience gaining nothing more from an interview than could have been gained from reading press statements or annual reports: Russian employees believe knowledge to be a source of personal power and status that symbolizes their importance to the organization. Therefore, they may withhold information for the sake of maintaining individual power, control and status (Maner & Mead, 2010).

To overcome these problems, the purpose of the research was explained and each interviewee was sent an overview of the themes I wanted to discuss. This way everyone was familiar with the background and the nature of the research and had an opportunity to raise questions.

Because the purpose was to collect general information about the work environment and the work itself, the nature of the questions was not too personal. Nevertheless, the need for privacy and protection of the participant's privacy was acknowledged and turned out to be problematic: Email systems automatically send participants' addresses along with their responses, so it was not possible to ensure participants' anonymity. In addition, the key informant worked as an intermediary selecting participants and collecting the answers. She knew participants professionally and although this possibly facilitated their willingness to engage with the interviews, it might have inhibited participants' responses as well as their choice of whether or not to participate.

3.3.2.1 Construction of Interview Guide

An interview guide was used to focus on the agreed research topic (Rubin & Rubin, 2005) while providing flexibility and openness. The guide was split into four general sections:

1. General feelings about work environment and work
2. Job demands: Challenges
3. Job demands: Hindrances
4. Job resources

Questions in the first section concentrated on finding out how employees feel about their work and the overall work environment at OAO Fortum. Because job resources are supposed to be used to overcome job demands, it is important to understand what these demands are. As mentioned before, challenge demands can also be motivating, because they provide opportunities to learn, achieve, and demonstrate the type of competence that tends to get rewarded (Crawford et al. 2010). Accordingly, in the second section respondents were asked to identify motivating and exciting features of their work. In contrast, the third section concentrates on everyday problems and moments of frustration to identify hindrance job demands, which have the potential to thwart personal growth, learning, and goal attainment. Finally, the last section sheds light on how challenges or problems are usually overcome, that is, what job resources employees think are important in the problem solving process. The interview guide and questions are summarized in Appendix 3. As suggested by Beattie (1995), all questions were supplemented by probes to explore and gain a deeper understanding of issues.

3.3.2.2 Selection of Participants

A key informant was used to contact respondents. Key informant is someone with whom researchers have an especially good rapport and is particularly helpful, insightful, and in a position to assist with locating participants (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). The key informant in this study was a Russian, 34-year-old female who had worked in her current position for eleven months. Prior to assuming responsibility as the lead HR specialist, the key informant had worked for the company for six years in various positions. The key informant was appointed by OAO Fortum to function as intermediary between me and the company in the course of writing this thesis. Hence, it was natural to ask her to select respondents. The respondents were examples of information-rich cases that manifest the phenomenon of interest intensely (Patton et al., 2002). Due to my limited skills in Russian language, I asked the key informant to recommend people who would be able to answer the research questions in English.

Table 3. Interviewees' demographic characteristics

	Demographic characteristics	Place and date of the interview
Interviewee 1	• Male • 24 years • 1,5 years in Fortum • Compensation and Benefits Specialist	E-mail interview 8th of December, 2015
Interviewee 2	• Female • 34 years • 6 years in Fortum • Lead HR Specialist	E-mail interview 8th of December, 2015
Interviewee 3	• Female • 33 years • 4 years in Fortum • HR IT Specialist	E-mail interview 14th of December, 2015
Interviewee 4	• ? • 32 years • 6 years in Fortum • Assistant to Vice-president	E-mail interview 24th of December, 2015
Interviewee 5	• ? • 36 years • 1 year in Fortum • Training and Development Director	E-mail interview 24th of December, 2015

The number of employees interviewed was limited by the nature of conducting research in Russia: Interviewing several representatives from one organization is often challenging, because it can be perceived as an act of discourtesy and may be interpreted as a means of control or reexamination (Voldnes et al., 2014). In addition, interviewing often requires obtaining approval from top-level management, regardless of the level of the intended respondents (Voldnes et al., 2014). Hence, altogether five company representatives were selected to be

interviewed through email. All participants had access to email and were familiar with using it in their professional lives. Most interviewees were women working in specialist positions. All respondents were over 24 years old and had worked for Fortum at least for one year (for more details, see Table 3). No names were used to preserve the confidentiality of the participants.

3.4 Data Analysis

3.4.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

Analysis of pre-existing quantitative data is often referred to as secondary analysis. According to Heaton (2004, p.16), there are three main modes of secondary analysis: formal data sharing, informal data sharing or reusing researcher's own data. In the formal data sharing secondary analysis is carried out using data sets that have been officially made available for data sharing (although access may be controlled or restricted; ibid.), such as the ESS data used in this study. In informal data sharing data is either obtained directly from primary researchers and organizations by request, or indirectly through private disciplinary networks (Heaton, 2004). In this case, employee engagement survey data was obtained from the organization by request.

The quantitative data provided by the company was used for mapping out drivers of engagement, particularly job resources, in the organizational context. In other words, it was used to answer the first research question "How employees perceive drivers of employee engagement in multinational corporations operating in Russia?" The quantitative data from ESS was studied to provide a comprehensive picture of the Russian cultural context underlying the operational environment of the case company. In other words, the ESS data was used to address the second question "How perceptions of employee engagement drivers relate to features of Russian national culture?" For the sake of clarity, the measures to analyze data from both sources are introduced under separate headings.

3.4.1.1 The Fortum Sound

Fortum Sound survey data was first modified to suitable form by transferring it from Kenexa to Microsoft Excel 2013. Next, the data was searched for task, organization, personal, interpersonal, and social level resources. Using the theoretical framework, the survey items were placed into one of the four categories based on the resource each item represented and, accordingly, what type of psychological condition and employee engagement it was to entail. Table 4 shows examples of items within each of the four categories. To facilitate the interpretation of the results, responses within each category were grouped into three categories:

1. Percent favorable: Strongly agree and agree
2. Percent neutral: Neither agree or disagree
3. Strongly disagree and disagree

The answers of the respondents were evaluated first at the personnel level. High percentage favorable indicates a consensus or a strong positive view on the topic, whereas high percentage unfavorable indicates a strong negative view on the topic. Higher percent neutrals reflect a lack of consistency. There might for example be uncertainty or lack of knowledge about a particular element, or uncertainty about how to answer the question. High percentage of neutral answers may also reflect the fact that there are simply no strong opinions in either direction.

Next, differences in answers were looked for in terms of age, gender, tenure as well as managerial position. When comparing results of different groups, differences of 5% or more are considered meaningful. Because only final reports including the average scores were obtained from the company, no calculations on individual differences in variances of ratings could be done.

Table 4. Four levels of job resources measured by the Fortum Sound survey, variables and sample items of measures

Variable	Sample Item

1. Task level and organization of work
• Role clarity
  ○ Skill utilization
  ○ Work role fit
• Task clarity
  ○ Clear division of labor
  ○ Job variety
• Performance feedback
• Involvement
  ○ Autonomy
  ○ Job control
  ○ Participation in decision making
	• My job makes a good use of my competences/skills and abilities
	• I can see a clear link between my work and the objectives of my division/function
	• Where I work, we set clear performance standards for product/service quality
	• In our team, the work processes are well organized
	• In our team tasks and responsibilities are clearly defined
	• My line manager provides me with timely and helpful feedback
	• I am appropriately involved in decisions that affect my work
	• I feel encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things
	• My ideas and suggestions count

2. Organization level resources • Positive workplace climate • Organizational support • Coaching and training • Rewards and recognition • Opportunities for development • Access to information	• Fortum is a company of equal opportunities (e.g. gender, age, culture, ethnical background) • Fortum cares for well-being of its employees at work • I have the training I need to do my job effectively • I regularly receive appropriate recognition when I do a good job • My line manager provides me with support for my professional development • I know what skills I need in the future to be able to be a valuable contributor to the success of Fortum
3. Interpersonal and social level • Supervisor support • Coworker support • Trust in management • Supportive climate • Team harmony and cohesion • Ease of communication	• When changes take place at Fortum, my line manager provides me with necessary support • The people I work with cooperate to get the job done • I trust in the decisions of the management of my division/function • My line manager treats team members fairly and with respect • In our team, we are inspired to give our best performance • In our team, there is an open-minded way to give constructive feedback
4. Personal level • Optimism • Self-efficacy Organization-based self-esteem	• I believe Fortum has an outstanding future • My work ability enables me to perform well • I am proud to work for Fortum

3.4.1.2 The European Social Survey

The quantitative data analysis started by downloading the data sets from ESS in SPSS format. The sets consisted of data from ESS Round 6 (2012) from Russia, Netherlands, Spain, Norway and Finland. To facilitate the interpretation of the results, typological value indexes were calculated based on the ten types of value categories as outlaid by Schwartz (1992):

1. Self-Direction
2. Power
3. Universalism
4. Achievement
5. Security
6. Stimulation
7. Conformity
8. Tradition
9. Hedonism
10. Benevolence

To calculate the indexes, it is not enough simply to calculate the average or mean based on two (or three) components that make it up (Magun & Rudnev, 2010). This is because respondents might have a particular style of reaction that is expressed in his inclination to group different ratings on one and the same segment of the scale (Smith, 2003). Even if, on average, individuals attribute the same mean importance to the set of values, some individuals discriminate more sharply among their values and others discriminate less sharply. Because individual differences in variances of value ratings can be meaningful, Schwartz (2003, pp. 259-290) recommends taking the average of all of the respondent's answers to the twenty-one questions that relate to his values. This indicator is called MRAT. Individual items can then be centred by subtracting the MRAT score.

Accordingly, centred scores for the value indexes were computed by taking the mean of the items that index it. Hence, the figures for each of the value indexes represent the mean corrected averages of two or three initial ratings, while in terms of content they represent the comparative importance of a particular value with respect to the mean significance that the respondent attributes to all of the values included on the 21-item survey (Magun & Rudnev, 2010). A positive figure means that the significance level of a given value is lower than the average significance of the value (MRAT) that characterizes a given individual; accordingly, a negative figure means that the significance level is higher than the average. The different value constructs were then further combined into four larger categories of values:

1. Conservation: security, conformity and tradition

2. Openness to change: stimulation, self-direction and hedonism
3. Self-enhancement: power and achievement
4. Self-transcendence: universalism and benevolence

The characterization is based on statistically significant differences according to the Tamhane criterion ($p < 0.05$). As mentioned before, each category has its own counter-pair (Conservation vs. Openness to change and Self-enhancement and self-transcendence), meaning that a rise in the significance of one category of values leads to the significance of the other category to go down (Schwartz, 2003). The scores for each country were then compared and contrasted to highlight factors that might be important for Russia.

3.4.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

The qualitative data was used to provide a deeper contextual explanation of kind of job demands employees in Russian business environment have to face. As mentioned before, it was also used for refining the quantitative results. Although the number of interviews conducted for this research is not great, the data gathered turned out to be relatively broad, providing the necessary information to answer the first research question.

The e-mail discussions with the five respondents were first taken together in a single word-document. Next, interview data was analyzed with qualitative content analysis, which a common way of analyzing interviews. Qualitative content analysis, as defined by Hsieh (2005, p.1278), is "a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns". The goal of qualitative content analysis is to uncover and examine meaningful patterns, core consistencies and themes (that may manifest or latent in a particular set of data) by simplifying, structuring and summarizing data (Patton, 2002). In other words, it is a type of coding operation, where raw data is transformed into a standardized form.

The topics and questions for the interviews were based on the theoretical framework. Hence, the empirical data was analyzed through thematizing; looking for the themes that had originally been the basis of the interview questions. The first step in this analyzing process is to choose a unit of analysis. Unitizing is important because differences in the unit definition can affect coding decisions as well as the comparability of outcomes with other similar studies (De Wever et al., 2006). For this research, individual answers were used as the unit for analysis and coding

was done by using different colors to highlight common themes and then cutting and pasting the related parts under different titles in a word processing program.

According to Elo & Kyngäs (2008, p.107), different themes can be identified either inductively or deductively. These methods differ in that while in deductive reasoning the purpose is to begin with generating concepts or variables from a theory or previous studies about the topic of interest, inductive reasoning is used to examine themes and categories, which might emerge from the data, in order to develop broader generalizations and theories (ibid.). For this thesis, both deductive and inductive methods are appropriate, because while some of the data could be arranged into themes according to the theoretical framework and the research questions, also new themes emerged during the interviews.

The answers gathered from the company representatives were first searched for physical demands, work conditions, as well as psychological, social and organizational aspects of the job that require sustained effort or skills. The answers were also studied separately to examine how individuals' perceptions of these job demands differ. Later, the overall themes were compared to the results of quantitative analysis to see whether the answers would provide some explanation to the items that scored low in the Fortum Sound survey. Consequently, the answers were also searched for motivating and exciting features of the respondents' work (job resources and challenge job demands) to elaborate earlier quantitative findings on job resources. The company could be contacted at any point to confirm data or to ask additional questions.

3.5 Validity and Reliability of the Study

According to Altheide & Johnson (1994, p.486), validity refers to the truthfulness and accuracy of findings. In order for a study to be valid, all the parts of the study must measure properly what they are supposed to measure. An explicit articulation of the validity criteria and the specific techniques employed is important, because that way findings can be critiqued in a meaningful way (Whittermore et al. 2001). Reliability, then, represents the consistency of the study and the stability of findings (ibid.). In qualitative and quantitative research, different validity measures are applied. Validity in quantitative research means that the study can be tested (whether results can be generalized to wider groups and circumstances) and findings replicated (Creswell, 2013), whereas in qualitative research the accuracy of findings is checked through certain steps throughout the research process (Whittermore et al., 2001). Requirements for reliability – that results are consistent over time and can be reproduced under a similar methodology – applies to both types of research.

To validate a case study, Eisenhardt (1989, p.537) and Yin (2009, p.57) strongly support the use of multiple cases. However, their emphasis is on general constructs and their generalizability to populations, while this research attempts to clarify the context of the constructs and the role these constructs play in a specific context. For such purposes, other researchers strongly support the single case study approach, because it allows a researcher to describe both unique and typical experiences in the case context as bases for theory building (Donmoyer, 2000).

In this research, pre-existing quantitative data was used for secondary analysis. According to Kolb (2008, p. 89), secondary data used should be relevant, credible, timely and accurate. The European Social Survey (ESS) is an academically driven cross-national structured survey that measures the attitudes, beliefs and behavior patterns of diverse populations in more than thirty nations. Hence, the data comes from reputable organizations, all of which are required to adhere to specifically defined methods in terms of sampling, translation, questionnaire etc. The ESS homepage describes data collection, methodology and survey updates, whereas data variables are described in detail in the documentation page. This enhances the credibility and accuracy of the data. As part of this large-scale survey, human values are measured with a version of the Portrait Values Questionnaire adopted from Schwartz (2003). Hence, the survey content relates appropriately to the research problem. Russia joined the ESS project in 2006 and the results from 2012 are available for research in the ESS web page. Thus, the ESS data is also timely. When it comes to the Fortum Sound Employee Engagement survey, the survey items measured employee perceptions of available job resources in OAO Fortum, making it highly relevant for this research. Although the instrument was not created using the same framework as for this study, the questions nevertheless described different level resources. Because results from 2012 and 2014 could be used, the results gave a timely picture of employee perceptions regarding job resources.

In addition to quantitative data sources, company representatives were interviewed to shed light on the demand side of employee engagement. Hurmerinta-Peltomaki and Nummela (2006, p.440) state that using several kinds of methods or data, including using both quantitative and qualitative approaches, increase in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under study. Similarly, Patton (2002) advocates the use of triangulation, arguing that combining methods strengthens a study. According to Creswell (2013, p.177), common validity issues in a mixed method approach are sample selection, sample size, follow up or contradictory results, bias in

data collection, inadequate procedures or use of conflicting research questions. It is often argued that because qualitative and quantitative methods provide different types of data, mixing methods can also make the data analysis complicated (Piekkari & Welch 2004) resulting in unreliable and contradictory results.

In order to avoid these issues, various techniques related to different parts of the research process (design, data generation, analysis, presentation) can be used. Such techniques include for example articulating data analysis decisions and providing rich description of the study (Whittermore et al., 2001). Moreover, because the purpose of this research was to gain a complete and holistic picture of the area of study, not to compare the qualitative and quantitative data, both types of data gathered from the company were analysed separately from the ESS findings and combined only in the final discussion section. Hence, the use of multiple data sources and the in-depth understanding of the issue in the research context increase the validity of this research. In order to increase the reliability, then, all steps of the research process were carefully planned and each one was documented and explained in detail, as recommended by Yin (2009, p.22). Special care was taken to describe the context and the characteristics of the sample and the assumptions that drove the research. Although a single case study approach was used and the findings thus apply only in the context of the case company, all the relevant documents (such as the interview guide) can be found in the appendices, which enables another researcher to conduct the same study in another setting.

