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Employee's Behavioral Opportunism and Alienation: Exploring the Factors

Dmitri Pletnev and Elena Kozlova

ABSTRACT

The article aims to identify factors influencing the behavioural opportunism and alienation of Russian employees. The study is based on a survey of 298 Russian employees, conducted in October 2020. Normalized indicators were used to assess the alienation degree, opportunism willingness and opportunism level, based on processing the respondents' answers; the Z-test was used for statistical analysis of these indicators, and to examine the influence of 14 social and organizational factors on alienation and opportunism. The study showed that employees' alienation degree is influenced by marital status, having children, motivation type, organization size, work in a managerial position, position and salary improvement, and Adizes' management styles. Their opportunism willingness is influenced by gender, age, management style, organization-side work experience, and position improvement. The results support the hypotheses of the interdependence of opportunism level and age, marital status, motivation type, organization size, and salary improvement. It was found that education level, job profile and diploma compliance, and ownership do not affect alienation and opportunism. The research results can help develop corporate programmes to increase employees' involvement in solving corporate problems and reducing opportunism.

KEY WORDS: Opportunism, Alienation, Management Style, Motivation, Economic measurement, Alienation degree, Adizes.

JEL Classification: M540.

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1. Introduction

In the current stage of society's economic and social development, labour efficiency has taken on a new meaning. Today, automation and digitalization of the main production processes allow one person to carry out the movement of material and financial flows worth millions and billions of dollars. A firm's success can depend on the decisions and efforts of one employee. In addition, the employees themselves are changing: millennials and other new-generation representatives have a specific motivation system that differs from the one that dominated 10–20 years ago. One of the inevitable consequences of employees' incomplete motivation and involvement is

social alienation and behavioural opportunism. In this regard, studying the factors that influence opportunism and alienation is relevant for understanding the drivers for increasing firms' efficiency.

This article aims to identify factors influencing behavioural opportunism and alienation of Russian employees. The article's objectives are:

- To develop a methodology for assessing alienation and opportunism, based on standardized quantitative assessments that summarize the results of an employee survey;
- To obtain the estimates of opportunism level and alienation degree, calculated according to the proposed methodology, based on survey data;
- To evaluate the primary factors' relationship with alienation and opportunism. Factors are divided into three groups: social (gender, age, education level, the coin-

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idence of education with the job profile, type of employee motivation); related to the organization (ownership form and size of the organization); and related to the employee's place in the organization (work experience, the profile of the work performed, the place in the organization, the types of managers according to Adizes, and their status and wage changes in the recent past).

The article is organized as follows. In the Introduction section, we describe the paper's motivation, state its aim and tasks, and explain the research structure. In the Literature Review, we present existing approaches for identifying and measuring behavioural opportunism and alienation. The Materials and Methods section contains the description of the data sample and its characteristics, hypotheses formulation, and methodological framework statement. The Discussion section is dedicated to interpreting the results, and the Conclusion section discusses further research areas, implications, and limitations of this study.

2. Literature Review

Social alienation issues were initially viewed as theoretical, related more to philosophy than to any practical activity. However, research on the social alienation phenomenon, as experienced by a person and an employee, remains relevant to this day. Noteworthy are the works by Fromm (1956), Dahms (2005), Archibald (2009) and Burston (2014), which consider alienation in various theoretical discourses, and within the framework of various research programmes (philosophical, sociological, political economy). The increasing alienation of employees and managers of enterprises in the present era is stated. A person may remain lonely, despite (and, possibly, due to) the growth of his or her material well-being. Employees' psychological dysfunctions that affect firm performance are highlighted by Daud et al. (2020) and Rasiah, Turner and Ho (2019).

In the second half of the 20th century, studies presented an empirical assessment of this phenomenon in various social groups. The pioneering work of Seeman (1959) defined alienation level as a combination of five meanings usually included in this concept: meaninglessness, normlessness, powerlessness, isolation, and self-estrangement. Dean (1961) and Dean and Lewis (1978) considered alienation to be a social phenomenon of interest to political scientists, in studying factors influencing election results. Deane suggested including only three of the five types identified by Seeman (1959): helplessness, normlessness, and social

isolation, due to the similarity of helplessness and the other types (meaninglessness and powerlessness). A similar approach has been used to assess the relationship between social alienation and burnout (Powell, 1994). O'Connell (1967) suggested moving from the binary perception of alienation according to the principle "alienated or not," to assessing the alienation degree on the scale of "alienation-integration". This approach made social alienation a more operational concept and enable to obtain detailed data on the intensity of social alienation among individuals and groups. Dooley (1971) conducted a large-scale study of the five components of alienation using a comprehensive questionnaire. Rayce et al. (2018) identified its three components as powerlessness, meaninglessness, and social isolation. Their research's specificity is due to focusing on adolescents as a target group, but the approach deserves attention. Alienation components were measured using three to five variables on a qualitative scale from "never" to "always," and a final assessment of the alienation degree was conducted. Modern research indicates that alienation has a significant role in areas such as organizational change and its results (Fauzan, 2019); the reduction of social interactions in teams (Udalstova & Abramova, 2019); work stresses, and types of tasks given to employees (Wingreen et al., 2017). Various aspects of work alienation and its influence on job performance have been investigated by Colquitt, Scott and LePine (2007), Bond and Bunce (2003), and Mantikei et al. (2020).

