

Human Resource Development Practices in Russia: A Structured Literature Review

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This literature review aimed to investigate the literature on HRD in Russian enterprises, U.S. firms in Russia, or U.S.-Russian joint ventures to determine the role and function of HRD practitioners in creating a successful economic transition. Thirty-three articles were selected through a database search and examined using content analysis. Three themes emerged: training (its purposes and practice); work ethic (communication, responsibility and organizational involvement of Russian employee), and Russian management/leadership (styles, values and, practices).

Keywords: International human resource development, Organizational development, Training

Since the collapse of the Soviet empire and consequent changes in the economy, Russia has been attracting foreign investors and businesses. The number of U.S. businesses operating in Russia, for example, increased from a couple of dozen in 1991 to several hundred in 1996 (Thach, 1996). In 2001, the U.S. was the biggest foreign investor in Russia with 5 billion dollars in direct investments and 10 billion dollars in two-way trade of goods and services (Evans, 2001). The interest has extended from Russia's rich natural resources that are spread across one-eighth of the planet to its hardly competitive market and cheap but skilled labor (Fey, 1995; Thach, 1996) comprised of almost 80 million adults (*World Development Indicators*, 2000). Ninety-nine percent of Russian adults are literate; many receive at least one degree after graduating from high school. Fey (1995) claims an average Russian is more educated than an average American. One-fourth of the world's trained engineers live in Russia (Rubens, 1995).

Success of foreign firms and joint ventures in Russia depends on the people working for them, but the areas of human resource development and human resource management represent challenges. The concept of human resources called "kadri" or cadre differed during the Soviet era. The system of K-12 and post-secondary education was well-developed and considered sufficient to prepare a qualified workforce. Therefore, on-the-job professional development and training was given little attention (Fey, Engstrom, & Bjorkman, 1999; Thach, 1996). Human resource management decisions came from the top down and human resource functions were reduced to personnel administration and record keeping at the local level (May, Young, & Ledgerwood, 1998).

Since the average Russian employee, including managers, knew little about a market economy, Western consulting firms and U.S.-Russian partnerships on academic and practitioner levels were established to provide help to various aspects of business. Frey et al. (1999) found that over 20 foreign firms in Moscow offer training seminars and consultations, some Russian firms send their top managers abroad, and many develop in-house training courses (e.g., English language, computer skills, or management). Although today personnel development targets primarily senior managers, training has shifted from "educational and orienting" to "professional, hard-competency development" (Shekshnia, 1998, p. 462).

However, the effectiveness of Western-based programs for training and development has been questioned since they often offer "quick-fix packages and 'canned' prescriptions" and lack three crucial components: "(a) pre-training preparation (i.e., needs analyses), (b) knowledgeable trainers [in the subject matter and the Russian language], and (c) an in-depth understanding of the intricacies unique to the Russian business culture" (May et al., 1998, p. 450). Employees' job performance and behavior depend on Russian cultural values, beliefs, and attitudes (Vlachoutsicos, 2001). Therefore, understanding of Russian cultural values and ways they affect how education is perceived and delivered can contribute to the effectiveness of human resource development practices (Shaw & Ormston, 2001).

The purpose of this paper is to examine the literature on HRD in Russian enterprises, U.S. firms in Russia, or U.S.-Russian joint ventures to determine the role and function of HRD practitioners in creating a successful economic transition. The paper sought to answer two research questions: (a) What major topics related to HRD in Russian enterprises, U.S. firms in Russia, or U.S.-Russian joint ventures have been discussed in the literature? and (b) How were these topics discussed?

Method

A qualitative approach helps "to inductively and holistically understand human experience and constructed meanings in context-specific settings" (Patton, 2002, p. 69). Written materials provide a valuable source of data for qualitative research (Patton, 2002). Therefore, articles from scholarly and practitioner journals related to

adult education, business, human resource management, and human resource development were searched and analyzed.