4 FINDINGS

For the purpose of this research, quantitative data was obtained through two sources: the Fortum Sound employee engagement survey and the European Social Survey (ESS). To elaborate on quantitative findings and to gain more insights into the job demand side of employee engagement, qualitative data was also gathered through e-mail interviews with the company representatives. The following chapter outlines the findings of both quantitative and qualitative analyses, presenting the data collection procedures and descriptive statistics of both data sources. First, the case company and its conception of employee engagement is introduced. Next, the Fortum Sound data is described and the findings related to perceived job resources in OAO Fortum are introduced. Insights from the qualitative interviews will be presented together with the findings from the Fortum Sound, as they complement each other. Then, the ESS data is briefly described followed by an overview of the Russian cultural context.

4.1 The Case Company – OAO Fortum

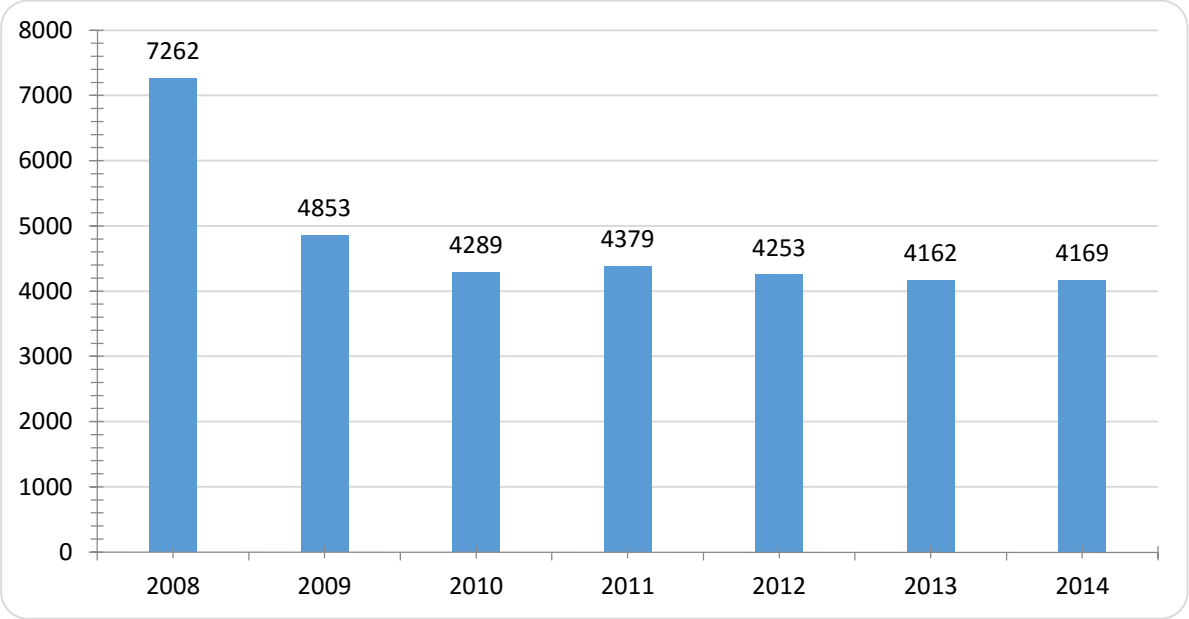
Fortum OYJ, together with its subsidiaries, engages in the generation, distribution, and sale of electricity and heat; and provision of energy-related expert services in the Nordic countries, the Russian Federation, and the Baltic Rim area (Fortum Annual Report 2014). According to the company Web page, the company operates in four segments: Power and Technology; Heat, Electricity Sales, and Solutions; Russia; and Distribution (Fortum.com, 2016). Fortum is involved in hydro, nuclear, and thermal power generation, power solutions with expert services and portfolio management and trading activities. The company also engages in the combined heat and power production, district heating and cooling activities, and business to business heating solutions, solar business, and electricity sales and related customer offerings. In addition, it owns and operates distribution and regional networks. The company serves 0.9 million electricity distribution customers in Sweden and 1.3 million private and business customers in the Nordic countries. Fortum OYJ is headquartered in Espoo, Finland. (Fortum.com, 2016)

The Russia segment consists of power and heat generation and sales in Russia. The segment includes Fortum's over 29% holding in TGC-1, which owns and operates hydro and thermal power plants in north-western Russia as well as heat distribution networks in St. Petersburg (Fortum Annual review, 2014). In 2008, Fortum privatized the power and heat generation company TGK-10, which operated in central and northern Russia. The name of TGK-10 was later changed to OAO Fortum. The acquisition almost doubled Fortum's personnel, as at the

time TGK-10 employed 7200 people (Fortum Annual Report, 2008). The integration with Fortum lead, however, to a significant share of the reductions in the Russian personnel in 2009 (Fortum Annual Report, 2009) and the years that followed (See Table 5).

Today, OAO Fortum owns eight CHP plants, one condensing power plant, several heat boilers, 500 km networks as well as heat supply to two million residents. In 2014, out of Fortum's almost 9000 employees, approximately 4,196 worked in Russia. The number of permanent employees on 31 December 2014 was 3992 i.e. 95.1% of the personnel. From these the number of full-time employees was 3988. Only four people worked part-time. The percentage of fixed-term employees was 5.2%. In general, Fortum does not use supervised employees. (Fortum Annual Report, 2014).

Table 5. Number of employees in Fortum's Russian Division

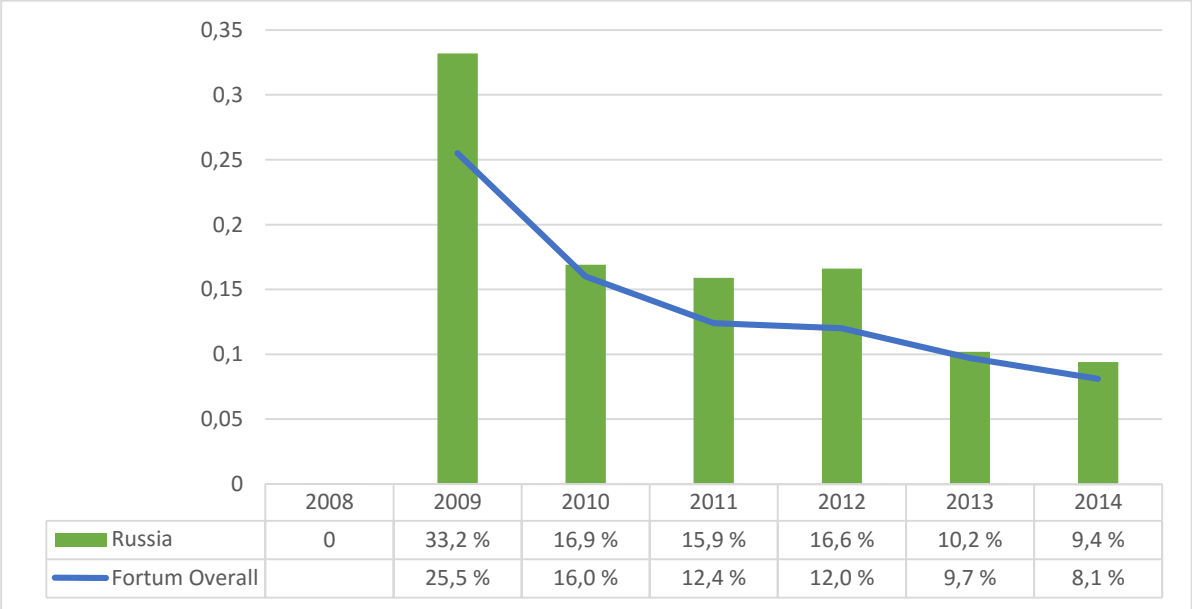


The situation of Fortum is quite unique, in that the company has operated in Russia for over 50 years and made employee engagement a strategic priority. According to the company Web page and annual reports, the focus of Fortum's overall personnel strategy is on increasing employee engagement and enhancing continuous development of employees' skills:

> "Fortum aims to be a preferred employer that attracts and retains qualified employees at all levels. We believe that good leadership is the foundation to employee engagement and performance, and we strive to create attractive career and development opportunities to continuously grow the professional skills of individuals. We aim to keep the skills and competencies of our personnel at a level that maintains and improves their value in the job market." (Fortum Annual Report, 2012, 2013 and 2014)

Despite the dedication to employee engagement, as Table 6 demonstrates, the departure turnover in the Russian division remains relatively high, when compared to Fortum's other divisions. Although divestments and outsourcing account for some reductions, also the voluntary turnover in Russia is higher than in the other divisions. Out of the 375 people who left the company in 2014, approximately 65,9 % left by their own initiative, whereas the numbers for Finland, Sweden and Poland are 45,4%; 87,1% and 24,6% respectively (Fortum Annual Report, 2014). In Sweden, the higher voluntary turnover was due to Fortum's divestment of its Swedish electricity distribution business: most employees continued their work in the sold business.

Table 6. Change in the percentage of departure turnover in Fortum's Russian Division compared to the overall departure turnover



	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Russia	0	33,2 %	16,9 %	15,9 %	16,6 %	10,2 %	9,4 %
Fortum Overall		25,5 %	16,0 %	12,4 %	12,0 %	9,7 %	8,1 %

4.2 Description of Data - The Fortum Sound

The Fortum Sound is a survey developed by Kenexa, an IBM company providing employment and retention solutions to assist organizations in hiring and keeping workers. According to the company web page, the aim of the survey is to not only measure employee satisfaction, but also engagement towards business activities, common targets, customers and leadership. In the survey, engagement is defined as

> "a combination of perceptions that have a positive impact on behavior, such as satisfaction, commitment, pride, loyalty, a strong sense of personal responsibility, and a willingness to be an advocate for the organization."

This definition comes close to the one used for this thesis, as a "combination of perceptions" refers to an individual employee's thought processes and state of mind (cognitive state). In addition, it also points out that feelings (e.g., pride) are in an important role (emotional state) and that in the end, engagement is assumed to have a positive impact on desired organizational outcomes because it often results in a willingness to help the organization to succeed (behavioral state).

The Sound survey is conducted approximately every 18 months and the items measured include, for example, the openness of the work community, personal accountability and the level of challenge of work tasks. The questionnaire consists of 51 positive statements. Employees are asked to evaluate their agreement with each statement on a 5-point response scale. Value 1 represents the most unfavorable response (strongly disagree) and the value 5 represents the most favorable response (strongly agree). Out of the 51 questions five seemed to tap outcomes of engagement and eight were either related to sustainability aspects or answering the survey itself. The remaining 38 items addressed different level job resources.

Table 7. Demographic characteristics of respondents in the Fortum Sound 2014

Demographic characteristics	Number of respondents in 2014 (N=3104)	%
Gender		
Male	2238	72,1%
Female	866	27,9%
Age		
Under 25 years	91	2,9%
25-29 years	379	12,2%
30-34 years	468	15%
35-39 years	419	13,5%
40-44 years	433	13,9%
45-49 years	441	14,2%
50-54 years	448	14,4%
55-59 years	297	9,5%
60 years or over	128	4,1%
Tenure		
Under 1 year	185	6%
1-4 years	765	24,6%
5-9 years	1132	36,4%
10-14 years	251	8,1%
15-19 years	223	7,2%
25-29 years	246	7,9%
20-24 years	180	5,8%
30 years or over	122	3,9%
Position		
Manager	822	26,5%
Employee	2282	73,5%

Results from 2014 were available for research. In October 2014, out of the 3385 employees 92 % (2012: 82%) completed the Fortum Sound employee engagement survey. Approximately 72% of the respondents were male and 28% female. Youngest respondents were under 25 years old, whereas the oldest were over 60. Almost 27% hold a managerial position. The time each employee had spent with the company ranged from a bit less than a year to over 30 years of service. However, most of the employees (67%) had less than 10 years of experience with the company. The demographic characteristics of the respondents are presented in Table 7. In order to maintain their assured anonymity, no detailed information about the case company or respondents is revealed.

4.3 Job Resources and Job Demands in OAO Fortum

The following sub-sections introduce the results of the Fortum Sound survey together with the findings from the qualitative interviews. The percentages in parenthesis are percent favorable scores of specific statements in the Fortum Sound survey.

4.3.1 Task Level Recourses and Demands

Out of the 51 questions in the Fortum Sound survey, eleven items focused on task level resources, such as role clarity, task clarity, job control, participation in decision making and performance feedback. Overall, the results showed high agreement with almost all statements, as shown in Table 8. The highest percentage favorables were related to role clarity, task clarity and skill utilization, whereas items measuring involvement, job control and performance feedback scored somewhat lower.

Table 8. Overall percentage favorables of task level resources measured in 2014

Task level survey item	Resource	%
In our team, tasks and responsibilities are clearly defined.	Role/task clarity	83
I can see a clear link between my work and Fortum's objectives.	Task clarity	82
Where I work, we set clear performance standards for product/service quality	Task clarity	82
My job makes a good use of my competences/skills and abilities.	Role clarity	81
I am appropriately involved in decisions that affect my work.	Involvement	81
I can see a clear link between my work and the objectives of my division/function.	Task clarity	80
My ideas and suggestions count.	Involvement	78
My line manager provides me with timely and helpful feedback.	Feedback	78
In our team, the work processes are well organized.	Task clarity	78
The Performance and Development Discussions are fair and motivating.	Feedback	73
I feel encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things.	Involvement	73
Average		**79**

In terms of role and task clarity, 83% of the respondents agreed that in their team, tasks and responsibilities are clearly defined, whereas 81% stated that their job makes a good use of their skills and abilities. Similarly, respondents reported that their work connected meaningfully to the division's (80%) and Fortum's (82%) objectives. People agreed that the performance standards are clear (82%) and that work processes are well organized (78%). The analysis of the results revealed no significant differences in answers with relation to respondents' gender. In contrast, the perceptions of clarity were somewhat affected by position, tenure and age. For example, while almost all agreed that tasks and roles are clearly defined, managers reported that they were more aware of how their work related to Fortum's objectives (86%), than regular employees (80%). Those employees who had worked for the company the longest, reported higher percentage favorable (87%) than those who had not held the position for more than 14 years (78%) or those who had just started (83%). Accordingly, the oldest employees found clear connection between their work and the corporate objectives (85%), whereas youngest employees reported lower percentages (78%).

In contrast to the survey results, qualitative interviews revealed that sometimes there were ambiguity about roles and tasks. For instance, as Interviewees 4 and 1 put it,

> "Specialists can lack needed skills or follow wrong activity direction, [which lead] to out-of-focus roles and goals. - - Some may plan to accomplish more tasks a day than he/she can do. As a result, people are nervous, [which] causes discomfort and problems." (Interviewee 4)

> "I remember this feeling [frustration] from my first months at Fortum, when everything was new for me. Sometimes I got tasks and I really didn't understand how to tackle them or even whom to ask for assistance." (Interviewee 1)

> "First months of my working activity there were some tasks that were very difficult for implementing. This was frustrating for me. But now I know how to cope with them because I got experience." (Interviewee 4)

In other words, tasks and roles are not always clear to everyone, which could be seen as a demanding aspect of the job, especially for young newcomers who often lack the social connections necessary to complete certain tasks.

In terms of involvement and job control, 73% of the survey respondents felt they were encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things, 78% reported that their ideas and suggestions count and 81% stated being involved in decisions that affect their work. Especially oldest respondents felt that in their current job they could fully utilize their skills

(89%) and that their opinion in work related matters counts (82%). What is more, oldest employees felt significantly more encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things (82%) than the youngest (68%). In comparison, youngest colleagues or those with least experience felt their skills were not fully utilized (73% and 77% respectively) and that they were not as involved in decisions that affect their work (74% and 79% respectively).

The interview findings contradicted the survey results, in that most interviewees identified several hindrances related to organization of work. When asked to describe a typical work day, one of the younger interviewees responded: "I am renting an apartment in relative proximity to the office, so I can be at work as early as 7am or stay as long as 10-11pm when needed." (Interviewee 2) Her answer illustrates the fact, that despite reporting to work regular hours (8:30 – 17:30), all interviewees were prepared to come earlier or stay later to deal with unfinished business, urgent tasks or other extra work-load, such as substituting for colleagues (Interviewee 2,3,4, and 5). Urgent tasks were often unexpected requests from the top management. As highlighted by Interviewee 5: "I have to be quick, ready to present and to argue with reason in almost no time." Such demands made respondents feel they had no control over their job and that they did not have enough time to show their best work. In addition, according to Interviewee 2, it is sometimes frustrating that even though he is asked to come up with creative solutions, at the end of the day he has to deliver a "one size fits all" product to leverage economies of scale.

Although interviewees pointed out that there is a need to learn to "arrange and delegate tasks" (Interviewee 5), and some wished for flexible hours and ability to work from home sometimes (for example when one is sick), as one of the interviewees put it, "- - sometimes it [carrying out requests from management] is a bit too much of work, but it never lasts too long to get depressed." (Interviewee 2) Similarly, another interviewee stated that "I have never had an easy job and as I'm progressing, the challenges become more… challenging." (Interviewee 5) Thus, although extra work-load and unexpected urgent tasks demanded presence at work before or after regular hours, these demands were seen as a natural part of work, or even as positive challenges that can "reveal employee's true potential" (Interviewee 1):

> "I have a lot of opportunities to demonstrate my competence - - I always feel excited when a project (which nearly always is to me made with scarce time resource) is accomplished. - - sometimes it is a bit too much of work - - but thanks to my colleagues we always manage to get work done as a team." (Interviewee 2)

Accordingly, one of the interviewees stated that "Challenges are [there to] develop skills. If the task is too difficult there is always somebody who knows better and can share the knowledge." (Interviewee 3) Thus, challenge demands (i.e. time-pressure) were perceived as opportunities to promote mastery, personal growth and future gains, and were therefore seen as rewarding work experiences well worth the discomfort involved.

