

# “Gender stereotypes and gender feature of job motivation: differences or similarity?”

## AUTHORS

Tamila Armania-Kepuladze

## ARTICLE INFO

Tamila Armania-Kepuladze (2010). Gender stereotypes and gender feature of job motivation: differences or similarity?. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 8(2)

## RELEASED ON

Tuesday, 27 April 2010

## JOURNAL

"Problems and Perspectives in Management"

## FOUNDER

LLC “Consulting Publishing Company “Business Perspectives”



NUMBER OF REFERENCES

0



NUMBER OF FIGURES

0



NUMBER OF TABLES

0

© The author(s) 2019. This publication is an open access article.

Tamila Arnanian-Kepuladze (Georgia, Czech Republic)

## Gender stereotypes and gender feature of job motivation: differences or similarity?

### Abstract

It is widely recognized today that aimful management of human resources to deal depends on employee's working motivation. One of the ways to increase the economic efficiency of staff organization performance is to incarnate a new approach to motivation management.

In as much as the position of women in the labor market has changed significantly due to their wide involvement into the workforce and as far as women's participation in economic life is permanently increasing in recent years, understanding of gender feature of motivation has become of great importance today.

Based on the general theory of motivation and on the survey of contemporary literature of gender motivation peculiarities, this study examines the gender features of motivation concerning the gender stereotypes and includes investigation of masculine characteristics such as opportunity for advancement, opportunity for high earning, responsibility and autonomy and feminine characteristics such as personal life time, co-operation and environment. Using the results of a questionnaire which was conducted in organizations of education and public health service system, we have defined the gender features in motivation. Our data do not confirm the stereotypical notions of gender differences usually reported in the literature and have shown that differences within each sex group are greater than between sexes. This study was examined within the Georgian context.

**Keywords:** gender, motivation, stereotypes.

**JEL Classification:** J01, J16, M51, M54.

### Introduction

Successful performance of any organization first of all depends on usage of the available resources, with human resources being the most important. Aimful management of human resources is to a great degree connected to employees' working motivation. Employee's motivation has become a determining factor of the organizational success in recent years. Literature and popular press often report that compensation of work and other material factors are the basis of working activity among employees of today. But such simplistic approach fails to represent the actual state of affairs. Motivation of working activity is much more complex since different people have different needs and desires which means they are differently motivated. Understanding of employees' activity goals, motivation of their economic behavior is closely connected to personnel management problem and greatly influences the enterprise performance.

Today women occupy a significant place in employment sphere and their participation in economic life is permanently increasing. Undervaluing and misunderstanding of women's job motivation lead to underutilization of women's skills and experience and to loss of the named resource for both the organization and the society as a whole. Therefore, understanding of gender features of motivation becomes very important.

Gender stereotypes play a significant role in the processes of gender motivation evaluation.

Gender stereotypes as a set of shared beliefs prescribe men and women to behave and be motivated in a certain manner.

Would one expect that men and women will be always motivated according to gender stereotype or is the question much more complex? What factors play a key role in shaping and reinforcing employees' work behavior? We intend to investigate the relevance of usage of prevailing gender stereotypes as one finds them reported in the literature dealing with motivation of the employees. Being aware of motivation's gender features promotes more effective influence and usage of staff possibilities for the benefits of organization as well as an employee himself.

So, it is evident that more thorough study and systematization of motivation need to be done. Approach to motivation is usually underpinned by motivation theory. That is why, the examination of motivation theories' evolution from methodological point of view is very important.

### 1. General fundamentals of motivation theory

Motivation theories and their modifications distinguish various opinions on motivation's origin nature. Many contemporary approaches to motivation study are based on Abraham Maslow's investigations, which result from study of human's needs as a basic behavior motive (Maslow A., 1943). Maslow disposes all needs in certain succession called hierarchy of needs where the first two groups (physiological needs and safety needs) are primary or lower level needs. The three next

groups of needs (social needs, recognition needs and self-realization needs) are secondary or higher level needs. According to Maslow, human's efforts first of all are directed to satisfaction of lower level needs and then – to secondary, higher level needs satisfaction.

Frederick Herzberg tried to modify Maslow's theory of needs. It is important for Herzberg to understand what people want from their jobs, how material and non-material factors influence the motivation of human behavior. So he created the motivation two-factor model, or Hygiene theory. According to this theory, the extrinsic motivators or hygiene factors (security, salary, work conditions, company policy and administration) and intrinsic motivators (prospective promotion, responsibility, challenges, recognition and achievement) affect feeling of satisfaction from job (Herzberg F., 1968).

David McClelland recognized three types of motivation needs: need for power, need for popularity and need for success. According to his theory, need for power is typical for people who like being in the focus, affecting the others. They are energetic, adhering to principles, vigorous. Need for popularity is typical for people who are sociable. They are driven by affiliation and recognition. And just affiliation and social recognition provide them with motivation. Need for success is typical for people who are driven by the challenge of success. To complete their activity successfully is very important for them. They consider risk and the tasks they choose neither quite easily achievable, nor so complicated to become unachievable at all (McClelland David C., 1970).