Databases and Descriptors

Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) was searched first as the largest education database. Two business databases, ABI Inform (via ProQuest) and Business File ASAP (via Galenet), were searched based on the recommendations from two librarians specializing in education and business at Florida International University library. Both databases provided access to a variety of scholarly and practitioners' business publications. Then, Human Resource Development Quarterly (HRDQ), the leading journal in the field, was searched via ABI Inform. Since databases provide access to thousands of publications, combinations of descriptors were used. The search of the three databases used the descriptor Russia in combination with HR, human resources, HRD, human resource development, business, employees, training, and joint venture. The search of HRDQ used the following single descriptions: Russia, Soviet Union, USSR, communist, Russian, Europe, and Eastern Europe. The descriptors were not combined with the descriptor human resources due to the nature of the journal.

Selection Criteria

Each database search produced a list of records that were examined and limited based on the following selection criteria: the articles had to (a) be written in English; (b) include U.S. researchers or teams of researchers with at least one U.S. author; (c) be published in a U.S. journal or magazine, as anonymous authors were excluded; (d) be written after 1990, as that would allow five years to elapse since the inception of political changes in Russia; and (e) discuss relevant issues in HRD in Russian enterprises, U.S. firms in Russia, or U.S.-Russian joint ventures. Articles' titles and abstracts were scanned for those that met the selection criteria. The total of 138 articles were selected and then further reduced to 32 due to duplication.

Data Analysis

Data analysis in qualitative research "transforms data into findings" (Patton, 2002, p. 432) and is derived from two sources: research purpose and questions posted in the conceptual framework and "analytic insights and interpretations that emerged during data collection" (p. 437). Since the study aimed at examining literature, content analysis was chosen as the method for data analysis. Content analysis is used to make sense of text and identify "core consistencies and meanings" which are called patterns or themes (Patton, 2002, p. 453). Patton explains that a pattern takes a form of a descriptive finding, while a theme has "a more categorical or topical form" (p. 453). Since the research questions focused on topics, content analysis was used to identify themes emerging in the literature.

Each article was read once. Sections, paragraphs, or sentences in the article were highlighted if they were relevant to the study. In a separate journal, I summarized the content of the selected passages using bullets. Also, identical notes were written on stickers and attached next to the highlighted article passage. When each article was analyzed individually, I cross-examined the summaries in the journal looking for emerging themes. The most recurrent topics across the individual article summaries were identified and grouped. Then, the articles pertaining to each theme were read again to ensure integrity.

Discussion of Findings

This section describes and interprets the results of the conducted literature search and analysis. Although this study did not aim at examining types of research utilized to explore the topic, "understanding how and why" the written materials were produced is one of the essential but challenging aspects of data analysis and interpretation (Patton, 2002, p. 498). Therefore, I first examine themes concerning the distribution of the articles by time and by publication type. Then, I provide an in-depth discussion of the themes and sub-themes which constitute the major topics related to HRD in Russian enterprises, U.S. firms in Russia, or U.S.-Russian joint ventures investigated in the reviewed articles.

Distribution of Articles by Time

The first theme emerging during the data analysis was that most articles seemed to be published in the mid-90s (see Table 1). Further analysis shows that out of 32 articles reviewed, 23 were published between 1992 and 1997, while only 9 were produced in the six years that followed. No articles published in 1990 and 1991 met the search criteria. This disproportionate number of publications was surprising since Russia's attempts to integrate into the global economy have not stopped. Possible reasons may include a preference to publish outside of the U.S. and a decline in researchers' interest, possibly due to political events in either country. For example, Russian presidential elections in 1991 were followed by a number of political and economic events: privatization campaign, market economy reforms, withdrawn of Russian troops from Germany and Poland, new Constitution, cutting off of foreign aid to Cuba, the establishment of the Commonwealth of Independent States and independence to the Baltic States, which received positive reaction from the U.S., promising further changes and attracting U.S. businesses (e.g., Proctor & Gamble, Chrysler, or Phillip Morris). By the late 1990s, Russian political decisions regarding the conflict in Chechnya and the growing nationalism became a big concern of

Table 1. Number of Publications by Year

Year	Number of publications	Year	Number of publications
1990-1991	0	1998	2
1992	1	1999	2
1993	7	2000	0
1994	4	2001	4
1995	5	2002	0
1996	3	2003	1
1997	3		

the U.S. and the West. With respect to the Chechen conflict, *The Wall Street Journal* calls Russia “the big failure” (Peters, 1999, p. A. 34) and warns of the possibility of “a deep downward spiral” of U.S.-Russian relations (Seib, 1999, p. A. 24). The International Monetary Fund withholds millions in loans, while the economic reforms prove their ineffectiveness with Russia ranking the last in the World Economic Forum’s survey of the world’s competitive economies (Richards, 1999, p. A. 18).