In terms of feedback, then, 78% of the survey respondents stated that their line manager provides them with timely and helpful feedback. Accordingly, 73% agreed that the Performance and Development Discussions are fair and motivating. Similar to other items, the survey results showed that biggest differences in receiving helpful performance feedback were found between the oldest (83%) and the youngest (73%). This point will be discussed in more detail together with organization level resources related to communication in section 4.5.3.

To conclude, the survey results showed high percentage favorable for role clarity, task clarity and skill utilization, whereas items measuring involvement, job control and performance feedback scored somewhat lower. Nevertheless, all task level resources were perceived rather positively. However, the interview participants also described negative experiences that did not come up in the standardized survey. For example, it was found that the division of tasks and roles was not always as clear to everyone and that employees did not always have opportunities to affect organization of their work. Similarly, coming up with new ideas was difficult due to corporate standardization. Thus, interviewees perceived some aspects of their jobs as hindrances. Nevertheless, it was found that whenever there were at least some resources available, overcoming problems was more likely to be seen as a challenge or an opportunity to show one's competence.

4.3.2 Organization Level Resources and Demands

As illustrated in Table 9, eleven items in the survey focused on organization level resources. The items that scored highest percentage favorable were related to organizational support and opportunities for development. Training, communication, recognition and collaboration between divisions received lowest scores respectively. Overall, 84% of the respondents felt the organization cared for their well-being. Consequently, 76% reported that their manager supported their professional development and that they were happy with the opportunities they have. The results related to the best scoring items did not indicate significant differences in terms of gender or position, but clearly showed that older employees or the ones with longer

tenure are more likely to be satisfied with the available development opportunities and to feel their manager supports their professional growth.

Table 9. Overall percentage favorables of organization level resources measured in 2014

Organization level survey item	Resource	%
Fortum cares for well-being of its employees at work.	Organizational support	84
Fortum is making the changes to be competitive in the future.	Organizational support	78
My line manager provides me with support for my professional development.	Development opportunities/ Supervisor support	76
I am satisfied with the opportunities I have for my professional development at Fortum.	Development opportunities	76
Top management of Fortum communicates clear and consistent messages to all parts of the company.	Communication	76
Fortum is a company of equal opportunities (e.g. gender, age, culture, ethnical background).	Organizational support	75
I have the training I need to do my job effectively.	Training	74
There is an open an honest two-way communication at Fortum.	Communication	70
I regularly receive appropriate recognition when I do a good job.	Recognition	62
There is good collaboration between divisions/functions at Fortum.	Collaboration	62
Average		**73**

The answers from the qualitative interviews support these findings. Interviewees found it interesting to be involved in the constantly changing and progressing life in Fortum (Interviewee 3). As some of the interviewees put it,

> "I love being part of Fortum because it gives me a sense of stability, it gives me opportunities to develop myself and help my colleagues to become better, and it is an environment-cautious company so I love it as an employer." (Interviewee 2)

> "- - you have more opportunities for development and career growth. As for social security, Fortum provides more benefits than my previous employers, which also important for me." (Interviewee 1)

In addition, analysis of the interviews showed that there were no physical demands (physical effort necessary for a job) nor work conditions (such as health hazards, temperature, noise or space) that would be perceived as hindrances. All respondents did office work, which does not require special physical effort. Although respondents often shared their office with up to 3 other people, no-one mentioned it as a hindrance. However, as respondents pointed out, traffic jams in Moscow sometimes make it difficult to get to work on time (Interviewee 1).

In terms of sufficient training, then, 74% of the survey respondents agreed they have sufficient training to do their job effectively. Again, the oldest employees (83%) or those with longest

tenure (83%) reported high percentage favorable, whereas youngest employees (71%) and those with least time in the company (68%) scored lower. Although the company offers a wide variety of training activities, one of the interviewees pointed out that because of the sheer size of the organization and centralization of processes (Interviewee 3), processes are often complicated and it takes time to "get up to speed" (Interviewee 2). Moreover, one of the interviewees highlighted the role of communication in everyday work and expressed her wish that the company would offer more training on soft skills:

> "It is very important to develop soft skills - - [effective] communication will - - help to overcome problems and challenges. When I face a problem in my work I can always discuss it with my colleagues or the manager. I wish we ha[d] soft skills trainings at work, that would be beneficial not only for the employees but for the business as well." (Interviewee 3)

This view was further supported by other interviewees, who explained that as a newcomer, one does not know from whom to ask advice or how the organization works.

> "I remember this feeling [frustration] from my first months at Fortum, when everything was new for me. Sometimes I got tasks and I really didn't understand how to tackle them or even whom to ask for assistance." (Interviewee 1)

> "It would be good to have a full welcome pack with all necessary documents that you need and a kind of supervisor who will guide you during the first months." (Interviewee 3)

In contrast to organizational support and development opportunities, the survey items regarding corporate communication, collaboration and recognition scored somewhat lower. 70% of the respondents agreed that there is an open an honest two-way communication at Fortum, whereas only 62% stated that there is good collaboration between divisions at Fortum and that they received appropriate recognition when doing a good job. Although there were no major differences in the survey answers regarding communication and collaboration based on gender or by position, some factors stood out. For example, women were more likely to state that the collaboration between divisions and functions worked well (68% compared to 60% of men). Similarly, in comparison with managers, employees were over 10% more likely to agree that there is good collaboration. As mentioned before, employees felt that communication with close co-workers is easy. However, communicating across the entire organization might sometimes prove challenging due to having to cooperate with geographically distant offices. For example, as the interviewees explained, employees in Moscow office work together with people from the head office in Chelyabinsk:

> "Mainly I work alone, but sometimes I need some information from my HR colleagues which they kindly provide. When I help users with Performance Development tool, I work with all Fortum Russia employees. - - I work in cooperation with corporate colleagues [in Chelyabinsk]" (Interviewee 3)

> "I am responsible for HR admin in Moscow office - - I closely work with HR share service center based in our head office in Chelyabinsk, with development and education colleagues on organizing events, with VP HR when he works from Moscow office, with all my HR colleagues in Russia division when they need to get help with documents signed in Moscow by our executive VP, and with colleagues in admin department on daily basis." (Interviewee 2)

Figuring out how everything works and whom to ask for help could be puzzling for a newcomer (Interviewee 1). This point is well illustrated by the fact that when asked about whether there is an open an honest two-way communication at Fortum (organization level resource), only 70% of the survey respondents answered favorably, whereas when the same was asked about one's immediate team (interpersonal and social level resource), the percent favorable was 87%. Recognition will be discussed in more detail in section 4.5.3.

In conclusion, the Fortum Sound survey results indicate that the overall agreement with existent organization level resources is relatively high. Highest percent favorables were related to organizational support and professional development opportunities, whereas items measuring training, communication, recognition and collaboration between divisions left some room for improvement. Although there were no radical differences in the answers with relation to respondent's gender or position in the company, it turned out that older employees and those with longer tenure perceived the presence of organization level resources more favorably than their younger or less experienced colleagues. Similar to the findings on task level resources, the interview results were sometimes conflicted with the Fortum Sound findings. Finally, in contrast to negatively perceived task level resources, organizational aspects of the job that were found demanding (e.g., administrative hassles, collaboration across divisions) were perceived as unnecessarily hindering the progress toward goal attainment, not as opportunities or challenges to be overcome.

4.3.3 Interpersonal and Social Relations and Job Demands

Nine items in the Fortum Sound survey focused on interpersonal and social relations resources e.g., trust in management, supervisor and coworker support. Overall, as Table 10 demonstrates, employees reported strong agreement with statements reflecting coworker and supervisor support. Regardless of age, tenure, gender or position, all respondents seemed to strongly agree

that their colleagues provided them with different types of support. The older the respondent, or the longer the tenure, the more likely he or she was to state that working with the team was enjoyable and communication with others easy. These employees also demonstrated strong agreement with statements reflecting trust in management and their ability to make right decisions. The lowest scoring items were related to trust in the decisions of the management and provision of support in times of change.

Table 10. Overall percentage favorables of interpersonal and social level resources measured in 2014

Interpersonal and social level survey item	Resource	%
In our team, we are inspired to give our best performance.	Coworker support	93
The people I work with cooperate to get the job done.	Coworker support/ Team harmony	92
I enjoy working in my team.	Coworker support/ Team harmony	90
My line manager treats team members fairly and with respect.	Supervisor support	87
I trust my line manager.	Trust in management	87
In our team, there is an open-minded way to give constructive feedback.	Coworker support/ Ease of communication	87
My manager takes personal responsibility to improve safety.	Supervisor support	85
When changes take place at Fortum, my line manager provides me with necessary support.	Supervisor support	81
I trust in the decisions of the management of my division/function.	Trust in management	80
Average		**87**

Despite receiving the highest scores, relationships with other colleagues can also cause problems at work (Interviewee 4). Sometimes emotional conflict results from balancing between possibly conflicting needs of employees and those of the company (Interviewee 2). Conflicts can also result from lack of "soft skills" (Interviewee 3; such as communication, teamwork and collaboration, adaptability, problem solving and conflict resolution, flexibility, accepting responsibility, leadership skills etc.). For example, the interviewees stated that managers did not always show the support they would wish for:

> "He challenges me and I don't feel much support." (Interviewee 5)

> "I have a lot of opportunities to demonstrate my competence and sometimes I wish that my manager was easier on me - -" (Interviewee 2)

As one of the interviewees put it, managers are too busy to dedicate time for employees (Interviewee 2, 3 and 5). If the manager is too busy, employees might not feel confident enough to talk about issues such as new skill development or career advancement:

> "It is of course frustrating when there is no development in employee's work life (meaning skills and new opportunities). And sometimes the manager is too busy to talk about it and the employee is shy to talk about it." (Interviewee 3)

Employees felt that busy managers had a heavy workload, which was reflected in their mood (Interviewee 5) and made communication harder. This point is illustrated in the experience of Interviewee 2:

> "- - I received a severe reprimand from my boss in front of my colleagues for not acting up to the mark and causing problems for him - - when the situation was solved, it appeared that [it] was not my fault and there was no problem at all."

The interviewee explained that because managers bear significant responsibility and accountability within the organization, they "tend to forget the simple human nature" (Interviewee 2), such as that anyone can make mistakes. This finding might also explain why the survey items related to recognition (62% compared to an average of 73% in the section 4.5.2.), provision of support (81% compared to an average of 87%) and trust in the decisions of the management (80% compared to an average of 87%) received a lower than average score. When asked about what is needed to overcome such problems, Interviewee 3 replied "I wish we ha[d] soft skills trainings at work, that would be beneficial not only for the employees but for the business as well." Likewise, Interviewee 5 reasoned that it would be beneficial to "construct trust-based relations and help each other" and to learn to "arrange and delegate tasks."

In contrast to task level challenges (such as time-pressure), problems with interpersonal and social relations were usually only perceived as constraints that unnecessarily hinder the progress toward goal attainment, not as opportunities to promote mastery, personal growth and future gains. However, meaningful interpersonal and social relationships also had the potential to turn less favorably evaluated resources and hindrances into challenges. Like one respondent described, although most projects are run under strict time constraints,

> "it is motivating when projects meet the deadlines, especially when a lot of people are involved in the project and all participants cooperate together. My manager and colleagues support me if and when needed." (Interviewee 3)

Several statements support this finding:

> "[Effective communication helps] to overcome problems and challenges. When I face a problem in my work I can always discuss it with my colleagues or the manager." (Interviewee 3)

> "I think it is also important to ask advice from your colleagues. We all as employees have a mutual goal. I know that my colleagues are ready to help and I am happy about that." (Interviewee 1)

> "My managers and colleagues help me a lot. I can ask them any questions regarding my work." (Interviewee 1)

> "- - sometimes the work-load seams overwhelming - - thanks to my colleagues we always manage to get work done as a team." (Interviewee 2)

In fact, when asked about whether or not colleagues provide the respondent with support, the answer was "Yes! This is why I'm still here." (Interviewee 5)

To summarize, regardless of age, tenure, gender or position, all survey respondents reported strong agreement with statements reflecting supervisor and coworker support. These findings conflicted with the interview results, in that many expressed a desire for more support from the management. Although interviewees also pointed out that relationships with colleagues can sometimes turn out to be problematic, the interview results supported the quantitative findings highlighting the prevalence of meaningful relationships in OAO Fortum. Moreover, while problems resulting from interpersonal and social relations were perceived as hindrances, it was also proposed that well-functioning, meaningful interpersonal and social relations are highly important in terms of buffering from job demands (such as high work-load) and in turning hindrances into challenges.

4.3.4 Personal Level Resources and Demands

Finally, the survey included eight items, shown in Table 11, that focused on personal resources such as self-efficacy, optimism, and organization-based self-esteem. Overall, the scores on these items were the second highest after interpersonal and social relations items, indicating that people in general perceived personal level resources very positively. No significant differences were found between men and women, although women seemed to answer these statements slightly more positively than men.

The survey revealed that 95% of employees believe in their capabilities to perform well at work and 83% know what skills are needed to succeed now and in the future. As one of the interviewees put it:

> "I feel a strong connection between the goals of our organization and the goals of each employee. I believe that this [employee development] program motivates people to

achieve their goals, which is really encouraging and rewarding. What's more I have different tasks in my everyday work that reveal my potential." (Interviewee 1)

Table 11. Overall percentage favorables of personal level resources measured in 2014

Personal level survey item	Resource	%
My work ability enables me to perform well.	Self-efficacy	95
I know what skills I need in the future to be able to be a valuable contributor to the success of Fortum.	Self-efficacy	83
I am able to take care of the balance between my work and private life.	Self-efficacy	83
My current tasks and responsibilities motivate me.	Organization-based self-esteem	82
I seize the opportunity to adopt new, challenging tasks to advance myself at Fortum.	Self-efficacy	82
I am proud to work for Fortum.	Organization-based self-esteem	80
My work provides me with a sense of personal accomplishment.	Organization-based self-esteem	78
I believe Fortum has an outstanding future.	Optimism	77
Average		83

Similarly, 83% of the survey respondents stated being able to balance work and private life and 82% felt they could satisfy their needs by participating in roles within the organization, as also becomes evident from the interview statements below:

> "It is obvious that work gives money to people (and it's not a secret), but for me work means more: it is a big part of my life that gives me new experience, knowledge and communications." (Interviewee 1)

> "To me work means a lot, first of all it provides me with money which gives me certain freedom and independence - - it has been the way to learn new things - - make professional contacts and even new real friends." (Interviewee 2)

> "Work for me is the place for self-realization, professional skills development." (Interviewee 3)

> "My job is an activity directed to achievement of goals connected with satisfaction of needs and interests." (Interviewee 4)

> "[For me, work means] many things from self-development to a source of income." (Interviewee 5)

Interviewees also described Fortum and their work as "interesting" (Interviewee 3), "challenging" (Interviewee 5) and "encouraging and rewarding" (Interviewee 1). When asked to describe Fortum as an employer, one of the interviewees answered "I love it as an employer" (Interviewee 2). Similar to survey respondents, the interviewees seemed to take personal pride for working for this particular organization.

Overall, the oldest survey respondents and the ones with longest tenure, unlike their younger colleagues, reported that although they were ready to take on new challenges, their current jobs were motivating and provided them with a sense of personal accomplishment. Those in managerial position reported being even more motivated to handle their tasks and being more satisfied with their role in the organization than regular employees. On the other hand, managers also reported lower levels of being able to balance between their work and private life (79% percent favorable compared to employees' 85% favorable), something that supports the earlier interview findings about busy managers.

Finally, the lowest score (77%) was related to the employees' beliefs about the company's future. While there were no differences in term of position, women (82%) seemed to be more optimistic than men (75%). Similarly, people who had spent less than five years with the company were generally more optimistic about the company's future: 83% believed in an outstanding future, compared to 73% of those who had spent 5-24 years with the company

In sum, the interview findings supported the results from the Fortum Sound survey, in that both indicated strong agreement with statements regarding personal resources. In other words, in OAO Fortum the employees' level of self-efficacy, optimism, and organization-based self-esteem is very high.

4.3.5 Summary of Job Resources and Demands in OAO Fortum

To sum up, according to the theoretical framework, job resources are positively valued aspects of the job that are functional in achieving work goals, reduce job demands, or stimulate personal growth and development (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Such resources can come from the task, organization of work, organization, interpersonal and social relations or from the employees themselves (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Shuck et al., 2011). Job demands, in turn, are negatively valued aspects of the job that require sustained physical or psychological effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Employees tend to perceive these drivers of employee engagement differently, according to their potential to promote mastery, personal growth and future gains or to thwart personal growth, learning, and goal attainment.