Apart from the theory of motivation needs, a theory of motivation process exists which can be accepted as that of a great use for management.

One of the elements of motivation process theory is Victor Vroom's theory of expectations. According to this theory, the employees are more motivated to perform better when they are sure that their efforts will lead to a high performance rating. On examination of work motivation the expectations theory envisages three interdependences: efforts and performance, performance and reward, reward and personal goal. Motivation is more effective when employee is sure that his efforts lead to fair reward. Motivation is reduced when employee is given low appreciation of success or value of reward (Vroom Victor H., 1964).

According to J.S. Adams' equity theory, people are motivated by their belief in justice of reward. People

have tendency to use subjective assessment to compare their efforts and rewards with those of other groups of people. When an individual feels that his efforts are not rewarded equally, he reduces the efforts. Adams considers that not equitable rewards and over-equitable rewards act as demotivative factor. When rewards are equitable they provoke adequate (normal) reaction.

The synthetical theory of motivation was elaborated by W. Porter and Edward E. Lawler. The theory was based on Vroom's expectations theory and Adams' equity theory. According to Porter and Lawler, motivation is the function of needs, expectations and justice of reward. Porter and Lawler consider that employee's output depends on: his efforts, his typical features and potential possibilities, employee's self-estimation and assessment of value of reward.

Douglas McGregor proceeded from the opinion that people can be managed in two ways depending on types of people themselves. Thus, McGregor's conception includes two theories: "X-theory" and "Y-theory". "X-theory" (properly Taylor's theory) considers that human is lazy by his nature, he does not enjoy working and he attempts to avoid working when possible. According to Y-theory, people are quite different and defined by contrast peculiar characteristics. Human usually intends to take responsibility, initiative, ingenuity, self-dependence. Y-theory assumes that high-order needs dominate people.

In 1981 "Y-theory" was transferred by William Ouchi into the Z-theory. This theory generalizes the Japanese experience of human resource management. According to it, each employee is free and works for himself. Such perception creates feeling of coincidence of both – the employees and the company's goals.

Most of the different motivation theories are too often underpinned by simplistic assumption of motive power and have been criticized widely for generalization of work goals and human behavior. Proceeding from the idea that different people are motivated in different ways it is necessary to render this problem more specifically.

General theory of motivation is supplemented by examining of motivation peculiarities in different countries and ethnic groups. Researchers have investigated national and social-cultural characteristics connected with the performance rewards and influence on motivation. The results of the investigation showed (Rehu, M., Kusk, E., Wolf, B. 2006; Marjaana Gunkel, Edward J. Lusk, Birgitta Wolff, Fang Li, 2007) cross-countries cultural

differences. Researching multinational corporations in Germany, China, Japan and USA, Marjaana et al. (2007) found some interstate differences in the notion of importance of work-related matters and performance reward. The authors came to the conclusion that cultural aspect might be the main reason for the differences shown.

One of the important aspects of motivation problem is examination of gender feature of job motivation.

There are lots of researches focused on investigating the peculiarities of females' and males' motivational behavior (Meece et al., 2006; Horner, 2005; Patton W. et al., 2001; Luzzo D. 1995; Bigoness, W.J. 1988; Dubinsky, A.J. et al., 1993; Gooderman P. et al., 2004; Major, Konar, 1984; Jaffee, S., Hyde, J.S. 2000, etc). Results of the studies can be ranged from the differences between women's and men's work values through domination of gender homogeneity up to the samples of behavior that run counter to gender stereotypes.

## 2. General fundamentals of gender stereotypes

**2.1. Gender stereotypes and gender characteristics of men and women.** Investigations of gender motivation differences are based on the idea of the differences between males and females, i.e. on the existence of gender stereotypes, which can be traced back to historical context of male's hegemony proceeding from the perception of priority based on sex differences and collaterality of qualitative differences of human beings.

Gender stereotypes as well as other kinds of social stereotypes, like ethnical, cultural, political, professional, etc., reflect the features of perception and relationship of one group of people (in our case – men and women) towards themselves and others. The gender stereotypes or system of social behavioral norms are very significant institutional mechanism which orient men and women on different life strategies and prescribe them binary oppositional roles in the family and public spheres. According to some investigations (Deaux K., Emsweller T., 1974), gender-based stereotypes are stronger than racial-based ones and they produce pressure to be beared by certain social groups, men and women, who are obliged to submit them.