Distribution of Articles by Publication Type

The 32 articles were published in 27 different journals and magazines. Examination of their focus, scope, and target audience revealed that out of 32 articles, 17 came from practitioner and 15 from scholarly journals. Also, information presented in the articles came from a variety of sources. Out of 32 articles, only 15 were based on empirical research: nine were quantitative, four – qualitative, and two others used mixed methods. Three articles represented literature reviews, but twelve more are based on “anecdotal evidence” that comes from personal experiences of visiting, working or training in Russia (Ardichvili, Cardozo, & Gaspirashvili, 1998, p. 146). The remaining two simply report on status of a training initiative.

Topic Areas

Three broad themes which constitute the major topics related to HRD in Russian enterprises, U.S. firms in Russia, or U.S.-Russian joint ventures emerged from the literature: training, work ethics and management/leadership. Table 2 shows themes and corresponding sub-themes and the number of articles in which each was discussed in a descending order. Some articles focused on several topics. The first theme, training, was discussed in twenty-two articles and can be further broken into two sub-themes: training purpose and practices. Fourteen articles discussed work ethic under three sub-themes: communication, responsibility, and organizational involvement. The third theme, management/leadership emerged from ten articles and includes such sub-themes as style, managers’ values and beliefs, and practices.

Table 2. Themes that emerged from the literature

Theme	Number of articles that discussed it
Training	
Purpose	10
Practices	12
Work ethic	
Communication	6
Responsibility	4
Organizational involvement	4
Leadership/Management	
Style	5
Managers’ values and beliefs	3
Practices	2

Training

Twenty-two articles discussed purpose and practices of training of Russian employees. In general, “the purpose of training is to increase employees’ knowledge, skills, and competencies in order for them to improve their performance” (Gilley, Egglund, & Gilley, 2002). Since Russian workers’ lack knowledge and skills necessary for successful operation of U.S. firms, training often aimed at providing A-B-Cs required for a particular job. Training practices concern whether and how to integrate Western work-related concepts into Russian work environment, distinct culturally and historically.

Purpose. In the early 1990s, Russia experienced a decline in personnel training in state-owned enterprises due to financial constraints and “declining demand for science-intensive products,” (Gauzner, Ivanov, &

Mikhina, 1993, p. 46). However, the private sector, foreign firms, and joint ventures started investing in employee development due to a lack of knowledge and skills necessary for successful operation in a market economy. Russian managers' lack of skills and knowledge which is considered vital in U.S. business was central in most articles (e.g., Cooley, 1997; Messmer, 1994) and discussed as the first challenge for U.S. firms operating in Russia. In the U.S., knowledge of business and HRD practice and business skills are expected of effective HRD leaders (Gilley et al., 2002). Not surprisingly, Russian managers are not familiar with Western standards due to little managerial education and development during the Soviet era (Rubens, 1995). Training was aimed at developing skills need in the areas of general managerial (e.g., negotiation), business (e.g., free-market and organizational behavior), leadership (e.g., team-building), and functional/technical (e.g., computer and software) (Cooley, 1997; Rubens, 1995; Thach, 1996). Russian managers have more an "engineering, problem-solving mind-set" with emphasis on quantitative skills, rather than "the human behavior focus of many Western managers"; therefore, training had to provide them knowledge and experience in strategic planning, leadership, and empowerment (Proffitt, Hill, Armstrong, & Engel, 1997, p. 60).

Training Russian managers may not be the only solution to a successful operation of a Western firm since they possess qualities which they have accumulated through years of work and which can contribute to the company. While discussing the reasons for appointing either Russian or Western managers in joint ventures, Lawrence and Vlachoutsicos (1993) argue that Russians "know more about indigenous markets and suppliers, networks and ministries, regulations and cultural patterns, and workforce strengths and weaknesses than a Western manager could learn in years on the job" (p. 45). They reject "the false conventional wisdom" about nonexistence of Soviet successful managers, arguing that many of them were "accomplished wonders" (p. 45). Therefore, successful joint ventures utilized Russian managers' knowledge and skills and introduced Western practices gradually and selectively. Similarly, Welsh and Swerdlow (1992) caution against making the assumption that Russian managers have nothing to offer to a Western company. Due to difficulties and constraints during Soviet times, managers had to be "creative, resourceful and industrious," so they are good at the "input" side of the equation, such as their ability to acquire goods ...while Westerners ...are better prepared to deal with the "output" aspects of business, such as marketing products" (p. 72).