To determine how employees in OAO Fortum perceive task, organization, interpersonal and personal level resources, the Fortum Sound employee engagement survey was studied. Overall, the answers in all categories in all demographic groups were very positive. The results show

that the level of interpersonal and social relations resources is the highest (87%), followed by personal (83%) and task level resources (79%), whereas the organization level resources were perceived least favorably (73%). While no dramatic differences in the response patterns was found, there was some support for resources being perceived more favorably among more experienced, and consequently older, workers. A summary of average percent favorable scores is presented in Figure 4. These quantitative findings were partially supported by the qualitative results.

The interviews with the company representatives were also analyzed to gain insights into the job demands in OAO Fortum. The findings revealed that while there were no physical aspects or work conditions that could have been perceived as demanding, there were hindrances related to other aspects of the job. Psychological aspects included high workload, time pressure and high level of responsibility. Social aspects included emotional conflict, role ambiguity and the managers' inability to dedicate time for employees, whereas organizational aspects were related to resource inadequacies, organizational politics and barriers stemming from the organizational structure. However, the same psychological and organizational aspects first perceived as hindrances, could also be perceived as challenges or opportunities if there were enough resources to overcome the situation. In contrast, social aspects that were first perceived as hindrances were rarely mentioned as motivational factors. A summary of the main job demands experienced at OAO Fortum according to the Fortum Sound 2014 and the interviews in 2015 is presented in Figure 5.

When taken together, these results suggest that in OAO Fortum employees experience high levels of safety, availability, meaningfulness in work and meaningfulness at work – in that order. Meaningfulness in work is a sense of return on investment of a person's effort deriving from task and role characteristics, and other work factors, whereas meaningfulness at work derives from one's membership in the organization. Safety is a sense of being able to employ oneself without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status or career. Availability, then, means possessing the physical, emotional and psychological resources necessary for investing oneself in role performance. Because each condition predicts different type of engagement, this implies that employees are likely to experience strong group engagement, followed by task and work engagement, while the level of organization engagement is likely to be lower.

Perceived resources in OAO Fortum	
Level of resources	Overall percent favorable
Interpersonal and social	87
Personal	83
Task	79
Organization	73
Average	**80**

Perceived resources by age				
Level of resources	under 25-34 years	35-44 years	45-54 years	55-60 years or over
Interpersonal and social	84	85	88	91
Personal	80	81	84	87
Task	75	78	81	84
Organization	72	74	77	80
Average	**78**	**79**	**82**	**86**

Perceived resources by tenure				
Level of resources	under 1 to 4 years	5-14 years	15-24 years	25-30 years or over
Interpersonal and social	86	84	86	91
Personal	83	80	81	88
Task	78	77	79	84
Organization	74	72	73	81
Average	**85**	**82**	**83**	**89**

Perceived resources by gender		
Level of resources	Male	Female
Interpersonal and social	86	87
Personal	82	84
Task	79	80
Organization	74	75
Average	**80**	**81**

Perceived resources by position		
Level of resources	Manager	Employee
Interpersonal and social	87	86
Personal	84	82
Task	80	79
Organization	74	74
Average	**81**	**80**

Figure 4. Summary of average percentage favorable scores in terms of overall responses, sorted by age, tenure, gender and organizational position

Perceived job demands in OAO Fortum

Psychological aspects

- High workload
- Time pressure
- High level of responsibility

Social aspects

- Emotional conflict (conflicting interests, lack of soft skills)
- Role ambiguity
- Managers' inability to dedicate time for employees
- Communication

Organizational aspects

- Resource inadequacies (such as lack of time or information)
- Standardization of internal business processes
- Administrative hassles (barriers stemming from the organizational structure, such as problems with communication)

Other aspects

- Traffic jams (because officially there is no flexible hours that would allow for example remote work)

Figure 5. Summary of perceived job demands in OAO Fortum according to interviews in 2015.

4.4 Description of Data - The European Social Survey

The European Social Survey (ESS) is an academically driven cross-national structured survey that has been conducted every two years across Europe since 2001. The survey measures the attitudes, beliefs and behavior patterns of diverse populations in more than thirty nations. Russia joined the ESS project in 2006 and the results from 2012 are available for research in the ESS web page. As part of this large-scale survey, human values are measured with a version of the Portrait Values Questionnaire adopted from Schwartz (2003). The questionnaire consists of 21 structured questions with variables in nominal scales. The respondents are presented with descriptions of people that are characterized by particular values (Appendix 2). Accordingly, their task is to rate each of the portraits on a six-point scale: "is very similar to me" (one point), "is similar to me" (two points), "is quite similar to me" (three points), "is slightly similar to me" (four points), "is not similar to me" (five points), and "is not similar to me at all" (six points). Out of the 21 questions, universalism is measured based on three descriptions, while all the other values are measured based on two descriptions each.

In 2012, 2484 people completed the survey in Russia. Approximately 62% of the respondents in Russia were female and, correspondingly, 38% were male. Most of the respondents were 30-40 years old. However, the oldest respondents were 92 years old, while the youngest were 17. 2246 participants were working, out of whom 20,6% said their work involved supervising

others. The number of respondents who answered the questions varied as a function of the content of the question. For example, the value index of power was calculated for 2454 respondents, while the index of hedonism was calculated only for 2437 (it should be kept in mind that the total Russian sample was 2484 respondents). Demographic characteristics of the countries used for comparison can be found in Table 12.

Table 12. Demographic characteristics of respondents in the European Social Survey in 2012

Demographic characteristics	Number of respondents in 2012 (N=10039)					
	Russia N= 2484	Spain N= 1889	Finland N= 2197	Netherlands N= 1845	Norway N= 1624	%
Gender						
Male	951	912	1074	857	858	46,3%
Female	1533	977	1123	988	766	53,7%
Age						
15-20 years	178	110	151	73	157	6,7%
21-30 years	461	243	277	213	224	14,1%
31-40 years	407	382	329	257	246	16,1%
41-50 years	367	354	330	363	312	17,2%
51-60 years	466	305	390	323	259	17,4%
61-70 years	316	255	383	319	235	15%
71-80 years	228	166	227	201	120	9,4%
81-90 years	58	69	104	90	37	3,6%
91 and above	-	4	6	6	3	0,2%
Position						
Employee	2115	1248	1831	1499	1413	80,7%
Self-employed	115	239	244	202	125	9,2%
Own family business	16	37	46	31	23	1,5%
Supervisory position	462	433	523	726	525	26,6%

4.5 Characteristics of Russian Cultural Context

In order to get an overview of the ESS survey results, the corrected mean and standard deviation of the variables included in each value category for all countries are reported in Table 13. To see results of items measuring each value for Russian population, see Appendix 4. The centered value category scores for all five countries were computed by taking the corrected means of each value construct that represent the category. As the table shows, Russia's value indices differ from the other European countries more often than they coincide with them and that these differences are statistically significant (the characterization is based on statistically significant differences according to the Tamhane criterion, $p < 0.05$).

Table 13. Mean and standard deviation of the value constructs and value categories by country

Value Category	Russia		Netherlands		Spain		Norway		Finland	
	Mean	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**
1. Conservation	-0,23	0,60	0,07	0,60	-0,27	0,62	-0,03	0,62	-0,07	0,63
Security	-0,58	0,81	-0,10	0,78	-0,60	0,80	-0,10	0,86	-0,39	0,83
Conformity	0,03	0,89	0,10	0,86	0,10	0,96	-0,24	0,89	0,10	0,98
Tradition	-0,13	0,89	0,20	0,90	-0,31	0,87	0,26	0,91	0,09	0,92
2. Openness to Change	0,41	0,65	-0,04	0,50	-0,29	0,66	0,09	0,57	0,06	0,59
Stimulation	0,84	1,07	0,45	0,92	0,87	1,05	0,55	0,97	0,50	1,00
Self-direction	-0,14	0,71	-0,55	0,68	-0,40	0,79	-0,46	0,77	-0,44	0,75
Hedonism	0,53	1,03	-0,01	0,75	0,39	1,04	0,19	0,85	0,12	0,93
3. Self-enhancement	0,16	0,66	0,72	0,68	1,02	0,74	0,74	0,65	1,05	0,76
Power	0,18	0,80	1,03	0,79	1,33	0,94	1,00	0,76	1,34	0,85
Achievement	0,14	0,86	0,42	0,85	0,72	0,96	0,49	0,84	0,76	0,97
4. Self-transcendence	-0,34	0,53	-0,62	0,47	-0,84	0,51	-0,70	0,47	-0,84	0,52
Universalism	-0,33	0,70	-0,57	0,59	-0,78	0,59	-0,55	0,64	-0,80	0,65
Benevolence	-0,35	0,70	-0,67	0,59	-0,90	0,60	-0,86	0,58	-0,88	0,62

As for the Russian population, the mean levels of five values are positive, which means that in comparison with the overall national Russian average for all ten values, Russians assign less significance to them. The mean levels of the remaining five values are negative. Consequently, Russians attribute greater significance to these values. In other words, in Russia, stimulation is the least significant value, followed by hedonism, while the next places are shared by power, achievement and conformity respectively. Tradition and self-direction are almost equally important, while universalism and benevolence also score close to each other. The most important value for Russians, however, seems to be security. The hierarchies of values of the populations of Russia, Spain, Finland, Netherlands and Norway are presented in Figure 6.

Accordingly, the relative importance of the four value categories for Russia, Spain, Finland, Netherlands and Norway is illustrated in Figure 7. As is shown, the most important category for Russians is self-transcendence. The counter pair, self-enhancement, is rated significantly less important. This finding is in line with Schwartz's (1990) theory, which argues that a rise in the significance of one category of values leads to the significance of the counter pair category to go down. Hence, the relatively strong focus on self-interest in Russian culture can be argued to leave less room for concern for others, nature and the environment (Schwartz, 1990; Magun & Rudnev, 2010). Furthermore, the second most important category is conservation, which implies that values related to openness to change would be of less significance. Indeed, openness to change is the least important category for Russians.

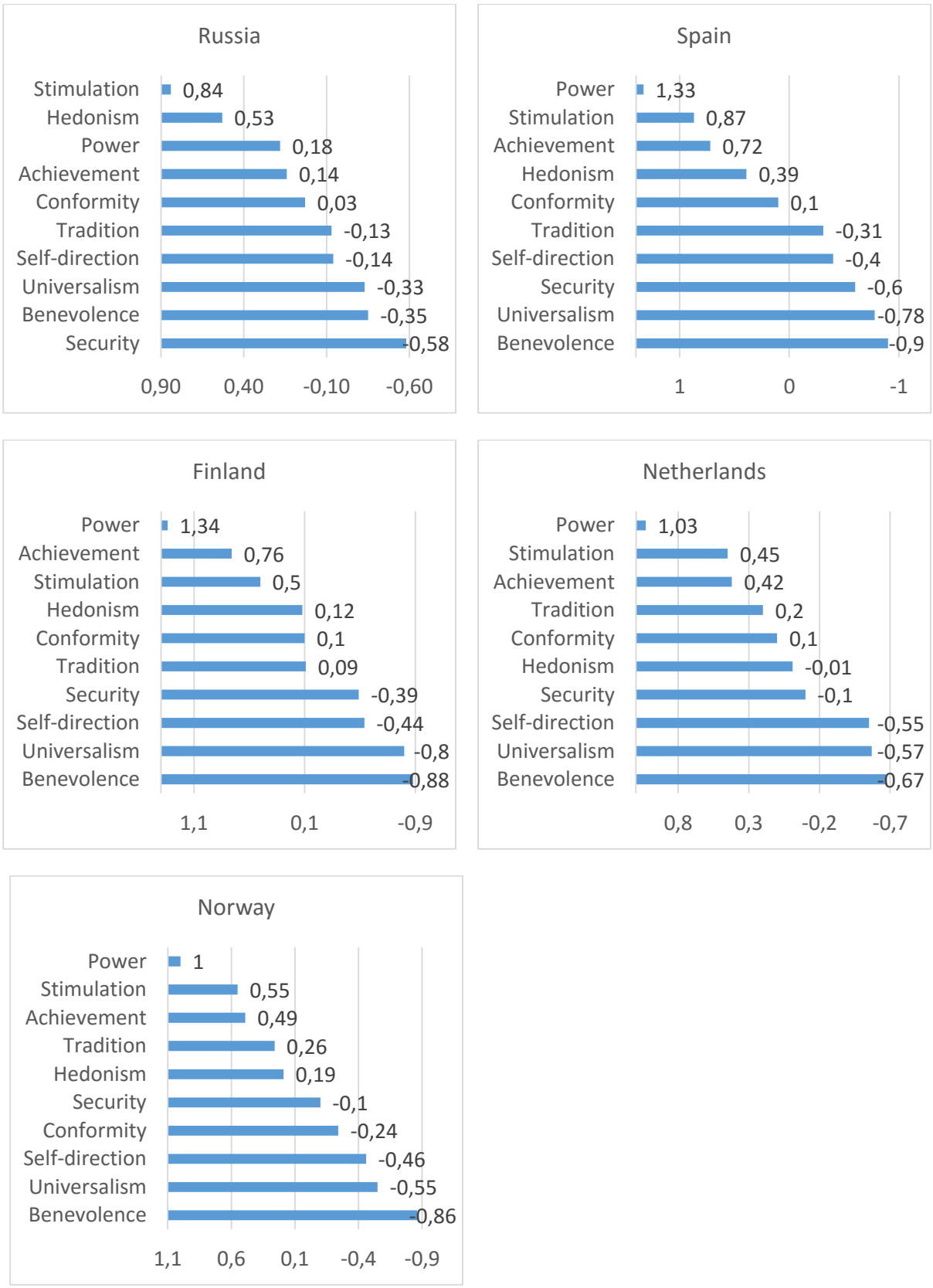


Figure 6. Hierarchies of Values of the populations of Russia, Spain, Finland, Netherlands and Norway (mean levels of ten value indexes, by countries, ranked in descending order)

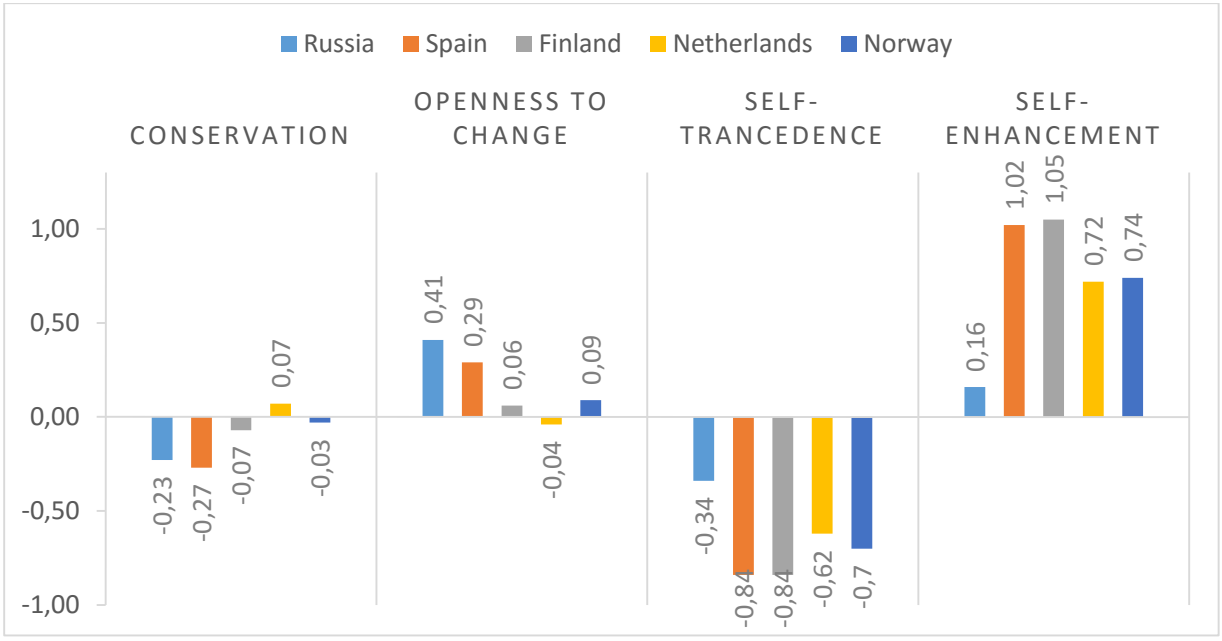


Figure 7. The relative importance of value categories in Russia, Spain, Finland, Netherlands and Norway

The value category "conservation" consists of security, tradition and conformity, all of which are typically appreciated in Russia. In comparison with the other countries, Russians and Spaniards place more importance on security and tradition than the other three countries, whereas conformity is appreciated more only in Norway. These differences are illustrated in Figure 8. In general, cultures that value security, social order and respect for tradition treat people as entities embedded in the collectivity, emphasizing maintaining the status quo and restraining actions that might disrupt in-group solidarity or the traditional order (Schwartz, 2013). In addition, a strong emphasis on security and tradition indicates, that a culture tends to emphazise hierarchy and discourage autonomy and equality (Schwartz, 2013), whereas the importance of conformity is related to complying with laws, rules, social norms and formal obligations to avoid upsetting or harming other people. Thus, Russia exemplifies an embedded, hierarchical culture. This kind of cultural atmosphere might induce individuals to rely less on their own values as bases for decisions and behavior and more on social expectations and traditions (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; McCarthy et al. 2008). Furthermore, both embeddedness and hierarchy put allegiances to one's family, in-group, or superiors ahead of rational, bureaucratic considerations (Schwartz, 2013). Schwartz (2013, p.570) argues that these allegiances justify violating the law, rules or regulations for the benefit of one's own gain and that of one's family – something that is reflected in the conformity score for Russia.