The study of opportunism in modern economics began actively in the 1970s. The concept of behavioural opportunism in firms has evolved autonomously from the alienation phenomenon. The researches were focused on the visible level, and the specific forms of pre-and post-contract opportunism were analysed. According to the classic definition by Williamson (1985), opportunism is "self-interest with a willingness to use guile" (p. 17). It is usually suggested that markers mislead, distort, disguise and obfuscate, as signs of "guile". In recent studies, the guile condition is dropped (Gibbons, 1990) and (Perri 6, 2017), due to its vague definition. Wathne and Heide (2000) highlight active and passive forms of opportunism. Active opportunism is the opportunism of action, observed in the following forms: using lies when interacting with colleagues (Lee, 1998); violation of formal and informal agreements in their favour (Achrol & Gundlach, 1999); distortion of facts to present themselves in a favourable light (John, 1984);

knowingly false accusations, that is, the same lying (Jap & Anderson, 2003); exaggerating the difficulties in performing specific jobs (Anderson, 1988); and using unforeseen events to gain additional benefits in interactions with colleagues or superiors (Rokkan et al., 2003). Passive opportunism involves the realization of self-interest through silence, including not doing as promised (Jap & Anderson, 2003), withholding information (Dahlstrom & Nygaard, 1999), not telling the truth (Anderson, 1988), and negligence in fulfilment of obligations (Lee, 1998; Nagin et al., 2002). Hypotheses that individuals' incentives significantly influence opportunism were confirmed. Opportunism was measured by the difference in the work quality when employees were monitored continuously by supervisors (or not). Crosno et al. (2013) demonstrated the importance of passive opportunism and the means of reducing it (including corporate culture development) to improve efficiency. Ganesan et al. (2010) compared opportunistic and "unethical" behaviour, while a comparison was also made in the context of two behaviours: action or inaction. Vafai (2010), by contrast, identified opportunistic and unethical behaviour. Perri 6 (2017) assessed the degree of opportunism using a qualitative scale, from "none" to

"strong", and studied specific cases in British political life to define the degree of opportunism. Popov and Simonova (2006) assessed the level of opportunism in shirking as the ratio of output changes due to shirking employees, to the possible output. The opportunism level, in the form of negligence and malpractice, was measured as the ratio of the costs changes resulting from such opportunism, to the potential level of costs.

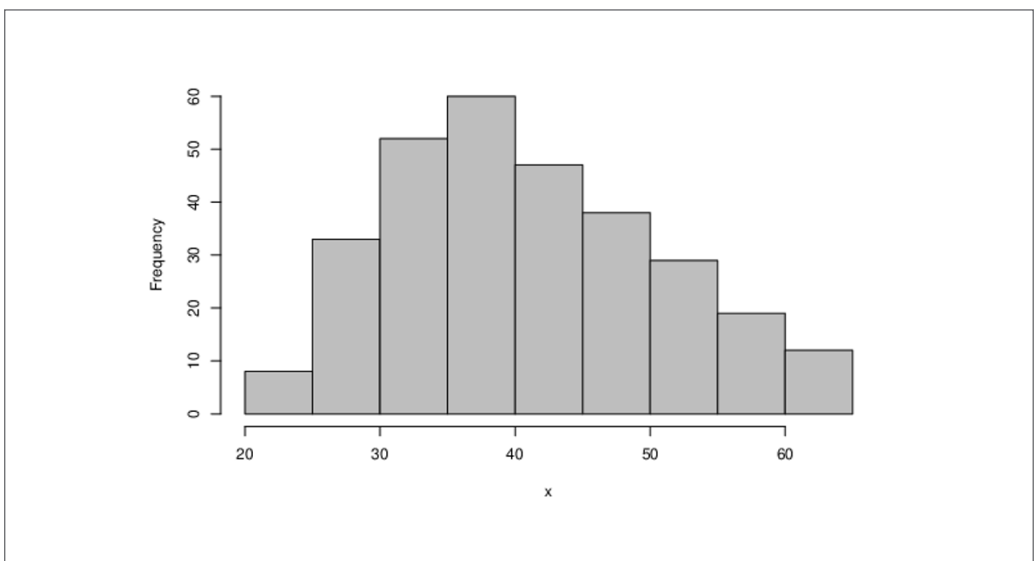
Most authors point to the difficulty of measuring opportunism due to its exceptional nature. Opportunism is a negative characteristic of an employee's personality, and dishonest answers can be given to direct questions. In this regard, a further research problem arises, associated with the empirical assessment of opportunism.