Training purposes for Russian employees in non-managerial positions were only discussed in three articles. Training for these employees needs to increase their knowledge in skills in functional areas (e.g., software development) (Cooley, 1997), basic office procedures, business psychology, delegation, decision making, customer service, or practices of communication between male and female employees accepted in Western enterprises (Stagner, 1996). Similarly, Rubens (1995) reports both Russian and U.S. telecommunications industries have acknowledged Russian employees' shortage of skills necessary in that industry. Also, Rubens compared job-related competencies of managers and blue-color workers in Russia, and three other former Soviet bloc states, to the U.S. standards. While managers scored lower on tests of job-related skills, abilities, and behaviors than Western standards, blue-color workers' competencies were close to those of Western blue-color workers. The first finding was attributed to the Soviet era "neglect of management education and training" (p. 72), but the second finding was not given an explanation or further discussion.

Training practices. Both what and how to train Russians becomes a challenge. Moscow McDonald's, for example, uses the same approach to human resources (i.e., "McDonald's is one big family") and techniques of training and employee development in Russia as in the U.S. and world wide (Vikhanski & Puffer, 1993, p. 104). Top managers were sent to the McDonald's training centers in the U.S. and Canada, while employees were watching video tapes that explained McDonald's work philosophy, essentials of personal grooming, discipline and responsibility, sense of initiative, and basic customer relations. McDonald's main strategy was to hire teenagers for their openness and lack of experience which brings opportunities to influence work habits. McDonalds decided, "it would be easier to instill McDonald's work habits and standards in people who knew no other way to work than to disabuse people of unacceptable work habits they had acquired in previous jobs" (Vikhanski & Puffer, 1993, p. 104).

Varner & Varner (1994) suggest a different perspective on training in Russia arguing that "successful training builds on the knowledge base and experiences of the participants" (p. 362). Therefore, training and HRM should take into account the political environment, the existence of the old power elite, people's new awareness of the past due to political changes, and cultural values, beliefs, and behaviors. Ignoring these issues brings misunderstandings and low effectiveness. Thach (1996) observed that training Russians with the same Western concepts is a mistake since "Western concepts as participative management, empowerment, reengineering, and teamwork do not translate immediately" in Russia (p. 37).

Training methods should take into account teaching methods utilized in Soviet and post-Soviet system of education, K-12, and college. Since lecturing dominated and games, icebreakers and role-plays were not used, Russians react to these new methods differently (Thach, 1996). Role-play was not considered an adult learning activity, so workers express skepticism (Varner & Varner, 1994). Training should start with emphasis on basic skills (Thach, 1996, p. 37), and factual knowledge should be combined with experiential learning (Varner and Varner, 1994). Sometimes, due to their absolute novelty to Russians, Western concepts (e.g., accounting and

finance) do not intimidate them or bring fear of losing face and seem to be more easily accepted (Varner and Varner, 1994). While introducing Western concepts, examples should be relevant to employees and the context (Thach, 1996). Training should be based on systems thinking, clarifying how each individual employee contributes to the organization's success, and linked to the goals and business results of the organization (Thach, 1996).

Some of the reviewed articles suggest that Russian younger employees' seem to respond to new Western business concepts more openly than older (e.g., hiring preferences at McDonald's). Varner and Varner (1994) note that people over thirty represent a difficult but important to teach group since many of them hold key positions in organizations, so "reaching this group ...requires great tact and adaptation" (p. 366). Thach (1996) suggests understanding of older employees' mindsets and being "patient and methodical" in developing their skills (p. 36).