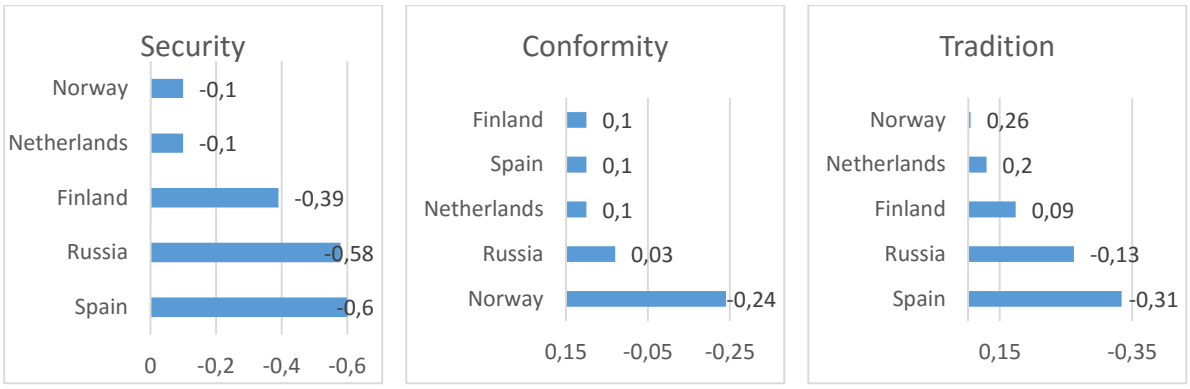


Figure 8. The importance of value indexes included in the category "Conservation"

Out of the values that make up the second category of values, "openness to change", self-direction is regarded somewhat important in Russia, whereas least importance is placed on hedonism and stimulation. As shown in Figure 9, in comparison with the other countries, self-direction is least important for the Russian population, indicating that activities such as thinking up new ideas, being creative, making independent decisions and acting upon them are not as appreciated within Russian culture as in the other four. Similarly, hedonism is more important in all comparison countries, and stimulation in all others but Spain. These findings are in line with the previous statement, that Russia exemplifies an embedded culture. In such a culture meaning in life is expected to come largely through in-group social relationships, through identifying with the group, participating in its shared way of life, and striving toward its shared goals. Personal control and initiative are more likely to be features of an autonomy culture than of an embedded one (Linz, 2004). Hence, people in embedded cultures are not encouraged to cultivate and express their own preferences, feelings, ideas, and abilities or to find meaning in their own uniqueness (Schwartz, 2013).

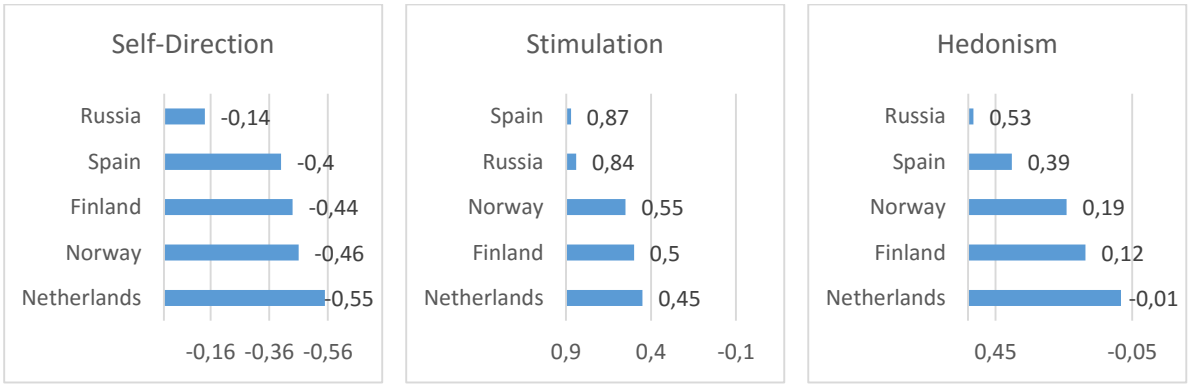


Figure 9. The importance of value indexes included in the category "Openness to Change"

The third and fourth value categories form the most interesting counter pair in this study, because within these categories the responses between countries vary the most. "Self-transcendence" refers to the values of universalism and benevolence, whereas "self-enhancement" comprises of values of power and achievement. The results indicate that self-transcendence is the most important value category for Russians. Indeed, Russia, is commonly acknowledged to be a collectivist country (Gibbs & Ashill, 2013; Soyez, 2012; Hofstede et al. 2010) where qualities such as interdependence, loyalty, solidarity, and identification with the in-group are strongly emphasized (Hofstede, 2001). In such a culture, it is important to fit in the social world and to accept, preserve, and appreciate the way things are rather than try to change them (Schwartz, 2013). Accordingly, efforts to bring about change are discouraged, whereas maintaining smooth, harmonious relations and avoiding conflict is encouraged (Schwartz, 2013). Thus, Russia could be categorized as a harmony culture.

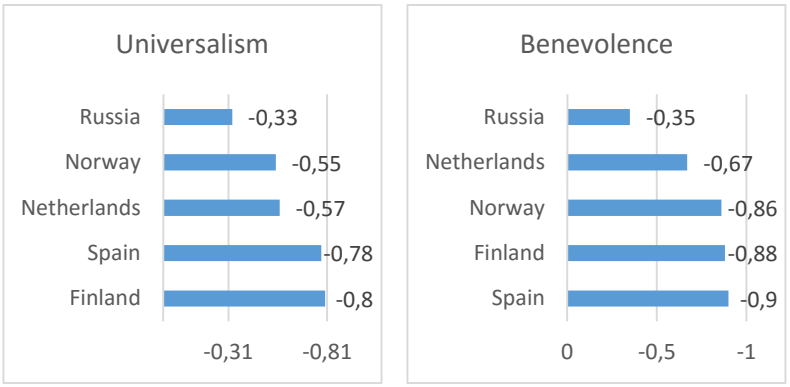


Figure 10. The importance of value indexes included in the category "Self-transcendence"

However, the comparison with the other European countries clearly shows that both universalism and benevolence are rated as more important in all the other countries, as shown in Figure 10. Moreover, Figure 11 illustrates that Russians appreciate values of power and achievement (which form the category of self-enhancement) more than any of the other countries. In other words, the hierarchical position of a value in any particular country is not equivalent to its position in comparison with other countries. Although valuing wealth, power, personal success and social recognition is often argued to be a feature of an individualist culture than of a collectivist one (Linz, 2004), the results imply that in Russia it is more important to demonstrate competence and success that other people will recognize, respect and admire, than in the of the other countries under examination.

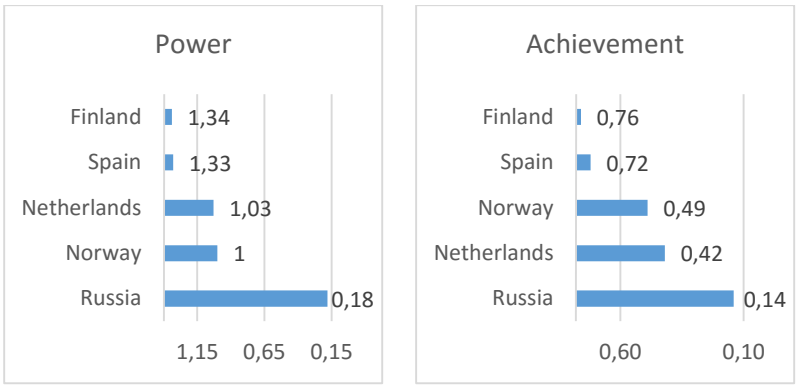


Figure 11. The importance of value indexes included in the category "Self-enhancement"

In sum, the ESS results show that several factors differentiate Russia culturally from other European countries. In order to determine the cultural value orientation of Russia, the data was first studied in terms of four value categories: conservation, openness to change, self-transcendence and self-enhancement. According to the findings, the most important value categories for Russia are self-transcendence and conservation. Each value category was then examined with relation to the different value constructs that make up the category. The most important values for Russian population are security, benevolance and universalism. However, in comparison with other countries, universalism and benevolence are least important in Russia. The same is true for self-direction, stimulation and hedonism. In contrast, values of power and achievement are appreciated considerably more in Russia, than in any of the other countries. Similarly, security, conformity and tradition are less important in almost all other countries.

Thus, the results indicate that in comparison with the other four countries (Spain, Finland, Netherlands and Norway), Russian culture is characterized by a strong emphasis on security, which implies that efforts to bring about change are discouraged, whereas maintaining smooth relations and avoiding conflict is encouraged. In such a culture hierarchical systems define the distribution of power, roles, and resources. People are socialized to take the unequal distribution of power and roles for granted, to comply with the obligations and rules attached to their roles, to show deference to superiors and to expect deference from subordinates. Meaning in life is expected to come largely through in-group social relationships, identifying with the group, participating in its shared way of life, and striving toward its shared goals. Accordingly, there is a less strongly pronounced need for novelty, creative endeavor, freedom, and independence. Therefore, people are less inclined to take risks and to pursue fun and pleasure. Thus, Russia exemplifies a hierarchical, embedded culture.

Due to the unique characteristics highlighted by the responses, it was difficult to define Russian culture as either mastery or harmony culture. Instead, Russia seemed to demonstrate features of both. In cultures that emphasize harmony, it is important to fit in and to accept, preserve, and appreciate the way things. In contrast, mastery cultures encourage active self-assertion by individuals or groups in order to master, direct, and change the natural and social environment to attain group or personal goals. Indeed, in Russia there is a strong striving for wealth, authority, personal success and social recognition. Although the values of universalism and benevolence are important for Russians, this strong focus on individual self-enhancement is argued to leave less room for concern about equality, justice, tolerance and concern about the environment or the other people. Table 14 summarizes the findings and their implications for Russian cultural context.

Table 14. Implications of the relative importance of values for Russian cultural value orientation

Hierarchy of values in Russia	Relative importance	Implications for Russian cultural value orientation
Security	Most important in Russia	• People treated as entities embedded in collectivity • Maintenance of status quo by restraining actions that might disrupt in-group solidarity or the traditional order • Emphasis on hierarchy • Discouragement of autonomy and equality
Benevolence	Least important in Russia	• Emphasis on interdependence, loyalty, solidarity and identification with the in-group • Maintenance of smooth, harmonious relations and avoidance of conflict encouraged • Devotion to the welfare of in-group members
Universalism	Least important in Russia	• Important to fit in the social world and to accept, preserve, and appreciate the way things are • Efforts to bring about change discouraged
Self-direction	Least important in Russia	• Meaning in life expected to come through in-group social relationships, identifying with the group, participating in its shared way of life, and striving toward its shared goals • Personal control and initiative (thinking up new ideas, being creative, making independent decisions and acting upon them) not encouraged
Tradition	Most important in Russia	• Maintenance of status quo by restraining actions that might disrupt in-group solidarity or the traditional order
Conformity	More important only in Norway	• Compliance with laws, rules, social norms and formal obligations to avoid upsetting or harming other people important
Achievement	Most important in Russia	• Important to demonstrate personal competence and success • Social recognition, respect and admiration important
Power	Most important in Russia	• Social power, authority and wealth valued • Unequal distribution of power, roles, and resources seen as legitimate (or desirable) • People socialized to take hierarchical distribution of roles for granted, to comply with the obligations and rules attached to their roles, to show deference to superiors and expect deference from subordinates.
Hedonism	Least important in Russia	• To devote time to what one personally thinks is fun and pleasurable and to express own preferences, feelings, ideas, or abilities not important
Stimulation	Less important only in Spain	• Risk taking and trying out new things not encouraged

5 DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS

In this chapter, key results from the qualitative and quantitative analysis are addressed in the light of previous research to tackle the main research problem "How does Russian cultural context affect the way drivers of employee engagement are perceived in multinational corporations operating in Russia?" The analysis of the Fortum Sound survey data revealed that although the overall percentage favorable for all resources was rather high, there were differences in the way each level of resources was perceived. In addition, qualitative analysis of the interviews gave insights into the demand side of the phenomenon and provided some explanation for the scores in the Fortum Sound survey. The results of the ESS, then, showed that several factors differentiate Russia culturally from other European countries. Next, the aim is to expose associations between the perceptions of employee engagement drivers in OAO Fortum and Russian culture by taking these findings together and by discussing each level of job resources and related demands in the light of the discovered cultural factors.

5.1 Russian Culture and Perceptions of Employee Engagement Drivers in OAO Fortum

5.1.1 Task Level Resources and Demands

Out of the task level resources measured, task level resources related to role and task clarity (e.g., skill utilization, work role fit, clear division of labor) at work were perceived positively. These findings connect to the ESS results in that the relatively low score for universalism and strong emphasis on security implies that Russians often take the hierarchical distribution of roles and compliance with the obligations and rules attached to different roles for granted. However, as pointed out by interviewees, in today's complicated work environment the division of roles and tasks is not always clear, which can cause problems at work.

This finding was also related to involvement and autonomy in decision making. Although 73% of the survey respondents were encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things, 78% reported that their ideas and suggestions count and 81% stated being involved in decisions that affect their work, interviewees felt that they could not actually have much say in how their work was organized, as managers might give them urgent task without further notice. While these urgent activities were seen as natural part of their work, people still perceived the inability to take part in decision making as a hindrance. Nevertheless, they also acknowledged that such empowerment could cause problems due to differences in people's ability to estimate how much time they need to accomplish certain tasks. Interviewees felt that there was a need to improve soft skills (i.e. communication, teamwork and collaboration, adaptability, problem

solving and conflict resolution, flexibility, accepting responsibility, leadership skills) to overcome problems with organization of work. In other words, while complying with the organizational hierarchy and completing tasks handed out by the management, people were also willing to take responsibility and come up with better ways to organize their tasks.

These findings conflict with earlier research that assumes Russian employees expect autocratic leadership style (Barton & Barton, 2011; Kets de Vries, 2000; Puffer & McCarthy, 2011) and do not necessarily expect to be consulted or given responsibility (Lewis, 2006). Moreover, they contradict with the ESS results, in that when compared to other countries, Russia scores the lowest in self-direction and stimulation, indicating that willingness to try out new things and to act in an innovative way is not as appreciated within Russian culture. In such an environment, sharing new ideas undermines maintaining the status quo, because there is always a risk of offending or angering a superior or colleague, who could be criticized for lack of knowledge and not having thought of it first (McCarthy et al. 2008). Combined with a strong preference for security, these features are expected to result in a desire to restrain from actions that have the potential to disrupt in-group solidarity or the traditional order. For example, to avoid confrontations with management or colleagues, people might restrain from innovative behaviors and try to comply with the organizational hierarchy, practices and social norms instead. Thus, it has been suggested that giving employees an opportunity to come up with new ideas and suggestions (for example in a formal meeting) can actually be appraised negatively as a threat that has the potential to thwart personal growth, learning, goal attainment and rewards and should therefore be conceptualized as demands (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014).

Similarly, the ESS results indicated a strong focus on power, personal success and social recognition. Because power comes from knowledge and expertise, there is a desire to save face and evade feeling embarrassed by avoiding failure (McCarthy et al. 2008). The proposition is that in such environment employees may feel uneasy and reluctant to accept and exercise discretionary power in performing their job duties (Barton & Barton, 2011; Gibbs & Ashill, 2013) and be hesitant to accept personal responsibility for outcomes or to take actions that go beyond the scope of performing routine duties (Magun & Rudnev, 2010). However, although managers might be unwilling to delegate decisions and to empower employees (Gibbs & Ashill, 2013), employees in OAO Fortum clearly indicated they were ready to take on such challenges. Hence, although Russian leadership often exemplifies a transactional style, in which loyalty and conformity is exchanged for freedom from accountability (Kets de Vries, 2000; McCarthy

et al. 2008; Puffer & McCarthy, 2011), such a style might actually hinder employee engagement in Russia.

Other task level resources that scored lower than average in the Fortum Sound survey were related to performance management and feedback from the managers. The results show that only 73% stated that the current performance management system is fair and motivating. This finding is in line with earlier research on Russia, positing that because maintaining a public image as a competent employee is essential (McCarthy et al. 2008; Skuza et al. 2013), people are conscious of and sensitive to what their colleagues think of and see in their performance, especially performance that is mandated or controlled (Tourigny et al. 2013). Thus, informing employees of necessary changes in behavior, attitudes, skills, job knowledge or her position requires delicacy (Elenkov, 1998, p.146) – something that is not a feature of the western style performance management (Farndale et al., 2014, p.277), which might help to explain the relatively low score. In fact, performance management regularly ranks among the lowest topics in global employee satisfaction surveys, with less than a third of employees believing that their company's performance management process assists them in improving their performance (Pulakos, 2009).