3. Materials and Methods

This research is based on the results of an Internet-based survey, conducted in September 2020 using a stratified sample type. A total of 298 valid answers were received from respondents who work in firms of various sizes and various sectors of the Russian economy, living and working in different Russian cities. Distribution of respondents by one of the factors (age) is presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Distribution of Respondents by Age



Note: developed using Wessa (2020)

3.1. Development of Questions to Identify the Degree of Alienation and the Level of Opportunism

At this stage, based on the questionnaires of Dooley (1971) and Rayce (2018), 16 questions were proposed, reflecting four components of alienation: self-estrangement, powerlessness, meaninglessness, and social isolation. Each question was answered on a scale of five values: “strongly agree,” “more likely agree,” “difficult to say,” “more likely disagree,” “strongly disagree” (Table 1).

Two components are identified in the questionnaire structure to assess opportunism: opportunism

willingness and opportunism conditions. The first one refers to the psychological, personal characteristics of the employee, as the desire to behave selfishly to the detriment of the firm’s interests. The second component concerns the security service and corporate culture’s strength and effectiveness in controlling opportunistic behaviour. An employee’s level of opportunism is determined by a combination of willingness to act opportunistically and how easy it is to do so in the firm. To identify the participants’ opportunism willingness, six authors’ case-type questions were developed, in which the respondents chose their preferred behaviour in hypothetical situations. The survey identified

Table 1

Questions for the Alienation Assessment

Alienation component	Identifying questions
Self-estrangement / Self-fulfilment	I feel that I am working to full capacity My responsibilities in the firm are important to me Most of my learning at work is helpful I feel like my boss is using my talents and abilities
Powerlessness / Powerfulness	I feel like I am an effective and influential employee in my organization I can influence firm policy through my colleagues The bosses use my ideas and suggestions when preparing important decisions at the firm level I know how to solve problems at work
Isolation / Incorporation	I get the full support that I need from my colleagues My and colleagues’ values coincide in many ways I am personally convinced of the fairness of the values and worldviews that the firm is developing in me I can ask for support from my colleagues or management when I have difficulties
Meaninglessness / Meaningfulness	What is expected of me in terms of rules and regulations is compatible with my personal needs and wants The demands made upon me by superiors, rules, and regulations strike me as sensible I feel like there is meaning in my daily work responsibilities I understand and agree with the organization’s payroll system

various forms of active and passive opportunism (Pletnev & Kozlova, 2020). Two opportunism forms are measured: the willingness of opportunism by commission (falsehood or distortion of facts, violation of agreements, exaggeration of difficulties, use of unforeseen events to extract benefits, represented in Figure 2 as "C"); and willingness of opportunism by omission (hiding information, negligence, shown in Figure 2 as "O"). Examples of identifying questions are presented in Figure 2. Also, we identified employees' willingness towards conscientious (honest) behaviour ("H" in Figure 2).

To assess the conditions for opportunism, direct questions were asked (see Table 2), which were also answered on a scale of five values: "strongly agree", "more likely agree", "difficult to say", "more likely disagree", "strongly disagree".

3.2. Quantitative Evaluation of Survey Results

A method was developed to translate the survey results into standardized quantitative estimates (on a scale from 0 to 1), separately for alienation, opportunism willingness, and opportunism conditions.

The respondent's full agreement with all the answers to the "alienation" questions means that its alienation level is characterized by a value of 1. Then, to calculate this degree for the i -th respondent, we use the formula:

$$L_i^{al} = \frac{1}{16} \sum_{j=1}^4 \sum_{k=1}^4 A_{ijk} \quad (1)$$

where $A_{ijk} = \left\{0; \frac{1}{4}; \frac{1}{2}; \frac{3}{4}; 1\right\}$ – the numerical characteristic of the i -th respondent's answer to the k -th question, related to the disclosure of the j -th component of alienation (out of five: "strongly agree," "more likely agree," "difficult to say," "more likely disagree," "strongly disagree"); higher values correspond to a higher degree of alienation.

The interpretation of the results of the respondents' opportunism willingness was carried out through an assessment of the proportion of questions in which the respondent chose opportunistic behaviours:

$$L_i^{opp.w} = 1 - \frac{1}{6} N^h, \quad (2)$$

The formula for assessing the conditions for the opportunism is below:

Figure 2

Examples of Identifying Questions for Opportunism Willingness.