Training is conducted both internally and externally by Russian and U.S. trainers. In their study of Western firms in Russia, Fey, Engstrom, and Bjorkman (1999) found that most of the HRM training is offered internally and primarily in such areas as general induction, functional management, and general management; external training targeted general management, English course, and finance upgrading. Managers and expert employees are sometimes sent to the U.S. to receive not only training but hands-on experiences (*Business America*, 1995; Vikhanski & Puffer, 1993). U.S. retired senior level managers volunteer in some Russian organizations to advise managers and executives (Jenner, 1994). In U.S. companies and joint ventures, training might be combined with assigning a mentor to foster learning (Cooley, 1997). Much training is conducted by U.S. partners and via interpreter which complicates the information exchange.

Work Ethic

Fourteen articles discuss Russian employees' work ethics, a set of culturally constructed work-related values which are involved in and/or guide people's attitude and behavior (Naquin & Holton, 2002; Petty & Hill, 1996). Six articles concern communication among employees in managerial and non-managerial positions, explaining it by both traditional Russian perception of authority and Soviet organizational practices. Four manuscripts suggest a lack of involvement with the organization, which is rooted in the Soviet era work beliefs. Four other articles point to the differences in Russian and Western beliefs about work responsibility.

Communication. The concept of feedback takes a central role in the U.S. theory of learning organization, suggesting "everyone shares responsibility for problems generated by a system" (Senge, 1990). In Russian organizations, feedback is limited and information flows primarily vertically. Managers are reluctant to share information with the subordinates and provide feedback. Similarly, employees receive messages but do not provide feedback; asking for help or admitting confusion was not encouraged in the Soviet era. The "flawed feedback" may be explained by the mistrust between superiors and subordinates that comes from the Soviet legacy of "keep your mouth shut" style of working (Cooley, 1997, p. 100). Fey and Bjorkman (2001) attribute this to the high power distance of the Russian culture, a perception of inequality between people and society as a "normal and desirable thing" (Hofstede, 2002, p. 92). The Russia's perception of the authority might have historical roots dating back to the 13 century Rus where communities were geographically isolated from the center, which made both the ruler and the people mutually inaccessible (Vlachoutsicos, 2001).

Responsibility. Closely connected to the concept of feedback as "the ethical issue" in the learning organization (Senge, 1990, p. 78), responsibility also represents a core value of the U.S. culture and market economy (May et al., 1998), and essential HR managerial principles (Gilley, 2002). In the Soviet times, centralized planning determined the organization's goals, structure, and development. Since managers did not always have control over the organization and production outcomes, avoiding responsibility became a norm (Cooley, 1997; May et al., 1998; Proffitt, Hill, Armstrong, & Engel, 1997). This system did not encourage risk-taking in solving problems; instead, managers and executives "exhibit an extraordinary ability to 'pass the buck,' both personally and professionally" (May et al., 1998, p. 452). Also, Soviet hierarchical organizational structure facilitated collective, rather than individual, responsibility where everyone and no one were responsible (Fey & Bjorkman, 2001). Vlachoutsicos (2001) attributes this diffusion of individual responsibility to the Collective Leadership prevalent in Russian culture and exercised even by the Politburo of the Central Committee of the Communist Party. Collective Leadership led to "the tendency of managers to cover their responsibility by hiding behind collective decisions" (Vlachoutsicos, 2001, p. 166). Post-perestroika instability brought even more reasons for managers to avoid responsibility. Russian managers score higher on uncertainty avoidance than U.S. counterparts (Elenkov, cited in May, et al., 1998). This high "level of anxiety [...] when confronted with the unknown" (Hofstede, 2002, p. 92) might explain the unwillingness to take individual responsibility. Though Soviet managers were not held responsible, they were given authority, so Lawrence and Vlachoutsicos (1993) suggest giving Russian managers "the authority they need to take responsibility" (p. 46). This practice has been proven successful in joint ventures in which Western partners put Russian managers in charge while communicating this message to the entire organization (Lawrence & Vlachoutsicos, 1993).