On the other hand, 78% of the survey respondents stated that their line manager provides them with timely and helpful feedback. However, this finding was not supported by the interviews that showed managers were often too busy to recognize work well-done. Interviewees stated that there was a need to improve the related soft skills as, because of the heavy workload, managers were inclined to give negative feedback when things were not going according to plans. The ESS results suggest that because of the strong emphasis on power and achievement in Russia, such direct negative feedback might cause the employee to lose face and damage his or her self-image, destroying the harmony that is expected to govern interpersonal relationships. Hence, failing to provide employees with appropriate and constructive feedback on their performance has the potential to thwart employee growth, thus hindering employee engagement. In other words, providing appropriate feedback has the potential to enhance engagement in Russia.

Overall, it is noteworthy that the interview findings often conflict with the Fortum Sound survey results, as well as with the ESS results on Russian cultural orientation. Generally, the Fortum Sound results depicted a more positive picture of the task level resources than the interview results. This finding could be related to the fact that in an interview participants are better able

to described negative experiences – something that is not possible in a standardized survey. On the other hand, the survey responses might reflect an acquiescence bias – a tendency of the respondents to agree with all the questions or to indicate a positive connotation even when in doubt (Smith, 2004). Indeed, researchers have shown that such a bias is more pronounced in collectivistic cultures (ibid.), which highlights the relevance of the general concept of alignment and consensus and illustrates the different connotation attached to "agreeing" in Russia (Fey & Denison, 2003, p.698).

To conclude, previous research assumes Russian employees expect autocratic leadership style and do not expect to be consulted or given responsibility (Lewis, 2006). The ESS results on Russian cultural value orientation supported this view. However, the survey findings showed that although employees were willing to comply with organizational hierarchy, they were also willing to take responsibility and come up with better ways to organize their tasks. As a result, the inability to take part in decision making and in the organization of one's work was perceived as a hindrance (job demand). Accordingly, it could be argued that involving employees has the potential to promote mastery, personal growth and future gains, also in Russia. Similarly, the ESS results suggest that Russians dislike the western style performance management (Farndale et al., 2014, p.277). Nevertheless, failure to provide employees with constructive feedback can be perceived as a job demand, and it may therefore hinder employee engagement.

On the other hand, task level resources such as skill utilization, work role fit, clear division of labor were perceived positively, exemplifying true resources in that within the Russian business environment they have the potential to promote mastery, personal growth and future gains. Overall, the relatively low scores on task level resources indicates a lower level of meaningfulness in work or, in other words, lower return on investment of a person's effort deriving from task characteristics, role characteristics, and other work factors. Referring back to the theoretical framework, low level of meaningfulness in work predicts a lower level of task and work engagement. The discussion on task level resources and demands in the light of general cultural characteristics of Russia is summarized in Table 15.

Table 15. Summary of perceptions on task level resources and demands in the light of general cultural characteristics of Russia.

	Fortum Sound	Interviews	ESS
Task clarity	Approximately 80% of the respondents stated that the performance standards are clear, work processes are well organized and that their work connects meaningfully to the objectives of their division and Fortum in general.	Employees comply with organizational hierarchy by completing urgent tasks assigned by managers. Such demands made respondents feel they had no control over their job and that they did not have enough time to show their best work. There is a need to learn to arrange and delegate tasks.	Emphasis on security and relatively low score on universalism implies that Russians take the compliance with the obligations and rules attached to different roles for granted.
Role clarity	83% of the respondents agreed that in their team responsibilities are clearly defined, whereas 81% stated that their job makes a good use of their skills and abilities.	In today's complicated work environment, the division of roles and tasks is not always clear, which can cause problems at work. Such negatively valued resource exemplifies a job demand.	Emphasis on security and relatively low score on universalism implies that Russians take the hierarchical distribution of roles for granted.
Involvement	More than 80% of the respondents agreed that they were appropriately involved in decision making and almost 80% stated that their ideas and suggestions count.	Employees are willing to take responsibility and come up with better ways to organize their tasks. Opportunities to affect the organization of work are limited and managers often assign urgent task without further notice, both of which can be perceived as demands.	Strong focus on security, conformity and tradition, but also on power, personal success and social recognition • Desire to restrain from actions that have the potential to disrupt in-group solidarity or the traditional order → Unappreciation of risk taking and innovative behavior. • Desire to save face and evade feeling embarrassed by avoiding failure → Reluctance to accept and exercise discretionary power in performing job duties.
Feedback	78% of the respondents stated that their line manager provides them with timely and helpful feedback, while 73% agreed that the Performance and Development Discussions are fair and motivating.	Managers are too busy to acknowledge work well-done. Heavy workload is reflected in manager's mood in that they are more inclined to give negative feedback. These are demanding aspects of the work.	Strong emphasis on conformity, power and achievement • Harmony governs interpersonal relationships. • Demonstration of competence and success important → People are sensitive to what others think of their performance. Negative feedback might cause one to lose face and it might therefore be given indirectly.

5.1.2 Organization Level Resources and Demands

Out of all the resources measured in the Fortum Sound, organization level resources received the lowest scores from employees. Items that scored somewhat below the average in the Fortum Sound survey include resources related to collaboration between divisions and functions, recognition, corporate communication and training, whereas organizational support (such as showing interest in employee's well-being or providing development opportunities) scored higher than average.

The interview findings support the survey findings on corporate collaboration and communication. Interviewees explained that communication with other divisions or top-management can sometimes be challenging. This is not a surprising finding, since it is quite natural that communication between geographically distant offices might turn out to be more difficult than communication with people who work in the same building, for example. Moreover, as some of the interviewees pointed out, because managers bear higher responsibility and accountability to the company, they are often very busy, which can make communication somewhat difficult. The ESS results also indicate a strong focus on power and achievement, which means that authority is valued and employees are expected to show deference to superiors by complying with the organizational hierarchy were communication is supposed to be top down – not the other way around. Moreover, Yang et al. (2008) found significant positive relationships between individuals' tendencies to save face and to gain face, and their intentions to share knowledge. Because power comes from knowledge, people might be worried that sharing problems, seeking social support or asking feedback from friends and co-workers could be interpreted as a lack of knowledge (Skuza et al. 2013) or result in criticism by others (Ashill et al. 2015). Thus, an individual's willingness to share knowledge is influenced by not only cultural and societal level expectations, but also by relational considerations of what constitutes appropriate knowledge sharing behavior (May & Stewart, 2013).

When it comes to training, some respondents in the Fortum Sound survey felt they were not always offered enough training to complete their tasks effectively. Although the company offers various types of training (such as the Personal Development Program; Interviewee 1), the interviews with the employees revealed that instead of task or role specific lack of knowledge, some felt that there was a need for soft skills training, such as how to delegate tasks or to communicate effectively with colleagues. This point is well illustrated by the fact that in such a big organization employee development also depends upon the employee's willingness to

participate and on whether or not she can communicate that desire to the management. Thus, the ability – or willingness – of management to deliver resources plays an important role in the engagement process (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Spreitzer et al., 2010; Saks & Gruman, 2014). Although Bakker et al. (2011) argue that employees can engage in job crafting (e.g., negotiating different job content, increasing one's own job demands or developing personal resources through self-initiated action), in Russia such behaviors would not necessarily be interpreted as willingness to develop one's capabilities. Rather, due to acceptance of the hierarchical distribution of roles and compliance with the obligations and rules attached to different roles in Russian culture, job crafting could be regarded as a sign of questioning the management which could jeopardize the success of the team.

Moreover, as the interview results showed, the reported lack of training was often related to a feeling of not knowing how to tackle problems during person's first months in the company, when the practices and people were still not familiar. Most respondents agreed that their job makes a good use of their competences, skills and abilities and that they were actually quite motivated by their current tasks and responsibilities as well as development opportunities. Therefore, rather than reflecting insufficient training, this finding could also be related to the fact that one of the highest expectations of rewards from work in Russia is development of new skills (Linz et al., 2006). Thus, training is not seen only as an organizational resource to complete tasks efficiently, but also as a way to gain power and to increase one's social standing and prestige. This is consistent with findings that have indicated that Russians attach higher value to development than their counterparts in the West (Puffer, 1992; Fey & Denison 2003).

Accordingly, recognition also scored lower than average in the Fortum Sound survey. The ESS results on achievement show, that although Russia exemplifies an embedded culture, the strong emphasis on self-enhancement makes it important to demonstrate personal competence and success and to get social recognition for accomplishments at work. This finding is supported by previous research. For example, Linz et al. (2006) studied the expectations of Russian workers of receiving particular rewards at work. Their findings show, that receiving rewards such as bonuses, additional freedom or promotions are not the most important forms of recognition for Russians (ibid.). Instead, the highest expectations were related to friendliness and respect of co-workers as well as developing new skills and feeling good about one's accomplishments (ibid.). This is why celebrations, such as birthdays, family occasions (e.g., the birth of a child) and personal achievements, are very important and a lot of care and attention

goes into planning them (Hellevig, 2012). Some researchers (Patico, 2002; Frey, 2006; Puffer & McCarthy) have argued that these preferences date back to the Soviet era, when people were not rewarded for exceptional results (because they did not fit state-designed economic plans), and when recognition was given, it was not in monetary means but symbolically with public recognition or higher status in the nomenclature hierarchy.

In contrast, items measuring organizational support, such as showing interest in employee's well-being or providing development opportunities scored higher than average. Interviewees, too, stated that being part of Fortum is, in many ways, rewarding and gives them a sense of security. Moreover, they stated that they have a lot of opportunities to show their competence. These findings are in line with the ESS results related to values of universalism and benevolence: Because the group is often argued to be the most important entity in any Russian organization and contributing to the group the most important thing about work (Puffer et al. 1997), employees often expect their organization to take care of them as a family does in return (McCarthy et al. 2008).

In sum, some respondents felt there is a lack of effective collaboration and communication between divisions and functions in OAO Fortum and that there should be more training and recognition. According to theory, negatively appreciated resources should be conceptualized as demands (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). In other words, some people are likely to experience this lack of resources as a demand that unnecessarily thwarts their personal growth, learning, goal attainment and rewards. According to the theoretical framework, these low scores imply low meaningfulness at work, which means that Russian employees do not necessarily feel that there is a return on investment on their efforts as members of the organization. In other words, Russian employees might be less engaged to their organization. In contrast, taking care of employee's well-being and providing sufficient development opportunities were perceived positively, thus exemplifying job resources that have the potential to foster organization engagement in Russia. Summary of perceptions on organization level resources in the light of general cultural characteristics of Russia is presented in Table 16.

Table 16. Summary of perceptions on organization level resources in the light of general cultural characteristics of Russia.

	Fortum Sound	Interviews	ESS
Organizational support	84% felt the organization cared for their well-being. 75% agreed that there were equal opportunities for all employees.	Employees are provided with social security benefits.	Strong focus on universalism and benevolence • Emphasis on interdependence, loyalty, solidarity, and identification with the in-group → Contributing to group is most important thing about work. In return, organization is expected to take care of employees as a family does.
Development opportunities	76% reported that their manager supports their professional development and that they were happy with the opportunities they have.	There are a lot of opportunities for development and career growth. However, the managements inability to devote time for employees makes communication about desires and different options challenging.	Weak prominence of self-direction and stimulation combined with strong focus on power and achievement • People not encouraged to cultivate and express their own preferences, ideas, and abilities → Efforts to bring about change are discouraged, whereas maintaining smooth relations and avoiding conflict is encouraged. • Demonstration of competence and success important → Developing new skills seen as a way to gain power and to increase one's social standing and prestige.
Communication and Collaboration	76 % agreed that top management communicates clear and consistent messages to all parts of the company and 70% felt there is an open an honest two-way communication. Only 62% stated there is good collaboration between divisions/functions.	Communication between geographically distant offices and busy managers somewhat challenging. There is a need to develop soft skills for the benefit of the organization.	Emphasis on conformity, universalism and benevolence • Hierarchical distribution of roles and tasks taken for granted → Autocratic leadership expected. Loyalty and conformity is exchanged for freedom from accountability. • Efforts to bring about change discouraged, whereas maintaining smooth relations and avoiding conflict encouraged → Expressing differing views undermines maintaining the status quo, as there is a risk of offending or angering someone. • Emphasis on interdependence, loyalty, solidarity, and identification with the in-group → Strong preference for providing social support in the form of giving advice and providing help to improve unit or team performance.
Training	74% agreed they have sufficient training to do their job effectively.	There is a need to develop soft skills. Newcomers need help in learning how the organization works.	Strong focus on power and achievement • Demonstration of competence and success important → Developing new skills seen as a way to gain power and to increase one's social standing and prestige.

5.1.3 Interpersonal and Social Level Resources

Out of the different level resources, employees in OAO Fortum perceived interpersonal and social level resources, such as coworker and supervisor support or trust in management, most favorably.

Both survey and interview responses highlighted the effortless cooperation with other team members and many mentioned that whenever there were problems or lack of knowledge, there were always coworkers and managers who could offer help and guidance. This perception of strong coworker support is in line with earlier academic research on Russian culture and further supported by the ESS findings. Indeed, the importance of the social structure of the workplace and of building harmony among employees in Russia is widely recognized (Gulyanskaya, 2008; Ashill, 2013). Many account these features to the collectivistic traditions of Russian national culture, which are deeply imbedded in organizational cultures and management models (Gulyanskaya, 2008). For example, many HR practices focus on group benefits, reinforcing the importance of team contributions and group performance (Koveshnikov et al. 2012; Gibbs and Ashill, 2013). Because everyone is expected to cooperate and help fellow co-workers to improve unit or team performance (Gibbs & Ashill, 2013), Russians have a strong preference for providing social support in the form of giving advice and providing help in the workplace (Chentsova-Dutton & Vaughn, 2011).

Interestingly, the finding also partially conflicts with earlier research on problem sharing in Russia. The argument is, that in cultures where there is a strong focus on the values of power and achievement, people might be worried that sharing problems could result in criticism (Ashill et al. 2015), or that others could interpret it as lack of knowledge. Both lack of knowledge and the inability to meet the requirements of one's role can signal incompetence (Skuza et al. 2013). Similarly, in cultures where the social norms take priority over individual needs, feelings of stress or anxiety, for example, are perceived as something that must be endured by regulating one's own feelings (Ashill et al. 2015). Thus, if employees feel stressed or emotionally exhausted, these experiences might be difficult for coworkers, family, friends and professional counselors to understand (ibid.). Accordingly, the inability to meet the requirements of one's role or task could be perceived as a signal of incompetence (Skuza et al. 2013). Thus, because people desire to maintain one's public image as a competent employee (McCarthy et al. 2008), there is a tendency to discharge one's own responsibilities and correct mistakes, rather than place that burden on others for help and advice (Gorschkov, 2011). In

other words, previous research often claims Russians might feel that they cannot employ themselves without fear of negative consequences to their self-image, status or career (psychological safety). However, as was illustrated in the Fortum Sound results and the interviewee statements, employees in OAO Fortum felt at ease asking for advice, because they knew they could count on their peers for help.

Moreover, the results also contradicted with the ESS scores on universalism and benevolence. As Magun and Rudnev (2010, pp.50-53) put it the low scores indicate that

> "today's average Russian has an extremely weakly developed sense of values over and beyond himself, values relating to concern for the well-being of other people, a sense of equal rights and a tolerant attitude toward them, and also any concern about the environment."

Based on the Fortum Sound results and the interviews, this argument does not hold true. In fact, many interviewees mentioned they often received help, but also offered their advice and time for the benefit of the team. The Russian's ESS score on hedonism and the interviews with the company representatives further support this argument. Hedonism refers to devoting time to what one personally thinks is fun and pleasurable. The more people work, the less time they have to spend on other activities, such as personal care or leisure (e.g., socializing with friends and family, hobbies, games, computer and television use; OECD, 2015). According to OECD (2015), Russians work the second-longest hours in Europe after Greece. Halbesleben and Bowler (2007, p.102) argue, that in Russia, employees who are central to a social network often feel an obligation to expend extra resources in the form of behaviors contributing to increasing job performance – even if it means putting in extra hours at the expense of fun and relaxation (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003). This point is well illustrated by the fact, that when asked to describe a typical work day, all interviewees said they worked regular hours (8:30 – 17:30). However, everyone was prepared to come earlier or stay later whenever there was unfinished business.

On the other hand, communication with managers, whom interviewees perceived as busy (making them harder to approach) was not always perceived as easy as communication with other colleagues. In fact, the interview findings showed, that employees wished more support from their manager, pointing out that there was a need to devote more time to employees to discuss issues such as career development. Moreover, some of the interviewees expressed a need for soft skills training, which could, for example, be related to the fact that when things go wrong, there is a possibility to get a public reprimand from the manager. In addition, others

claimed there is a need to build trust based relationships and to learn to delegate tasks, both of which could relate to such problems with communication and co-operation with the managers. These findings are more in line with previous research on Russian business practices, that highlight the role of autocratic leadership style (Barton & Barton, 2011; Kets de Vries, 2000; Puffer & McCarthy, 2011).