You draw up the documentation for obtaining a loan, which is very important for the company, and you notice that a mistake was made in it through the fault of the contractor who prepared one of the sections. This is not your responsibility, but the loan is likely not to be given if the mistake is found. You will have to spend at least three hours to correct the error, the documents should arrive at the bank tomorrow, and the guilty performer is not in touch. You would prefer:	
1. Do everything yourself, since the success of an important project for the company depends on it	H
2. Write to the boss about the identified problem, <u>colourfully</u> describe the problem that has arisen, solve everything yourself	C
3. Leave the correction of the error with the performer, if you manage to contact him, but you will not say anything to the manager	O
4. Report the error to your boss, saying that this employee systematically makes such mistakes	C

Table 2*Questions for the Conditions for Opportunism Assessment*

Number	Questions
1	The company uses an information system, with which the management can reliably judge the progress of work tasks
2	My remuneration at work is highly dependent on the results of my work
3	I have an access control system (which is actively used) at work, including registration of arrival and departure time
4	The corporate culture at work significantly limits the ability to withhold information from superiors, and feedback channels work well
5	My bosses or their authorized person have remote access to my work computer and view the work screen

$$C_i^{opp} = \frac{1}{5} \sum_{j=1}^5 A_{ij} \quad (3)$$

where $A_{ijk} = \left\{0; \frac{1}{4}; \frac{1}{2}; \frac{3}{4}; 1\right\}$ – numerical characteristics of the i -th respondent's answer to the j -th question about the conditions for the implementation of opportunistic behaviour (out of five options: “strongly agree,” “more likely agree,” “difficult to say,” “more likely disagree,” “strongly disagree”); higher values correspond to conditions for better realization of opportunistic behaviour.

Then the level of opportunism can be determined by multiplying the indicator of the participant's opportunism willingness and the indicator characterizing the conditions for its manifestation:

$$L_i^{opp} = L_i^{opp.w} \cdot C_i^{opp} \quad (4)$$

3.3. Methodology for Conducting a Survey

An online survey was conducted using input filters to obtain representative results. The sample includes 298 respondents, representing approximately equal shares of men and women; employees of large, medium, and small firms; and those living in Moscow, large or medium-sized cities. The survey was conducted in September 2020. In addition to questions that assess the alienation degree and opportunism level, the survey included questions to identify the various factors that influence them. In the research, we investigated 13 factors, divided into three groups: social (gender, age, education level, the coincidence of education with the job profile, type

of employee motivation); related to the organization (ownership form and size of the organization); and related to the employee's place in the organization (work experience, the profile of the work performed, position in the organization, the types of manager according to Adizes (1976), and changes in their status and wages in the recent past). When analysing motivation, the traditional classification was used (according to Gagne et al., 2010). Four motivation types were distinguished: “External regulation” (Ext) (doing an activity in order to obtain rewards or avoid punishments); “Introjected regulation” (Intro) (regulation of behaviour through self-worth contingencies such as ego-involvement and guilt; “Identified regulation” (Ident) (doing an activity because one identifies with its value or meaning, and accepts it as one's own); and “Integrated regulation” (Int) (identifying with the value of an activity to the point that it becomes part of a person's habitual functioning and their sense of self). The management styles typology is based on Adizes' (1976) theory. “Producer” (P) is oriented to the short-term perspective and reacts to environmental changes; this role is like a working horse. “Administrator” (A) is oriented to the short-term perspective and manages the situation; this role is best for planning and follows regulations. “Entrepreneur” (E) is oriented to the long-term perspective and manages the situation; this role can be described as the driver of changes. “Integrator” (I) is oriented to the long-term perspective and reacts to environmental changes; this role is suitable for interfirm relations development. Finally, “Deadwood” is the mismanagement style where none of the above-mentioned management skills are used.

3.4. Methodology for Hypotheses Testing

To test the hypotheses, the Z-test for proportions (Cohen, 1988; Sprinthall, 2011), was used, while the sample was divided into two groups based on the presence or absence of a specific trait. This division was evident for binary factors (gender, the fact of a promotion, etc.). In other cases, established classifications (age) were used, and several hypotheses were tested for each value separately. The null hypotheses were formulated as follows:

H₀1: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for male and female employees

H₀2: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for employees younger than 40 and older

H₀3: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for married and single employees

H₀4: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for employees with and without children

H₀5: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for employees with and without higher education

H₀6: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for employees with and without a job profile close to their diploma

H₀7: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for employees with and without an External type of motivation

H₀8: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for employees with and without an Identified type of motivation

H₀9: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for employees with and without an Intrinsic type of motivation