Giving up the idea of gender stereotypes implies the recognition of biological determinism, the support of psychoanalytical ideas based on the belief that all woman's and man's traits prove to be innated. According to this perception, a "typical" man and a "typical" woman have different psychology, possibilities, values, interests, social predestinations, roles, needs and, therefore, are motivated differently. Thus, the most distinctive attributes

supposed for a "typical" man are strength, confidence, activity, aggression, autonomy, resoluteness. According to gender-based stereotypes, man should possess some manhood distinguishing features. He is logical, initiative, his thoughts tend to generalization and abstractness, he is rational, imperious and commanding, focused on goal achievement and competence.

A "typical" woman is characterized by compliance, care, perceiving, devotion, patience. Woman should be womanhood, i.e. passive, responsive, kind-hearted, obedient, dutiful, with submission and obedience acknowledged as her destination.

One may single out the binary oppositions stereotypically prescribed to men and women, to masculinity and femininity: active – passive, dynamic – static, conscious – unconscious, logical – intuitivical, abstract – concrete. Proceeding from gender stereotypes theory men and women have different goals and needs and, therefore, are motivated differently. Gender stereotypes prescribe playing certain gender roles to both men and women. Men are independence-oriented, longing for power and authority, self-assertion, popularity, success. Therefore, the primary sphere of men's occupation is public activity. As for women, interpersonal relations, environment, life style and family seem to be of more importance for them. So, gender stereotypes prescribe a woman to activities in her private sphere mainly, i.e. only secondary roles are being left for her. Gender-role stereotypes are often used to explain why female and male are motivated differently and why they behave in this or that certain way.

**2.2. Upbringing and gender stereotypes.** An important part in development and supporting of gender stereotypes belongs to human's consciousness. A direct interrelatedness between gender stereotypes and upbringing of children in families and schools is quite obvious.

In a great number of investigations one can easily come across the idea (Cross, S.E. and Markus, H.R., 1993; Simon, R.W. and Nath, L.E., 2004; Pomeroy, A., 2005) that the process of shaping and manifestation of gender social role begins in childhood. Later on, according to the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, I., 1991), the boys' and the girls' different behavioral models, interests and needs are being formed (Morris, Venkatesh, Ackerman, 2005). Such perception, supported by family and school becomes apparent in adult life. On a workplace, perception of such a kind demonstrates different behavioral types when men and women in a quite different way appreciate the importance of their work goals, have different preferences and performance motivation.

Children's gender identification is regularly shaped by family environment and takes an important part in the development of gender difference in motivation. Parents influence the process of their children socialization to a significant extent (Eccles et al. 1983; Meece et al., 2006; Parsons et al., 1984; Parsons et al., 1990).

The upbringing process inside the family is being manifested in two ways. On the one side, their parents gender behavioral model has a great influence on the children: children adopt their parents' behavior. Girls adopt femininity behavior model from their mothers while boys adopt masculinity behavior model from fathers.

On the other side, parents constantly keep influencing their daughters and sons in this or that certain way.

They encourage their female child to play with dolls and laud daughters to behave in a way it is expected from them according to the female model. Parents encourage their male child to play with toy cars, model railways, football etc. and praise them for behaving according to the male role model. As a result, young people perceive gender roles as a permanent status a-priori. More than that, as Eccles et al. (Eccles et al., 1983) observed parents holding gender stereotypes to develop different expectations and goals for daughters and sons, encourage them to different activities and skills. In turn, cultural and gender stereotypes make parents form their children's certain beliefs concerning their possibilities and abilities. This way, for example, parents, particularly fathers, in spite of their children's achievements in mathematics and sciences, believe that daughters need to work harder (Parsons, Adler, Meece, 1982) and show less confidence in their daughters' mathematics abilities but much more confidence in their sons' mathematics, physics etc. abilities (Jacobs, 2004). Parents are pretty sure that their daughters need more assistance in mathematics and science and try to do their best to involve daughters' in mathematics activities (Bleeker and Jacobs, 2004).

School also plays an important role in shaping children's general consciousness (Meece, Glienke and Burg, 2006). A number of studies indicate that gender differences in motivation are evident early at school and that girls' and boys' motivation-related beliefs and behavior models follow gender stereotypes. Teachers have higher expectation of boys' achievements (Meece, 1982). The opinion exists that a girl's success results from her abilities rather than from her efforts. Some researches (Green, DeBacker, 2004) suggest that gender is an important motivating factor in mastering science.

Gender stereotype-based perceptions, beliefs and expectations of parents and teachers definitely influence activities and occupation choice in girls and boys, impact their interests, career and achievements (Bleeker, Jacobs, 2004; Jacobs, Chin and Bleeker).

Such relationships and beliefs are durative, supported by schools and colleges curriculum, literature, mass media, advertisements, etc.

### **3. Gender stereotype and gender features of motivation**

**3.1. Motivation and gender differences.** Gender stereotypes adherents consider that on work place men and women are also taking various preferences, goals and are motivated in a different way. The satisfaction of stereotypical masculine needs such as economic success, autonomy and achievement is more typical for men. Hence, for men earnings, freedom, advancement, challenge, possibility to use skills etc. are more significant performance motivators. According to gender stereotypical model, women should fulfill family needs and care of the quality of their family life. So, for women interpersonal relationship, security, fringe benefits, environment etc. should be more important.