Finally, the interview responses also show that close cooperation with peers, colleagues and managers actually has potential to turn hindrance demands into challenge demands. For example, all interviewees reported working under time pressure and being responsible of challenging projects that had to be sometimes completed with insufficient resources. Nevertheless, completing such projects with the help of colleagues was described as highly motivational. In other words, when a project is on, working under strict time constraint might be perceived as a hindrance. However, after successful completion people might look back at the situation and think that it was actually quite challenging and offered them a chance to show their competence. Should the project fail, the evaluation might of course differ. Thus, I argue that when exploring employee engagement drivers in the workplace, time is an important factor determining whether different aspects of the job are regarded as resources or demands.

To sum up, the perceptions on interpersonal and social relations level resources in the light of general cultural characteristics of Russia are presented in Table 17. The results indicated that, in line with the ESS findings on universalism and benevolence, employees perceived meaningful interpersonal and social relations positively. It was also argued, that resources such as coworker support often buffer from job demands, making this category of resources important for other types of engagement as well. On the other hand, problems with interpersonal relations are rarely perceived as opportunities or challenges, but rather as hindrances that thwart personal growth, learning, goal attainment and rewards. In line with the theoretical framework, high scores on interpersonal and social resources show that employees feel they are provided with resources that enable them to feel that they can employ themselves without fear of negative consequences to their self-image, status or career. High level of such psychological safety implies that Russian employees are likely be highly engaged to their group. Psychological safety is also important for task, work and organization engagement.

Table 17. Summary of perceptions on interpersonal and social relations level resources in the light of general cultural characteristics of Russia.

	Fortum Sound	Interviews	ESS
Coworker support	Approximately 90% agreed that everyone in their team cooperated to get work done and that collaboration with others was rewarding.	Asking for help and communicating with team members is easy and everyone is committed to getting work done as a team. Coworkers provide people with support and guidance.	Strong focus on power, achievement, universalism and benevolence • Because power comes from knowledge, people might be worried that sharing problems, seeking social support or asking feedback from friends and co-workers could be interpreted as a lack of knowledge or result in criticism by others. • Emphasis on interdependence, loyalty, solidarity, and identification with the in-group → Strong preference for providing social support in the form of giving advice and providing help to improve unit or team performance.
Supervisor support and **Trust in management**	Over 80% stated that managers treat team members fairly and with respect, providing everyone with necessary support in times of change. More than 80% trusted their line manager and had faith in the decisions of the division/function.	Problems can always be discussed with managers, who provide employees with a lot of opportunities to show their competence, but do not necessarily always have time to show their support because they bear significant responsibility and accountability within the organization.	Strong focus on conformity, universalism, benevolence and hedonism • Hierarchical distribution of roles and tasks taken for granted → Autocratic leadership expected. Loyalty and conformity is exchanged for freedom from accountability. • Emphasis on interdependence, loyalty, solidarity, and identification with the in-group → Contributing to group is most important thing about work. In return, organization is expected to take care of employees as a family does. Managers feel an obligation to expend extra resources even if it means putting in extra hours at the expense of fun and relaxation.

5.1.4 Personal Level Resources

In addition to interpersonal and social level resources, personal level resources also received a relatively high score. Overall, people were confident with their abilities to complete work related tasks and they were aware of the skills they needed to develop in order to proceed in their careers. People also seemed to take personal pride for working in the organization.

The fact that most of the respondents in the Fortum Sound survey reported being confident about their work ability, skills and ability to balance between their work and private life is in line with the ESS results that imply that Russians place high importance on values of power and achievement, meaning that it is essential to demonstrate competence and success. Researchers have often been argued that self-enhancement only has positive social and psychological consequences within cultural systems organized to foster and promote the independence and the uniqueness of the self (Linz, 2004; Shimazu et al., 2010a), whereas in others the personal success of an individual may be discouraging for colleagues and can create negative attitudes (Skuza et al. 2013). However, because the inability to meet the requirements of one's role or task could be perceived as a signal of incompetence (Skuza et al. 2013), people might want to maintain their public image as a competent employee (McCarthy et al. 2008). In addition, it should be remembered that the ESS results also showed that Russians value conformity, which indicates that social norms often take priority over individual needs, and individual success can therefore be equivalent to group success and the other way around (Tyler & Blader, 2003).

Similarly, the Russian ESS score on hedonism suggests that employees often feel an obligation to expend extra resources even if it means putting in extra hours at the expense of fun and relaxation (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003). This view was supported by the interviews, as it became evident, that everyone was ready to put in extra hours to work for the team. This might partially help explain why also those employees who often worked extra hours still reported that they were capable of balancing between their work and private life. Moreover, as the interviews illustrated, for many the work was more than just a source of income: people took pride for working in the organization where self-realization, skill-development and making real friends was possible.

In conclusion, Russian employees perceived that the level of their personal resources was relatively high. This finding was supported by the ESS results, in that the importance on values of power, achievement and hedonism imply that in Russia, it is essential to demonstrate

competence and success by expending extra resources for the benefit of the team. Summary of perceptions on personal level resources in the light of general cultural characteristics of Russia is presented in Table 18. According to the theoretical framework, high scores on personal level resources indicate high psychological availability indicating that employees in OAO Fortum have physical, emotional and psychological resources necessary for investing themselves in role performance. Such availability is important for all types of engagement.

Table 18. Summary of perceptions on personal level resources in the light of general cultural characteristics of Russia.

	Fortum Sound	Interviews	ESS
Self-efficacy	95% of employees believe in their capabilities to perform well at work, 83% know what skills are needed to succeed now and in the future and 82% seize the opportunity to adopt new, challenging tasks to advance at Fortum. 83% were able to take care of the balance between work and private life.	Employees felt that despite working with insufficient resources under strict time constraints, they were able to take care of their work related tasks with the help of their team. Everyone was prepared to devote time for work outside regular hours.	Strong focus on power, achievement conformity, no emphasis on hedonism • Because power comes from knowledge, people might be worried that sharing problems, seeking social support or asking feedback from friends and co-workers could be interpreted as a lack of knowledge or result in criticism by others • Social norms take priority over individual needs. Feelings of stress or anxiety must be endured by regulating one's own feelings. • Meaning in life expected to come through in-group social relationships, identifying with the group, participating in its shared way of life, and striving toward its shared goals → Obligation to expend extra resources even if it means putting in extra hours at the expense of fun and relaxation
Organization-based self-esteem and Optimism	80% were proud to work for Fortum and stated that work provides them with a sense of personal accomplishment. 77% believe Fortum has an outstanding future.	Employees were proud to be part of an environmentally friendly organization that takes care of its employees. Many described their work as interesting, challenging and rewarding.	Strong focus on power, achievement • Meaning in life expected to come through in-group social relationships, identifying with the group, participating in its shared way of life, and striving toward its shared goals • Demonstration of competence and success important

6 CONCLUSIONS

This chapter concludes the research with a summary of the main implications, followed by a discussion on managerial implications, limitations of the study and suggestions for further research.

This thesis was motivated by the lack of research on contextual aspects of employee engagement, particularly in non-western cultural settings. As stated before, previous research on employee engagement has not paid much attention to the associations between culture and the way drivers of employee engagement are perceived by employees (Jenkins & Delbridge, 2013; Bailey et al., 2015). However, adding the cultural and organizational values in the theoretical framework enabled exploring this connection. Consequently, the main research problem translated into "How features of Russian national culture relate to perceptions of employee engagement drivers?" The objective was to offer a localized explanation of perceptions regarding the underlying constituents of employee engagement in Russian context. Employee engagement drivers were studied from two different perspectives: employee and cultural perspective. The employee perspective concentrated on mapping out the various employee engagement drivers, namely job resources and demands, to understand how employees in Russian business environment experience them. This also provided hints on what type of engagement might exist in the organization. The cultural perspective focused on identifying cultural factors affecting the employees' experience of the existing job demands and available job resources. The research questions were summarized in the following:

1. How employees perceive drivers of employee engagement in multinational corporations operating in Russia?

2. How perceptions of employee engagement drivers relate to features of Russian national culture?

This study contributed to employee engagement research by examining the concept in Russian cultural context. In addition, it contributes to developing measures that are practical and useful within the business environment they are used in and, thus, supports the study and implementation of employee engagement practices in a wider range of contexts. In addition, the results can be used to provide recommendations on how to enhance employee engagement in organizations operating in Russian business environment.

6.1 Summary of Main Findings

The theoretical framework of this study rests on an idea that drivers of employee engagement consist of job resources (positively valued aspects of the job) and job demands (negatively valued aspects of the job) stemming from the task, organization of work, organization, interpersonal and social relations and the employees themselves. The proposition was that because cultural values guide attitudes related to resources and demands, employees tend to perceive these drivers of employee engagement differently, according to their potential to promote learning, personal growth and goal attainment within that particular environment. Thus, the extent to which employees experience different types of engagement is also likely to be influenced by cultural values.

The main findings of the study are two-fold. First of all, the results of the Fortum Sound survey and interviews with the company representatives showed that employees' perceptions of the existing job demands and available job resources vary with relation to the level of resources: interpersonal and social relations resources were perceived very positively, followed by personal and task resources, whereas the organizational resources were perceived least favorably. Secondly, comparison of the findings with the ESS results on Russian cultural values indicates that many of these perceptions relate systematically and in theoretically meaningful ways to general characteristics of Russian culture, whereas others were found to contradict.

To elaborate, the ESS results show that, in comparison with the other European countries, Russian culture is characterized by a strong emphasis on security. Moreover, there is a less strongly pronounced need for novelty, creative endeavor, freedom, and independence. Therefore, people are less inclined to take risks and to pursue fun and pleasure. In contrast, there is a strong striving for wealth, authority, personal success and social recognition. Although the values of universalism and benevolence are important for Russians, this strong focus on individual self-enhancement was argued to leave less room for concern about equality, justice, tolerance and concern about the environment or the other people.

Comparison of these cultural characteristics with perceptions related to different level job resources revealed that several perceptions reflected the underlying cultural values. For example, it was found that defining clear tasks and roles at work was perceived positively, whereas the lack of clarity was seen as creating difficulties (in terms of whom to ask for advice, for example). This finding is supported by previous research and is in line with the ESS findings that suggest Russians often take the hierarchical distribution of roles and compliance with the

obligations and rules attached to different roles for granted. Similarly, organizational support was perceived positively. Survey respondents stated that OAO Fortum cares about their well-being and interviewees described being part of Fortum as giving them a sense of security. In fact, previous research suggests that Russian employees often expect their organization to take care of them as family does (McCarthy et al. 2008).

Likewise, both survey respondents and interviewees were happy with their development opportunities and agreed that their manager supports their professional development. People knew what skills were needed to be a valuable contributor in the future and they had a lot of opportunities to show their competence. According to the ESS results, both development opportunities and sufficient training are regarded highly important in Russian culture, where developing new skills is seen as a way to gain power and to increase one's social standing and prestige (Linz et al., 2004). These findings contradicted with previous research that claims Russian firms have traditionally placed employees in positions that require their current expertise, whereas relatively little consideration has been given to the set of skills and abilities they should develop to be more instrumental for the company (Fey, 1999).

Moreover, interviewees highlighted that for them, work also means opportunities to network and make new friends. Their statements also supported the survey findings that show that employees have a strong preference for providing social support in the form of giving advice, providing help and expending extra resources to improve unit or team performance, even if it means putting in extra hours at the expense of fun and relaxation. These findings were further supported by the ESS results indicating that in Russian cultural environment meaning in life is expected to come through in-group social relationships, identifying with the group, participating in its shared way of life, and striving toward its shared goals. Accordingly, in such an environment feelings of stress, for example, should be endured by regulating one's own feelings because social norms take priority over individual needs.

In contrast to the previous findings, other perceptions of job resources were found to contradict with expectations stemming from the Russian cultural orientation. For example, the ESS results indicate that involving employees in work-related decision making and encouraging them to come up with new ideas and suggestions is not encouraged in Russian business environment. However, when not given these opportunities, employees felt frustrated and not being able to show their best work, whereas involvement was perceived positively. The same is true for timely feedback. Employees in OAO Fortum reported that there is an open and honest way of

giving feedback between managers and colleagues. This finding contradicts the ESS results that posit that because showing competence and success is regarded highly important, people might not be comfortable with western style performance management or receiving direct negative feedback, both of which challenge one's public image as a competent employee.

In terms of engagement, these findings suggest that defining clear tasks and roles while enabling employees to take a more active role in the organization of their work and providing them with helpful feedback has the potential to promote mastery, personal growth and future gains in Russia. Consequently, according to the theoretical framework, these task level resources have the potential to increase meaningfulness in work (a sense of return on investment of a person's effort deriving from task characteristics, role characteristics, and other work factors), which promotes task and work engagement. Similarly, organization level resources, such as development opportunities and sufficient training are regarded highly important in Russian culture. Thus, these features are likely to enhance meaningfulness at work (a sense of return on investment of a person's effort deriving from one's membership in the organization) which increases organization engagement. Accordingly, personal, interpersonal and social relations level resources, such as meaningful relationships and effective communication and co-operation with colleagues, are likely to enhance psychological safety and availability (a sense of being able to employ oneself without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status or career and possessing the physical, emotional and psychological resources necessary for investing oneself in role performance), both of which are important for all types of engagement. This implies that while employees in OAO Fortum might be highly engaged to their group, they are less likely to be engaged to their work, task and organization respectively.

In my opinion, it is noteworthy that the interview findings often conflicted with the quantitative survey findings. It was proposed that this finding could be related to the fact that in an interview participants are able to described negative experiences, which is not always possible in a standardized survey. In addition, research has shown that the relevance of the general concept of alignment and consensus in collectivistic cultures often results in a tendency to indicate a positive connotation with the survey items, even when in doubt (Fey & Denison, 2003; Smith, 2004). Thus, the comparatively more positive survey responses might also reflect the fact that all items in the Fortum Sound are framed in the same (positive) direction. Accordingly, in line with Demerouti & Bakker (2010), I argue that when measuring employee engagement, scales

that include both positively and negatively worded items are likely to be more valuable for organizations in Russia.

Similarly, although the perceptions of job resources and demands often reflected the Russian cultural values, both Fortum Sound survey responses and the interview results also contradicted the ESS results. Based on these findings, I argue that although many practices in OAO Fortum reflect traditional cultural characteristics, such as strong focus on hierarchy and the importance of relationships, the company also uses a lot of practices that are typically considered successful in more individualist cultures (Linz, 2004). Such features include open and constructive feedback, sharing problems and involving employees in work related decision making. It is also important to note that when it comes to organizational practices, Russian economy has long been relatively open to foreign influences (Fey, 2000). Thus, in addition to the national culture and the underlying values, the organizational values and societal level expectations may also play a role in how employees perceive and experience drivers of employee engagement. Nevertheless, comparisons of engagement levels between different countries, country divisions or subsidiaries in different countries should be made with caution, as responses are likely to be at least somewhat culturally bound. For instance, although Russians reported working long days and extra hours, it seemed a rather natural part of their work and they felt being capable of balancing between their work and private life, whereas in other countries with stronger focus on hedonism working extra hours might be perceived differently.

In addition, the results of this research highlight the personal nature of employee engagement: Although cultural values partially determine the extent to which people are willing to engage themselves to their work, tasks, organization or group, there are also going to be individual differences, because people are likely to vary in their ability to mobilize resources in a value generating way. For example, the interview responses highlighted the fact that newcomers faced difficulties due to lack of social networks to turn to for information and advice. Once they gained more experience in the company, completing tasks became easier. Thus, although job resources have traditionally been viewed as enhancing engagement, a resource that evokes positive emotions and cognitions resulting in active, problem-focused coping styles and increased engagement at one point in time, can trigger negative emotions and cognitions resulting in passive, emotion-focused coping styles and decreased engagement in another, depending on how the employee perceives it. For example, offering a newcomer training on organizational practices enables her to complete her tasks more efficiently, whereas the same

training offered for more experienced employee might be perceived as waste of time that could be used more productively elsewhere.

Moreover, in accordance with Bailey et al. (2015, p.7), the evidence that resources boost engagement and demands deplete engagement is by no means clear-cut. For example, demands (hindrances) can diminish engagement, when employees have little or no possibility to impact the demand or to gain resources to overcome it. In contrast, the same demand can be perceived as a challenge – an opportunity to show one's competence – when there are enough resources to overcome the demand. According to the JD-R Model (Demerouti et al., 2001), such a positively valued demand should be conceptualized as a resource (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). However, based on this research, I argue that people can perceive the same contextual factors both as hindrances and challenges, but rarely as resources. For example, working under strict time constraints meant employees were not always able to put forth their best work. The lack of time was therefore seen as a hindrance. Yet, people also saw the same demand as a possibility to show that they were willing and able to put in extra effort to make the project work even under tight schedule. All the same, the lack of time itself was not perceived as a resource that enabled the completion of the projects. Following a similar logic, I agree with researchers such as Seppälä et al. (2015), Sonnentag & Demerouti (2010) and Bakker (2015) that employee engagement is indeed a rather momentary and transient experience that fluctuates within individuals with relation to contextual contingencies and available resources.