H₀10: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for employees with and without an Introjected type of motivation

H₀11: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for employees with and without the Producer

management style

H₀12: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for employees with and without the Administrator management style

H₀13: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for employees with and without the Integrator management style

H₀14: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for employees with and without the Entrepreneur management style

H₀15: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for employees with and without the Deadwood mismanagement style

H₀16: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for private-owned firms' employees and others

H₀17: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for big firms' employees and others

H₀18: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for employees with experience of fewer and more than five years

H₀19: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for employees in managerial positions and others

H₀20: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for plant employees and others

H₀21: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for employees who have been in the firm and others

H₀22: The alienation degree / opportunism willingness / opportunism level is not significantly different for employees with and without a salary increase
Then we calculate the share of observations that fit each hypothesis for two samples – less and above the median of dependent variables (L_{al} , $L_{opp.w}$, L_{opp}) – and test the difference in the proportions. An insignificant difference supports the relevant null hypothesis given above, and a significant difference supports the alternative hypothesis in each case.

4. Results

The following histograms present distributions of the calculated normalized indicators of opportunism and alienation: Figure 3 shows the distribution of respondents by alienation degree; Figure 4, opportunism willingness; Figure 5, conditions for the opportunistic behaviour; and Figure 6, opportunism level.

Sample distribution by calculated alienation degree (L_{al}) is close to normal; 7.3 per cent of respondents are not alienated at all, and less than 1 per cent are entirely alienated. The modal range of alienation degree is 0.3–0.4, and the average value is 0.325, with a standard deviation of 0.154 (Figure 3).

Sample distribution by calculated opportunism willingness ($L_{opp.w}$) is close to uniform; 7.2 per cent of respondents are not opportunistic at all, and more than 21 per cent are entirely opportunistic. The modal range of opportunism willingness is 0.6–0.8, and the average value is 0.606, with a standard deviation of 0.230 (Figure 4).

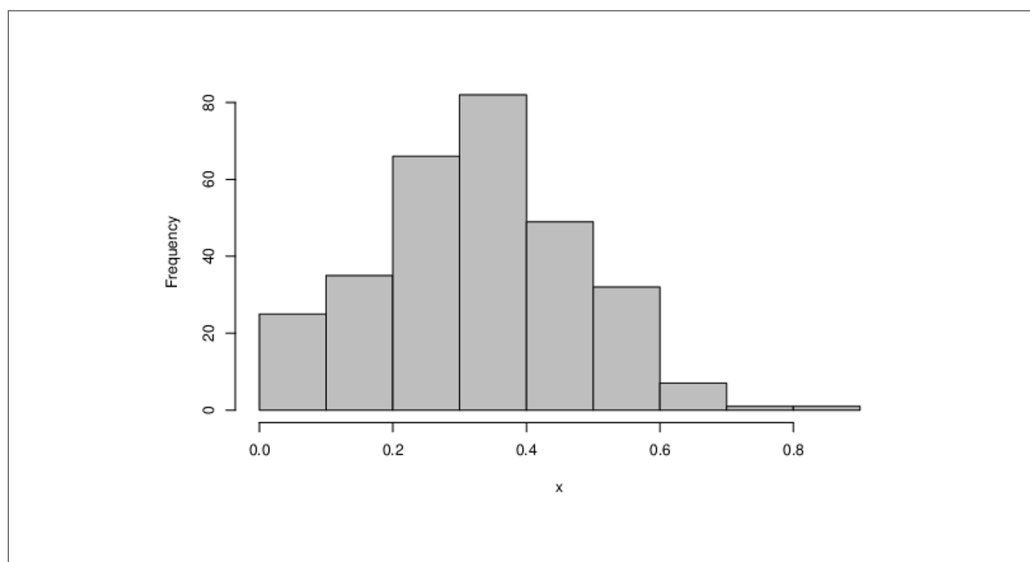
Sample distribution by calculated conditions for opportunism (C^{opp}) is bi-modal; 6.5 per cent of respondents are not opportunistic at all, and 2 per cent are free to be opportunistic. The first modal range of C^{opp} is 0.6–0.3, and the second is 0.5–0.6. The average value is 0.401, with a standard deviation of 0.216 (Figure 5).

Sample distribution by calculated opportunism level (L_{opp}) is close to log-normal. Summarizing opportunism willingness and conditions for opportunism, 20 per cent of respondents are not opportunistic at all, and less than 2 per cent are entirely opportunistic. The modal range of opportunism level is 0.1–0.2, and the average value is 0.253, with a standard deviation of 0.185 (Figure 6).