Gender stereotypes influence men's and women's achievements and goal orientation. While investigating various achievement domains, Meece, Glienke and Burg found out that "gender differences in achievement motivation still exist" (Meece, Glienke, Burg, 2006, p. 366). Moreover, some representatives of achievement motivation theory, focusing on differences in men's and women's success orientation, came to the conclusion that "women are rather highly motivated to avoid success, because they are likely to expect negative consequences, like social rejection and/or feeling of being unfeminine" (Horner, 2005, p. 207).

Some scientists suggest that different motivation on success at work which is constantly shown by males and females is based on gender stereotypes. So, Hofstede (2001) came to the conclusion that while men's concerns are mostly earnings, promotion and responsibility, women value friendly atmosphere and usually concern prestige, challenge, task significance, job security, co-operation and their work environmental conditions. Bigoness (1988) found out that men usually emphasize salary while women's emphasis is on professional growth. Major and Konar (1984) demonstrating the differences, stressed that women usually pay less attention to salary than men do. Reif et al. (1976) examined significance of 33 particular rewards for men and women and found that gender was the determining factor of appreciation of the value of reward.

Gooderman et al. (2004) have also discovered that men prove to be much more financially motivated than women do.

Thus, investigation of gender stereotypes-based motivation leads to the conclusion that men's economic behavior motivation can be characterized as a tend to earning, autonomy of work, promotion, recognition, success and training. Alternatively, women's motivation could be characterized as aiming to co-operation, working conditions and a good living area, fringe benefits, etc. concerns.

**3.2. Motivation and gender similarity.** The polarity of men and women roles and their position in private and public life as well as absolute disparateness of their economic behavior are refuted by series of investigations. According to some researches, females and males are characterized by rather similarities than differences. Gender similarities adherents prove that males and females are not similar in all, but in most.

Similar opinions have been expressed still in early 1900s. Thus, Thorndike (1914) believed that psychological differences between males and females were too little as compared with within-gender variations. Viewing available researches on gender differences in mental traits, Hollingworth (1918) found little evidence on gender differences.

Contemporary researches proceed from the idea that the differences are more obvious within each gender group than between them. Some authors believe that the magnitude and even the direction of gender differences depend on the context (Bettencourt, B.A., Miller, 1996), while gender differences in most aspects of life, in moral reasoning and moral orientation are little (Jaffee, S., Hyde, J.S., 2000).

Research by Dubinsky, Joison, Michaels, Kotabe and Lim (Dubinsky, A.J., et al., 1993) showed that rather minimal differences in motivation exist between men and women. Pearson and Chatterjee (2002) while examining experience of China, came to the conclusion that despite divergences, gender uniformity in job motivation of men and women dominated. They share the same attitudes as to high earnings, training opportunities, work autonomy, usage of skills, desirable living area, relations with managers, etc.

The investigations in the fields of psychology, sociology, etc. found that gender differences do not

exceed 10% and are situation-dependent (Basow, S.A., 1986; Hyde, J.S., 1991; Spence, J.T., 1993).

**3.3. Motivation against gender stereotypes.**

Contrary to stereotypical expectations, Marjaana Gunkel, Edward J. Lusk, Birgitta Wolff and Fang Li find that gender differences "back to front". According to their research, men in Japan "value more highly not only the masculine work attribute of advancement but also the following feminine factors: fringe benefits and personal time. In contrast, Japanese women value more highly not only physical working conditions but also the challenging work that is supposed to be valued more highly by men". (Marjaana Gunkel et al., 2007). The authors concluded that men do not obligatory display traditionally stereotypical masculine factors and, similarly, women do not always display traditionally feminine factors suggested.

Gender differences, which did not follow usual stereotypes were investigated by other studies as well. Some of the researchers arrived at a conclusion that in modern society women tend to be more career-oriented than men do (Patton et al., 2001, Luzzo D., 1995), so female rather than men more likely believe science to be relevant to their career (Luzzo D., 1995).

Thus, a great number of authors appear to be clear in the idea that no consistent pattern supporting gender stereotypes can be observed (Marjaana Gunkel et al., 2007).

It is quite evident that two opposite views exist regarding the discrepancy between gender motivation and gender stereotypes. The first results from the idea that men and women are motivated and act in non-concordance with their gender stereotypes. The discrepancy can be ranged from little similarity between male and female's motivation up to the idea of motivation's absolute similarity. The second states that men and women's economic behavior is often based on motivations which stereotypically are ascribed to the opposite sex.

Hence, as it was shown, there is no common opinion concerning the gender feature of motivation in economic literature. These opinions fluctuate from recognition of the strict differences of men and women's job motivation, from their conformation to gender stereotypes up to the complete identity and yet to manifestation of motivation contradicting gender stereotypes at all (see Figure 1).