As a result, not all investments in HR practices with the goal of improving engagement levels will be equally productive for all employees (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Therefore, I strongly recommend that when planning interventions to increase engagement, international organizations should look beyond implementing universal best practices across the organization and focus more on determining which practices could be best suited for each division or subsidiary within their specific business environment. For that reason, special attention should be given to the role of managers in the delivery of different resources, as they are likely to be best informed about the individual situations and preferences in their team. They can also help detecting opportunities for improvement in the corporate culture and practices. Moreover, managers typically have the best chances to influence the organizational climate by, for example, promoting a sense of psychological safety or by emphasizing fairness and other antecedents of trust (Macey & Schneider, 2008).

In conclusion, the key findings of this study show that perceptions of several employee engagement drivers relate systematically and in theoretically meaningful ways to general characteristics of Russian culture. Nevertheless, although beliefs regarding the existing job demands and available job resources reflected the national culture, the relationship was not as straightforward as expected. Thus, I argue that although cultural values play an important part in the experience of employee engagement, cultural characteristics alone cannot provide explanation for perceptions of job demands and job resources in Russia. Rather, the perceptions are likely to vary within individuals with relation to contextual contingencies, delivery of available resources and employee's ability to mobilize resources in a value generating way.

6.2 Managerial Implications

The most important managerial implication of this study is that while cultural values play a role in the experience of employee engagement, employees' perceptions are also likely to vary with relation to other contextual contingencies, as well as their ability to mobilize resources in a value generating way. Thus, while not all investments in HR practices with the goal of improving engagement levels will be equally productive for all employees (Macey & Schneider, 2008), the range of available practices that can be used to foster different types of engagement is by no means restricted by the underlying cultural characteristics. Rather, understanding the culture with relation to engagement gives multinational organizations an opportunity to leverage its strengths to reinforce engagement and to work on areas of improvement.

The results of the Fortum Sound survey and interviews with the company representatives showed that employees in OAO Fortum perceived interpersonal and social relations resources very positively, followed by personal and task resources, whereas the organizational resources were perceived least favorably. In other words, employees feel that they are best provided with resources that enable them to feel psychological safety (sense of being able to employ oneself without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status or career), availability (possessing the physical, emotional and psychological resources necessary for investing oneself in role performance) and meaningfulness in work (sense of return on investment of a person's effort deriving from task characteristics, role characteristics, and other work factors) respectively, whereas they experienced less meaningfulness at work (sense of return on investment of a person's effort deriving from one's membership in the organization). According to the theoretical framework, high levels psychological safety, availability and meaningfulness in

work predict high group, task and work engagement. Consequently, the lower level of meaningfulness at work would predict lower level of organization engagement. This implies that while Russian employees might be highly engaged to their group, they are less likely to be engaged to their work, task and organization respectively.

This finding has several implications for multinational organizations operating in Russia. First of all, to foster organization engagement in Russia, companies should note that it is extremely important to take care of employee well-being. This includes not only providing social benefits, but also taking an active role in providing employees with opportunities to take part in relevant training to develop essential skills and capabilities, as these features are likely to enhance meaningfulness at work. As was stated before, OAO Fortum offers a wide variety of training, but employees felt that it could be beneficial for the company to also invest in soft skills training. Indeed, competences such as communication, teamwork and collaboration, adaptability, flexibility, accepting responsibility and leadership skills are all highly important when it comes to enhancing engagement. In addition, companies could offer employees more flexible hours or possibilities for remote work, as it could help employees in big cities, such as Moscow, to balance between work and private life.

Consequently, in order to increase tasks and work engagement in Russia, companies should focus on enhancing meaningfulness in work by defining clear roles and tasks within the organization. The clarity of roles and tasks not only gives employees authority to function effectively within their roles, but it also makes understanding the organizational hierarchy easier. This is especially helpful when new members join the organization and try to figure out from whom to ask guidance and help. Accordingly, when responsibilities are clearly defined, it is likely that people will be better able to estimate what kind of resources they need or how much time certain projects take etc. When people learn to take responsibility of the tasks attached to their roles, managers should encourage and support them to take a more active role in the organization of their work by involving them in work-related decision making and by encouraging them to come up with new ideas and suggestions. Moreover, managers should strive to provide employees with timely and helpful feedback. Positive feedback is likely to increase employees' personal resources, as it contributes to employee's sense of personal accomplishment.

To enhance group or team engagement in Russia, it is important to note that the results indicated that Russian employees already put a lot of effort into completing tasks as a team: People were

found to have a strong preference for providing social support in the form of giving advice, providing help and expending extra resources, even if it means putting in extra hours at the expense of fun and relaxation. Strong support from colleagues meant that people felt being able to employ themselves without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status or career (psychological safety). Moreover, co-operation with colleagues helped to acquire physical, emotional and psychological resources necessary for investing oneself in role performance (availability). Such a strong focus on interpersonal and social relations not only enhances group engagement, but it was also found to have the potential to help employees to overcome job demands that could have otherwise been seen as unnecessarily hindering employee goal attainment. For example, completing tasks under strict time constraints could have been impossible without the help of the team. Moreover, encouraging team work does not only foster group engagement, but it can also help to enhance other types of engagement.

Finally, the fact that the interview results often conflicted with the Fortum Sound survey results, gives reason to believe that the Fortum Sound survey does not depict a clear picture of how different level resources and demands are perceived. This finding was argued to be related to a possible bias towards agreeing with positively framed survey items. Thus, in order to measure employee engagement within Russian business environment, I strongly recommend using scales that include both positively and negatively phrased survey items.

In sum, not all investments in HR practices with the goal of improving engagement levels will be equally productive for all employees (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Therefore, as stated before, I strongly recommend that when planning interventions to increase engagement, international organizations should look beyond implementing universal best practices across the organization and focus more on determining which practices could be best suited for each division or subsidiary within their specific business environment. Because managers are likely to be best informed about the individual situations and preferences in their team, special attention should be given to the role of managers in the delivery of different resources. For example, in the case of OAO Fortum investing in soft skills training could truly help the management to improve co-operation with employees by giving them tools to devote interact more efficiently.

6.3 Limitations and Suggestions for Further research

While employee engagement is a broadly researched topic in the practitioner field, the lack of precise or even somewhat common definition for employee engagement make it almost

impossible to compare and contrast different studies (Macey & Schneider 2008; Shuck & Wollard, 2011; Rothmann, 2014; Bailey et al., 2015). As my findings also showed, conceptualization of particular demands, resources, mental states, and outcomes into well-defined sets is my no means straightforward and more research is needed in order to improve the theoretical underpinning of employee engagement.

Due to time constraints and limited access to company data, only employee engagement surveys from 2014 was selected for analysis. Moreover, because this data was provided by the case company in a pdf format, I did not have access to individual answers but the overall results instead. The limitations of this data source have been discussed in more detail before. Moreover, collection of qualitative data was limited by the lack of my Russian language skills: The selection of interview participants was largely based on his or her ability to speak English. In addition, the number of employees interviewed was relatively low. Although smaller amount of interviews can provide the necessary data to answer the research questions (Hirsjärvi & Hurme, 1980), it must be recognized that it is too limited for broader generalizations.

The need for privacy and protection of the interviewees' privacy was acknowledged and turned out to be problematic: Email systems automatically send participants' addresses along with their responses, so it was not possible to ensure participants' anonymity. In addition, the key informant worked as an intermediary selecting participants and collecting the answers. She knew participants professionally and although this possibly facilitated their willingness to engage with the interviews, it might have inhibited participants' responses as well as their choice of whether or not to participate. Similarly, although the nature of the questions was not too personal, the fact that there was a company intermediate might have restricted the respondents' willingness to give truthful answers. This is especially worrying in Russia, as is demonstrated by Fey & Denison (2003, p.698):

> When we asked one lower-level employee whether he agreed with management's decisions, he replied, 'Right now, people really have no choice other than to agree.' This comment shows the relevance of the general concept of alignment and consensus across levels, but also illustrates the different connotation attached to 'agreeing' in Russia.

Nevertheless, based on the responses that included both positive and negative stories and statements, it seems the interviewees felt they could talk about their work freely.

Finally, although associations between Russian culture and perceptions of employee engagement drivers have been discussed, this study is limited in that the data for culture and

the perceived drivers were not collected from the same sample. As was stated before, the fact that the ESS data reflects the Russian values in general enables to draw conclusions to some extent. However, even if an organization operates in Russia, it is not readily apparent that all employees are familiar with Russian cultural values. In this research, I did not have access to all demographic information of the participants in the Fortum Sound survey and it was therefore impossible to determine the nationality of the respondents.

Hence, I propose that further studies are needed to explore the interplay between the internal contextual environment within organizations, managerial constraints and engagement. Moreover, in line with Truss et al. (2013), I suggest that because little is known about engagement at the group or team level, this would be a fruitful avenue for future research. Many articles also recommend testing different intervention methods to foster engagement. Such studies are rarely conducted due to difficulties related to multiple pre-post assessments of any intervention, participants' willingness to take part in multiple assessments and the ability to connect individual data over time (Leiter & Maslach, 2010). Nevertheless, they could provide interesting insights into why and how the levels of engagement fluctuate over time.

Yet another interesting course for research would be integration of two streams of research: employee engagement and co-creation of value. Co-creation studies concentrate on identifying practices to better engage customers into service or product design and usage. The results from co-creation studies might provide interesting insights into employee engagement, as engagement of customers and employees are, in the end, opposite sides of the same phenomena.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. The 19 values in the refined theory, each defined in terms of its motivational goal (Schwartz, 2012)

Value	Conceptual definitions in terms of motivational goals
Self-direction–thought	• Autonomy of thought: Freedom to cultivate one's own ideas and abilities. This type is derived from the needs to control and command and the need for autonomy and independence.
Self-direction–action	• Autonomy of action: Freedom to determine one's own actions
Stimulation	• Excitement, novelty and challenge in life. The type is derived from the assumption that an optimum level of stimulation requires that stimuli be varied and diverse.
Hedonism	• Pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself. The value type is derived from the need for enjoyment and the pleasure that arises from the satisfaction of that need.
Achievement	• Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards. Achievement emphasizes the active demonstration of capability or competent performance in a specific interaction, such as gaining the resources necessary for survival, for successful social relationships, and for the successful functioning of institutions.
Power– dominance	• Power through exercising control over people
Power–resources	• Power through control of material and social resources. Clearly, a certain degree of status differentiation is necessary for the functioning of institutions. Power emphasizes the attainment or maintenance of a dominant position within the general social system.
Face	• Security and power through maintaining one's public image and avoiding humiliation
Security-personal	• Safety in one's immediate environment (Safety, harmony and stability of relationships and of self)
Security- societal	• Safety and stability in the wider society
Tradition	• Maintaining and preserving cultural, family, or religious traditions (respect, commitment, and acceptance of customs and ideas)
Conformity-rules	• Compliance with rules, laws, and formal obligations

Conformity-interpersonal	• Avoidance of upsetting or harming other people • Compliance with social norms (politeness, obedient, self-discipline, honoring parents and elders)
Humility	• Recognizing one's insignificance in the larger scheme of things
Benevolence–dependability	• Being a reliable and trustworthy member of the in-group (helpful, honest, forgiving, loyal, and responsible).
Benevolence–caring	• Devotion to the welfare of in-group members
Universalism–concern	• Commitment to equality, justice, and protection for all people
Universalism–nature	• Preservation of the natural environment
Universalism–tolerance	• Acceptance and understanding of those who are different from oneself

Appendix 2. ESS human values questionnaire modified from the Portrait Values Questionnaire developed by Schwartz (2003).

Value	Items in the ESS Questionnaire
Self-Direction	• Thinking up new ideas and being creative is important to him. He likes to do things in his own original way. • It is important to him to make his own decisions about what he does. He likes to be free and not depend on others.
Power	• It is important to him to be rich. He wants to have a lot of money and expensive things. • It is important to him to get respect from others. He wants people to do what he says
Universalism	• He thinks it is important that every person in the world should be treated equally. He believes everyone should have equal opportunities in life. • It is important to him to listen to people who are different from him. Even when he disagrees with them, he still wants to understand them. • He strongly believes that people should care for nature. Looking after the environment is important to him.
Achievement	• It is important to him to show his abilities. He wants people to admire what he does. • Being very successful is important to him. He hopes people will recognise his achievements.
Security	• It is important to him to live in secure surroundings. He avoids anything that might endanger his safety. • It is important to him that the government ensures his safety against all threats. He wants the state to be strong so it can defend its citizens.
Stimulation	• He likes surprises and is always looking for new things to do. He thinks it is important to do lots of different things in life. • He looks for adventures and likes to take risks. He wants to have an exciting life.

Conformity	• He believes that people should do what they're told. He thinks people should follow rules at all times, even when no-one is watching. • It is important to him always to behave properly. He wants to avoid doing anything people would say is wrong.
Tradition	• It is important to him to be humble and modest. He tries not to draw attention to himself. • Tradition is important to him. He tries to follow the customs handed down by his religion or his family.
Hedonism	• Having a good time is important to him. He likes to "spoil" himself. • He seeks every chance he can to have fun. It is important to him to do things that give him pleasure.
Benevolence	• It is very important to him to help the people around him. He wants to care for their well-being. • It is important to him to be loyal to his friends. He wants to devote himself to people close to him.

Appendix 3. The interview guide.

General theme	Main questions	Help questions
General feelings about work environment and work	1. What does work mean to you? 2. How would you describe your typical week/day at work? 3. Compared to your previous placements, how would you describe OAO Fortum as a place to work?	• Is it easy to get to work? • At what time do you start? How many hours do you normally stay? • What kind of tasks do you have? • Do you work alone or with other people? Whom? • How does it feel to work for Fortum? Why?
Job demands: Challenges	4. What aspects in your work or organization you find motivating or exciting?	• Could you share an example of when you felt excited about your work? • Do you feel like you have opportunities to show your competence? • Does your manager support you? • Do your colleagues support you?
Job demands: Hindrances	5. What aspects of your work or organization you find frustrating or challenging?	• Are there things that make completing your tasks complicated? • What could be a typical problem or challenge you might face in your work? • Could you share an example of when you felt frustrated in your work?
Job Resources	6. What do you think is needed to overcome challenges or problems people might face in your organization? 7. What, in your opinion should be done so that there would be less problems like the ones you have described?	• How do you overcome problems or challenges you might face in your work? • With whom do you discuss if you need help? • Is it easy to get help from your colleagues/manager/other divisions? How do you solve problems together? • Could you do something to change the situation? How? • If not, who could change the situation?

Appendix 4. Mean and standard deviation of the variables included in each value index, reported for Russia

Typological Value Indexes	Mean	Std. Deviation
Security (N=2473)		
It is important to him to live in secure surroundings. He avoids anything that might endanger his safety.	2,12	1,18
It is important to him that the government ensures his safety against all threats. He wants the state to be strong so it can defend its citizens.	2,03	1,09
Conformity (N=2464)		
He believes that people should do what they are told. He thinks people should follow rules at all times, even when no one is watching.	2,96	1,36
It is important to him always to behave properly. He wants to avoid doing anything people would say is wrong.	2,41	1,21
Tradition (N=2469)		
It is important to him to be humble and modest. He tries not to draw attention to himself.	2,58	1,28
Tradition is important to him. He tries to follow the customs handed down by his religion or his family.	2,47	1,26
Stimulation (N=2461)		
He likes surprises and is always looking for new things to do. He thinks it is important to do lots of different things in life.	3,21	1,42
He looks for adventures and likes to take risks. He wants to have an exciting life.	3,78	1,50
Self-direction (N=2475)		
Thinking up new ideas and being creative is important to him. He likes to do things in his own original way.	2,77	1,33
It is important to him to make his own decisions about what he does. He likes to be free and not depend on others.	2,25	1,14
Hedonism (N=2461)		
Having a good time is important to him. He likes to “spoil” himself.	3,02	1,36
He seeks every chance he can to have fun. It is important to him to do things that give him pleasure.	3,78	1,50
Power (N=2472)		
It is important to him to be rich. He wants to have a lot of money and expensive things.	3,25	1,40

It is important to him to get respect from others. He wants people to do what he says	2,42	1,26
Achievement (N=2463)		
It is important to him to show his abilities. He wants people to admire what he does.	2,28	1,15
Being very successful is important to him. He hopes people will recognise his achievements.	2,76	1,34
Universalism (N=2474)		
He thinks it is important that every person in the world should be treated equally. He believes everyone should have equal opportunities in life.	2,28	1,15
It is important to him to listen to people who are different from him. Even when he disagrees with them, he still wants to understand them.	2,58	1,16
He strongly believes that people should care for nature. Looking after the environment is important to him.	2,13	1,11
Benevolence (N=2467)		
It is very important to him to help the people around him. He wants to care for their well-being.	2,44	1,14
It is important to him to be loyal to his friends. He wants to devote himself to people close to him.	2,16	1,08