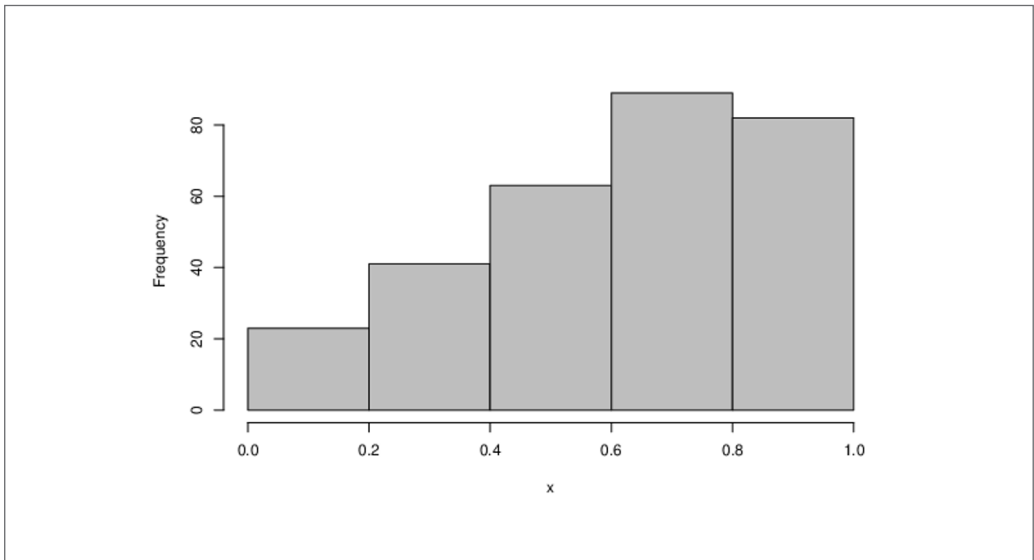
Tables 3–6 present the results of hypothesis testing with a Z-test for proportions at 1, 5, and 10 per cent confidence levels. Table 3 presents the social factors hypotheses testing results; Table 4 details motivation hypothesis testing; and Table 5 explores the relationships of Adizes' management styles with alienation / opportunism. Table 6 presents the results of testing hypotheses regarding the organization and employees' position within it.

Figure 3

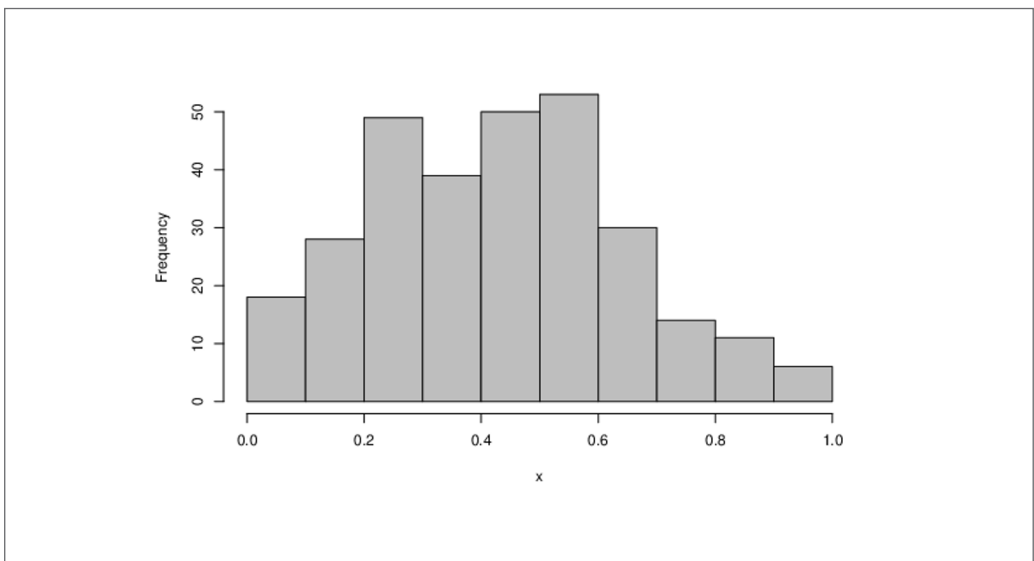
Distribution of Respondents by Calculated Alienation Degree