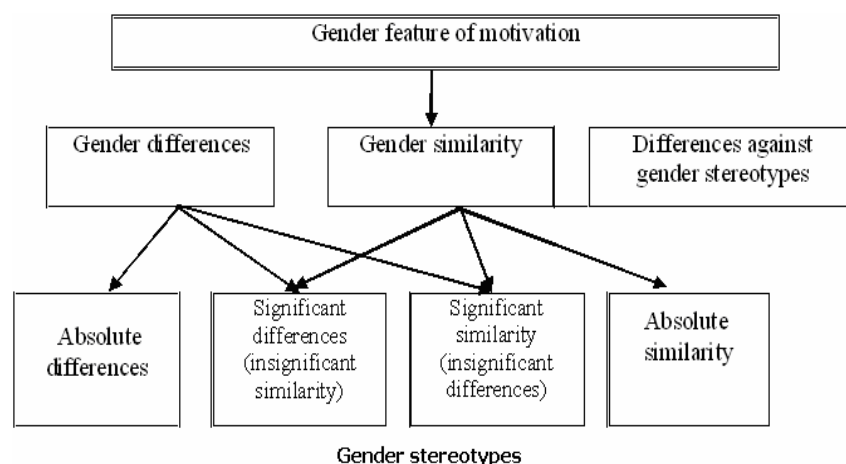


Fig. 1. Gender feature of motivation in gender stereotypes context: theoretical approach

A great variety of gender features of motivation can be explained by a number of reasons. I would note some of them:

- ◆ multidimensionality and insufficient maturity of the methodology of study;
- ◆ variability over a space, i.e. traditional and cultural aspects of different countries significantly influence the gender feature of motivation;
- ◆ transformation over a time, i.e. men's and particularly women's behavior motivation has been significantly metamorphosed on each stage of historical development deeply influenced by various reasons;
- ◆ variability of external environment, i.e. variability of economical, social, cultural, moral etc. conditions influencing the motivation; and
- ◆ transformation of internal environment of motivation subject, i.e. changes in perception of person's gender-stereotypical role and of the subjection to follow it.

The consideration of stereotypically-defined gender feature in job motivation shows large motivation fluctuations from absolute similarity with gender stereotypes (Pearson, C.A.L., Chatterjee, S.R., 2002; Jaffee, S., Hyde, J.S., 2000; Bettencourt, B.A., Miller, 1996; Dubinsky, A.J. et al., 1993) to absolute dissimilarity from gender stereotypes (Meece, Glienke, Burg, 2006; Horner, 2005; Bigoness, 1988; Gooderman et al., 2004) within each gender group and allows us to suppose that the job motivation differences inside sex groups are rather substantial than those between the groups themselves.

Our study may help to define this aspect of work motivation as well as to investigate which situation is more typical for men and women employed in Georgia and to identify the aspects of their labor activities motivation.

## 4. Method

**4.1. Objective.** This research purpose is to make the gender analysis of employment sphere in Georgia (Armania-Kepuladze T., 2009) – a country where gender studies are doing their first steps – and revealing how much it corresponds to the tendencies which exist in other countries and what its features are. Do gender stereotypes play a key role in shaping and reinforcing men and women job motivation? To what extent do gender stereotypes predetermine employees' work activity?

Based on the perceptions that a “typical” man and a “typical” woman have different job values, interests, social predestination, needs and play different roles in public and private lives, we have examined gender features of motivation concerning the gender stereotypes which are considered the most popular in special literature (Marjaana G. et al., 2007; Bigoness, 1988; Hofstede, 2001; Major, Konar, 1984 etc.) and, according to our viewpoint, are more expressive stereotypical gender features that include masculine characteristics such as opportunity for advancement, opportunity for high earning, responsibility and autonomy and feminine characteristics such as personal life time, co-operation and environment and job security.

**4.2. Participants and methodology.** The full-time hired employees in education and public health service system in Georgia took part in the study. The choice of this category was deliberate. Considering the variety of forms and conditions of employment for reception of more concrete results we chose the organizations from economic branches which are considered as branches with mainly female employees.

The sample of 675 participants took part in the study. Among them 539 were females and 136 were males. Such gender proportion of participants expresses situation in this economic branches where

there work about 4 times more women than men. 359 participants worked in educational sphere and included 72 men and 287 women, and 316 participants worked in public health service system from which there were 252 women and 64 men.

Participants ranged in age from 23 to 58. In educational sphere female’s average age was 39 years and male’s average age was 38 years. In public health service system sphere female’s average age was 37 years and male’s mean age was 42 years. In the both spheres male’s average age was 40 years and women’s average age was 38. All participants’ average age in both spheres was 39 years.

Participants were asked to fill out the questionnaire, remaining anonymous and not to put their names on the surveys.