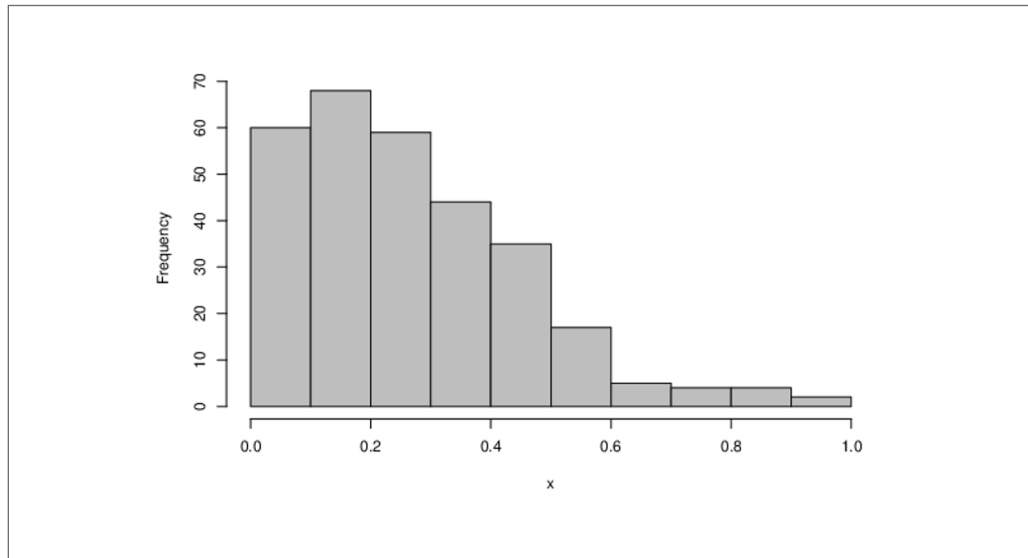
Note: developed using Wessa (2020)

Figure 4*Distribution of Respondents by Calculated Opportunism Willingness*

Note: developed using Wessa (2020)

Figure 5*Distribution of Respondents by Calculated Conditions for the Opportunism*

Note: developed using Wessa (2020)

Figure 6*Distribution of Respondents by Calculated Opportunism Level*

Note: developed using Wessa (2020)

5. Discussion

A summary of the obtained results highlights several notable findings. Education-related factors (education level and similarity between the job profile and diploma) did not significantly affect employees' alienation and opportunism. Simultaneously, it was possible to make assumptions about the possibility of such differences, in both positive and negative directions. Educated people tend to be more alienated when they are over-qualified, and less alienated when they can fulfil their potential. People with a mismatch in education and job profile can be more alienated when their job is not to their liking, and less alienated when these changes are associated with self-improvement. Employees under the age of 40 showed more opportunism willingness and higher levels of opportunism than their older colleagues. This result can be considered a consequence of the education system, which fosters selfish, opportunistic employees. At the same time, employees' age has no statistically significant impact on alienation. These results confirmed Martin, Bengtson and Acock's (1974) research, identifying non-linear interdependence between alienation and age. Furthermore, females' opportunism willing-

ness is greater than males', which is surprising, since men are usually considered more self-interested and more alienated (Slagter, 1982). The marital status of employees also influences the degree of their alienation. Thus, married employees are less alienated, and having children is associated with lower alienation and lower opportunism than for childless employees. This confirms results obtained by Dağlı and Averbek (2017).

The employee motivation type also has a significant impact on alienation and opportunism. Employees with External motivation show greater alienation than those with Identified and Introjected motivation. Simultaneously, motivation types do not significantly impact either the readiness for opportunism or the general level of opportunism. This may indicate that the behavioural patterns for opportunism development are not as deep in the human psyche as more fundamental motivations and alienation.

Adizes' management styles significantly affect the employees' alienation and opportunism: Deadwood employees are significantly more alienated, and Administrators and Entrepreneurs are less alienated; opportunism willingness is higher for the Deadwoods

Table 3*Results of Testing Hypotheses 1–6 (Social Factors)*

Hypothesis number	Factor	Alienation degree (L^{al})	Opportunism willingness (L^{opp-w})	Opportunism level (L^{opp})
H1	Gender	-0.879	2.246**	0.710
H2	Age	0.552	-2.145**	-1.835***
H3	Marital status	2.594*	1.238	0.935
H4	Having children	2.772*	1.562	1.672***
H5	Education level	-0.578	1.054	-0.874
H6	The coincidence of job profile and diploma	0.928	1.147	1.140

Confidence level: * 0.01, ** 0.05, *** 0.10

Table 4*Results of Testing Motivation Hypotheses (7–10)*

Hypothesis number	Factor	(L^{al})	(L^{opp-w})	(L^{opp})
H7	Ext	-3.525*	-0.583	-1.347
H8	Ident	2.265**	0.198	1.222
H9	Intrins	1.023	0.646	-0.117
H10	Intro	1.691***	0.106	0.643

Confidence level: * 0.01, ** 0.05, *** 0.10

Table 5*Results of Testing Hypotheses Regarding Adizes' Management Styles (11–15)*