Questionnaire involved six groups of questions which were given inconsequently and were divided into subscales for estimation (according to gender stereotypes notions) masculine characteristics such as opportunity for advancement (included 5 items), opportunity for high earning (included 5 items), responsibility and autonomy (included 5 items) and feminine characteristics such as time to personal life (included 4 items), co-operation and environment (included 5 items) and stability and job security (included 5 items). Participants rated their responses to each item on a seven-point scale ranging from A (strongly agree) to G (strongly disagree).

The participants were grouped by gender and by economic sector.

**4.3. Measures.** Each answer has key ranged from (-3) to (+3) and was estimated on a seven-point scale ranging from (-3), which specifies respondent’s full disagreement to (+3), which specifies respondent’s absolute agreement with the asked question.

For each question, the minimum and maximum values have been defined separately for men and for women. Such differentiation has shown the marginal estimations of the importance of each indicator of motivation and amplitude of fluctuation of respondents’ opinions concerning each question and by each gender group.

If the respondent’s fluctuation given by answers has a positive deviation, it means that the importance of this indicator is significant for him. The closer the estimation of an investigated question comes to (+3), the more important it is for the respondent. If estimation has negative deviation, it means that the given factor does not operate as motivator and the nearer the value comes to (-3), the smaller value this factor has for the respondent.

Further an arithmetic middling (Average value) has been deduced by each question which has shown an average estimation of a question for each gender group. By introducing this index we have defined the average value of each group of questions for respondents.

We had carried out the calculation of the minimum and maximum estimations and average indexes for each group of questions and for each gender group separately.

The results of final calculations are given in Table 1.

Table 1. The results of final calculations

	Education system						Health service system						Total	
	Male		Female		Average value — Male	Average value — Female	Male		Female		Average value — Male	Average value — Female	Average value — Male	Average value — Female
	Min value	Max value	Min value	Max value			Min value	Max value	Min value	Max value				
Opportunity for advancement	-2	3	-2	3	1	0.71	-2	3	-3	3	0.87	1.58	0.94	1.15
Opportunity for high earning	-3	3	-3	3	0.24	0.2	-3	2	-3	3	0.1	0.34	0.13	0.22
Responsibility and autonomy	-3	2	-3	3	-0.5	0.4	-3	2	-3	3	0.02	-0.47	-0.2	-0.1
Time to personal life	-3	3	-3	3	0.17	-0.05	-2	3	-3	3	-0.5	-1.04	-0.16	-0.55
Co-operation and environment	-3	3	-3	3	0.56	0.85	-2	3	-3	3	0.66	0.45	0.61	0.65
Stability and job security	-2	3	-3	3	-0.1	0.5	-2	2	-3	3	0.73	0.59	0.31	0.55



## 5. Results

As it has been shown, the interviewed women have given maximum (from -3 to +3) amplitude (width) in an estimation of both masculine and feminine characteristics of motivation. The exception was made only by estimation "Opportunity for advancement" where women have shown less estimation (-2) in the educational system only. Men have shown the width too but not maximum amplitude in an estimation in both education and health service systems and in both – masculine and feminine – groups of questions.

### 5.1. Evaluation of masculine characteristics of motivation.

*5.1.1. Evaluation of masculine characteristics of motivation in the education system.* In the educational system men have estimated the "typical masculine" indicators of motivation such as "Opportunity for advancement" and "Opportunity for high earning" above women but the "Responsibility and autonomy" have been estimated by women above that men have done. For men the "Responsibility and autonomy" had a negative estimation and was a non-motivation factor.

*5.1.2. Evaluation of masculine characteristics of motivation in the health service system.* In the health service system we have another picture: women have estimated masculine characteristics such as "Opportunity for advancement" and "Opportunity for high earning" above men (for women, the estimation of these characteristics was, respectively, 1.58 and 0.34, and for men 0.87 and 0.1). A masculine sign of motivation "Responsibility and autonomy" has appeared as non-motivation for women (their average estimation of this parameter has been (-0.47)), and for men (-0.002).

*5.1.3. General evaluation of masculine characteristics of motivation.* All in all, in the given sample of respondents masculine motivation indicators such as "Opportunity for advancement" and "Opportunity for high earning" have been estimated by women (1.15 and 0.22, respectively) above, than by men (0.94 and 0.13), and "Responsibility and autonomy" has been recognized as a motivator neither by women nor men.

### 5.2. Evaluation of feminine characteristics of motivation.

*5.2.1. Evaluation of feminine characteristics of motivation in the educational system.* In the educational system feminine factor such as "Time to personal life" has been more significant for men (their average estimation of this factor was 0.17), than for women who have estimated this factor at -0.5, i.e. for women the factor "Time to personal life" was a non-motivator.

The parameter "Co-operation and environment" has been estimated by women at 0.85. Contrary to gender stereotypes, this parameter was significant for men too: they estimated this factor at 0.56. The motivator "Stability and job security" for workers in education system completely corresponded to gender-stereotypical representations: for women its motivational value was positive, though also not so high (+0.5), and for men it was negative and though also not so low (-0.1).

*5.2.2. Evaluation of feminine characteristics of motivation in the health service system.* In the health service system the factor "Time to personal life" had negative value, i.e. was not motivation factor either for men (-0.16) or for women (-0.55), and women have attached its even smaller significance than men. Values of indicator such as "Co-operation and environment" just as "Stability and job security" have been estimated by men in public health services system above (0.66 and 0.73, respectively), than women (0.45 and 0.59), i.e. these factors were the motivators for both men and women.

*5.2.3. General evaluation of feminine characteristics of motivation.* Generally the sample "Time to personal life" has not been estimated positively either by women or men. In estimation of "Co-operation and environment" the opinions of women and men were almost identical (estimation of men was 0.61, estimation of women was 0.65). The value of "Stability and job security" has been estimated generally by men above (0.31) than by women (0.55).

It means that among men and women there are no common opinions concerning each group of questions. As our research has shown, men have not always given more value to gender-typical masculine attributes of motivation, and feminine factors of motivation such as "Stability and job security" were almost as significant for them as for women. As to women such "typical masculine" indicators of motivation such as "Opportunity for advancement" and "Opportunity for high earning" have been estimated by women above men.

Thus, results of our research coincide with the data received by Marjaana Gunkel, Edward J. Lusk, Birgitta Wolff and Fang Li (Marjaana G. et al., 2007), Patton et al. (Patton et al., 2001), Luzzo (Luzzo D., 1995).

As Table 1 shows, both men and women have given wide marginal estimation for masculine as well as for feminine characteristics of motivation which fluctuated within (-3) or (-2) and (+2) or (+3). Such range of evaluations indicates that there are significant differences in the estimations of both

masculine and feminine job motivation characteristics within each gender group and within own group neither men nor women express similar attitudes toward job motivation.

More than that, in spite of such wide fluctuation of marginal estimation of masculine and feminine characteristics of motivation, the fluctuation of average estimation of each question and for each gender group (with the exception of the average value of "Opportunity for advancement" for women) stays within (-1;+1). It means that the marginal viewpoints are not sporadic and expresses respondents' variance over a matter of job motivation, otherwise, the average estimation of each question would tend to one of margin (-3) or (+3).

Based on the above-stated, it is possible to ascertain that respondents' preferences of labor motivation do not depend on her/his sex but on the person's feature and the differences inside sex group are more substantial than those between the group themselves.

### Conclusion

Our research has not confirmed the presence of direct interrelation between the sex of the person

and stereotypical representations about their priorities in motivation of labor activity and has not found the adherence of gender perception about men and women's economic behavior motivation. Among men and women there is not common opinion concerning typical masculine and typical feminine priority of motivation: men have not always given more value to gender-typical masculine attributes of motivation such as opportunity for advancement, opportunity for high earning and responsibility and autonomy and women have not always given more value to gender-typical feminine attributes of motivation such as time to personal life, co-operation and environment and stability and job security. All of this means that the preferences of labor motivation do not depend on person's sex but on his/her feature and the differences existing not between male and female motivations but within each sex group.

Preceding from foresaid it is obvious that no confirmation to general stereotypes ideas should be assumed in human resources management. Elaboration of individual approach to each employee will be the main pledge of success.

### Acknowledgements

The author is grateful to two anonymous reviewers for their comments and useful suggestions. The author also thanks the Tomas Bata University in Zlin (Czech Republic) for supporting of this work.