Hypothesis number	Factor	(L^{al})	(L^{opp-w})	(L^{opp})
H11	Producer	-0.036	1.902***	0.708
H12	Administrator	1.857***	0.502	0.605
H13	Entrepreneur	1.8***	0.779	1.946***
H14	Integrator	-1.465	-1.088	-1.771***
H15	Deadwood	-3.696*	-3.51*	-2.036**

Confidence level: * 0.01, ** 0.05, *** 0.10

Table 6*Results of Testing Hypotheses 16–22 (Organizational Factors (16, 17) and Position (18–22))*

Hypothesis number	Factor	(L^{al})	(L^{opp-w})	(L^{opp})
H16	Ownership	0.218	-0.630	0.476
H17	Size of the organization	0.573	1.767***	3.019*
H18	Work experience	-0.906	4.403*	-0.68
H19	Managerial position	2.323**	1.556	1.622
H20	Plant workers	-1.297	-0.834	-1.153
H21	Position improving	2.586*	1.734***	1.235
H22	Salary improving	2.407**	1.394	2.834*

Confidence level: * 0.01, ** 0.05, *** 0.10

Table 7*Factors Affecting Employees' Alienation and Opportunism*

Factors group	Not affecting alienation and opportunism	Affecting employees' alienation	Affecting employees' opportunism willingness	Affecting employees' opportunism level
Social	Education level; Job profile fits the diploma	Marital status, Children, External motivation type, Identified motivation type, Introjected motivation type, Administrator management style, Entrepreneur management style, Deadwood management style	Gender, Age, Producer management style, Deadwood management style	Age, Children, Entrepreneur management style, Integrator management style, Deadwood management style
Related to organization	Ownership form	-	Organization size	Organization size
Related to position in organization	Plant workers	Managerial position, Position improving, Salary improving	Work experience, Position improving	Salary improving

and lower for the Producers. The opportunism level is lower for the Entrepreneurs and higher for the Integrators and Deadwoods. These results also fit with the usual logic: those employees who do not care are more alienated and opportunistic. Entrepreneurs usually have a desire for a joint doing business, and it is easier for Administrators to feel demanded in immense organizational structures. The Producer, who is usually dumped for all the work, is expected to show lower opportunism willingness. Despite the lack of publications studying these factors (motivation type and preferred management style), our results confirm Nagin et al.'s (2002) research: rationale employees are more opportunistic.

An analysis of the organizational factors shows that employees' propensity for opportunism and the level of opportunism in large enterprises are lower than in medium and small ones. This is surprising, because it is generally believed that interaction costs increase with size, leading to increased opportunism. On the other hand, it is possible that working in large teams creates a sense of community and involvement in a common cause, which

reduces opportunism. The ownership form of enterprises does not affect either alienation or opportunism. This conclusion will not please the supporters of privatization and private ownership, but this is the current trend – today, the question of who owns the company is becoming less and less important. This confirms earlier research results obtained by Mottaz (1981) and Rosner and Tannenbaum (1987).

Factors related to the position in the organization also affect alienation and opportunism. Alienation among managers is less than that of other enterprise employees; this is logical and understandable. Employees whose position in the organization has improved over the past year are less alienated and less willing to be opportunistic. These results fully confirm those of Mottaz (1981), Navaratne (2013) and Wnuk (2016). Employees whose salaries have increased in the past year show lower levels of opportunism and exclusion. Employees with short work experience in an organization (up to five years) show a greater readiness for opportunism than those who have worked there for more than five years. Table 7 summarizes the interrelations identified during the study.

6. Conclusions

The study confirmed a significant difference in the alienation degree and the opportunism level among Russian firms' employees who belong to different social groups, and have different motivations, psychological characteristics and workplace backgrounds. This result can be used in the practical formation of models for increasing the personnel's involvement in company affairs, to reduce opportunism and alienation. An important finding is a confirmation that salary and position improvements reduce alienation and opportunism. HR management should also focus on identifying motivation types and management styles, to understand the possible risks of high alienation with an External motivation type. Research results will be helpful in the development of HR practices, including their differentiation by employees' motivation type and preferred management style, organization size, employees' age, and marital status. In the practical applications, HR managers should keep in mind the research limitations, such as specific time-related factors (the research was organized during the Covid-19 pandemic and because of it, respondents' answers could be biased temporarily), and a limited sample (based on Russian employees' answers). Thus, the research hypotheses need to be further tested in different countries and at different times.

Research can be continued in the following promising areas:

1. Verification of the result using other statistical methods (including ANOVA).
2. A detailed study of individual factors dependencies (for example, types of motivation and alienation), taking into account the various social and organizational characteristics of the respondents (for example, living in Moscow or other Russian cities).
3. Conducting new surveys for a comparative study of the influence of various factors on the degree of alienation and the level of opportunism, including cross-country surveys.

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