### References

1. Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50, 2, 179-211.
2. Armania-Kepuladze Tamila. (2009). Working Men and Women in Georgia: Gender Wage Gap, Education Level and Work Motivation. REV 2009, CT, USA.
3. Basow, S.A. (1986). *Gender Stereotypes and Role*. Pacific Grove.
4. Bettencourt, B.A., Miller, N. (1996). Gender differences in aggression as a function of provocation: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 119, 422-447.
5. Bigoness, W.J. (1988). Sex differences in job attribute preferences. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 9, 139-147.
6. Bleeker, M.M., Jacobs, J.E. (2004). Achievement in math and science: Do mothers' beliefs matter 12 years later? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 96 (1), 97-109.
7. Cross, S.E. and Markus, H.R. (1993). Gender and culture. In Matsumoto, D. (ed), *The Handbook of Culture and Psychology*. New York: Oxford University Press, 195-222.
8. Gooderman, P., Nordhaug, O., Ringdal, K. and Birkelund, E. (2004). Job values among future business leaders: the impact of gender and social background. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, 20, 3, 277-95.
9. Green, B.A., DeBacker, T.K. (2004). Gender and orientations toward the future: Link to motivation. *Educational Psychology Review*, 16, 91-120.
10. Deaux K., Emsweller T. (1974). Explanations of successful performance of sex-linked tasks: What is skill for male is luck for the female. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, V. 29, p.80-85.
11. Dubinsky, A.J., Joison, M.A., Michaels, R.E., Kotabe, M. and Lim, C.U. (1993). Perceptions of motivational components: salesmen and saleswomen revisited. *The Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 13, 25-37.
12. Eccles, J.S., Adler, T.F., Futterman, R., Goff, S.B., Kaczala, C.M., Meece J.L. (1983). Expectancies, values and academic behaviors. In J.T. Spence (Ed.), *Achievement and achievement motives*, 75-146. San Francisco: Freeman.
13. Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions, and Organizations Across Nations*.
14. Hollingworth, L.S. (1918). Comparison of the sexes in mental traits. *Psychological Bulletin*, 15, 427-432.
15. Herzberg Frederick (1968). One More Time: How Do You Motivate? *Harvard Business Review*, January-February, pp.56-57.
16. Horner, M.S. (1995). Toward an understanding of achievement-related conflicts in women. In M. Ednick, S.Tangi, L.W. Hoffman (Eds.), *Women and achievement. Social and motivational analyses*. John Wiley and Sons.

17. Hyde, J.S. (1991). *Half the Human Experience: The Psychology of Woman*. Lexington, MA: D.C. Helth and Company.
18. Jacobs, J.E., Chin, C.S., Bleeker, M.M. (in press). Enduring links: Parents' expectations and their young adult children's gender-typed occupational choices. *Educational Research and Evaluation*.
19. Jacobs, J.E. (2004). Influence of gender stereotypes on parent and child mathematics attitudes. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83 (4), 518-527.
20. Luzzo, D. (1995). Gender differences in college students' career maturity and perceived barriers in career development. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 73, 319-325.
21. Major, B. and Konar, E. (1984). An investigation of sex differences in pay expectations and their possible causes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 4, 777-792.
22. Marjaana Gunkel, Edward J. Lusk, Birgitta Wolff, Fang Li (2007). Gender-specific Effects at Work: An Empirical Study of Four Countries. *Gender, Work & Organization* 14 (1), 56-79.
23. Maslow Abraham (1943). *Theory of Human Motivation*. *Psychological Review*, 50, 370-396.
24. Meece, J.L., Blumenfeld, P.C., Hoyle, R. (1982). Students' goal orientations and cognitive engagement in classroom activities. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80, 514-123.
25. Meece, J.L., Glienke, B.B., Burg S. (2006). Gender and motivation. *Journal of School Psychology*, 44, 351-373.
26. Morris, M.G., Venkatesh, V. and Ackerman, P.L. (2005). Gender and age differences in employee decisions about new technology: an extension to the theory of planned behavior. *IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management*, 52, 1, 69-84.
27. McClelland David C. (1970). Two faces of Power. *Journal of International Affairs*. Vol.24, 30-41.
28. Parsons, J., Adler, T.F., Meece, J.L. (1982). Sex differences in achievement: A test of alternate theories. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 46 (1), 260-43.
29. Parsons, J., Adler, T.F. and Kaczala, C.M. (1984). Socialization of achievement attitudes and beliefs: Parental influences. *Child Development*, 53, 322-339.
30. Parsons, J., Meece, J.L., Adler, T.F. and Kaczala, C.M. (1990). Sex differences in attributions and learned helplessness. *Sex Roles*, 8 (4), 421-432.
31. Patton, W., Creed, P. (2001). Developmental issues in career maturity and career decision status. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 49, 336-351.
32. Pearson, C.A.L., Chatterjee, S.R. (2002) Gender variations in work goal priorities: a survey of Chinese managers. *International Journal of Management*, 535-543.
33. Pomeroy, A. (2005). Are women more ethical than men? *HR Magazine*, July 2005, 12.
34. Rehu, M., Kusk, E., Wolf, B. (2006). Sustainable human resource management in China: a study of German multinational corporation. *World Review of Entrepreneurship, management and Sustainable Development*, 2, 1/2, 57-72.
35. Reif, W.E., Newstrom, J.W., St Louis, R.J. (1976). Sex as a discriminating variable in organizational reward decisions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 19, 3, 460-76.
36. Simon, R.W. and Nath, L.E. (2004). Gender and emotion in the United States: do men and women differ in self-reports of feelings and expressive behavior? *American Journal of Sociology*, 109, 5, 1137-76.
37. Spence, J.T. (1993) Gender-Related Traits and Gender Ideology: Evidence for a Multifactorial Theory// *Journal of Personality and social Psychology*, V.64 (4), 624-35.
38. Thorndike, E.L. (1914). *Educational psychology* (Vol. 3). New York: Teachers College, Columbia University.
39. Vroom Victor H., (1964). *Work and Motivation*. New-York, Wiley.