Organizational involvement. Organizational involvement has been related to employees' internal feelings (e.g., participation in decision-making, motivation, job commitment, performance, and satisfaction) and

external/organizational dimensions (e.g., communication among employees and organizational culture) (Cappelli & Rogovsky, 1998; Harris & Mossholder, 1996; Orpen, 1997). Attitude towards involvement in the organization carries characteristics of Soviet era where state-owned enterprises did not practice meaningful system of worker recognition and employment was state-guaranteed. "They think they're paying us; let them think we're working" used to be a common saying (Herman & Messmer, 1994). Searching for individual profit rather than organization's was also common at both managerial and non-managerial positions (Tongren, Hecht, & Kovach, 1995). A well-known saying, "Take each nail home from the plant; you are the owner, not a guest" reflects the worker disengagement with the organization. In studying the applicability of U.S. theory of human resource management of employee participation to Russian organization, Welsh, Luthans, and Sommer (1993) found that when a plant's workers to openly discuss ways of their performance improvement without their supervisors present, it had a counter productive affect, significantly decreasing worker productivity. The authors explained the result by the existing supervisors' neglect of worker initiative that was often seen as a complaint and rarely acted upon.

Management/Leadership

Ten articles examine such aspects of Russian HRD management/leadership as style and managers' values and beliefs as well as practices, five, three and two articles respectively. These aspects are compared to those of the U.S. and also of other former USSR states.

Style. Ardichvili et al. (1998) found that half of Russian managers perceived themselves as situation leaders switching from autocratic to democratic methods depending on the context, while only one tenth of them used autocratic methods; however, more than half made decisions alone or consulting only with other managers. Lawrence and Vlachoutsicos (1993) note that Russian managers "practice a unique form of decision making that combines consultation and command by alternating periods of open, widespread discussion of options with moments of strong, top-down authority in making final decisions" (p. 45). Also, transactional leadership seem to dominate among Russian managers who favor contingent reward method "by stressing specific benefits that their subordinates would receive by accomplishing agreed-on tasks and establishing exchange relationships with them" (Ardichvili & Gasparishvili, 2001, p. 67). Inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation, characteristic of the transformational style, are also frequently utilized. Managers perceive charisma has the strongest impact on performance but utilize it less than other methods (Ardichvili & Gasparishvili, 2001). Also, Russian managers rely less on charisma and inspirational motivation than managers from other former-USSR states (i.e., Georgia, Kazakhstan, and Kyrgyz Republic) possibly due to "a stronger aversion to the rhetoric associated" with the methods popular during the Soviet regime which was tighter in Russia than other states (Ardichvili, 2001, p. 378).

Managers' values and beliefs. Puffer, McCarthy and Naumov (1997) surveyed 292 Russian managers to reveal their beliefs about their profession. Regardless of their rank, age or gender, managers scored the highest on the humanistic cluster viewing managerial work as "meaningful, satisfying, and a means of self-expression" (p. 264) which contradicts Western beliefs of their authoritativeness. The collective nature of work and the importance of team work was the second strongly held belief. The collectivist orientation has cultural and historical roots in medieval Russian village commune, *mir*, (Vlachoutsicos, 2001) and was exercised by the structure of work and education organization of the Communist era. At the same time, managers exhibited individualistic orientation giving much importance to self-reliance and independence at work. Although this might seem to contradict collectivist nature of the Russian culture, individualism developed as a survival strategy. Female managers scored higher on the humanistic cluster, while older managers valued the collective nature of work and self-reliance stronger than young ones possibly due to the longer work experience.

Russian managers and employees, along with those of other former-USSR states, scored high on masculinity ('masculine' values), fatalism, and paternalism, while Russians scored the highest on long-term orientation. Long-term planning was characteristic of Soviet regime; however, since Russian managers and employees exhibited significantly higher preference for long-term orientation, this can be a unique Russian cultural characteristic (Ardichvili, 2001).

Practices. Russian and U.S. managers' engagement in managerial activities differs. Although the importance of managerial activities is similar, Russian managers at a large manufacturing factory were found to spend more time and effort on traditional management activities, including planning, decision-making and monitoring, and communication activities, which entail information exchange and paperwork. U.S. managers spend more time than Russian on human resource management (i.e., motivating, staffing, and training) and networking (i.e., socializing) (Luthans, Welsh, & Rosenkrantz, 1993). Similarly, Russian entrepreneurs in executive positions were found to spend most of their time on strategic planning, financial planning, and development of organizational structures. Slightly less effort is used to working with customers, quality control, and performance appraisal. Employee training takes the least amount of time among all other managerial practices on a regular basis; one fourth of the managers do not conduct employee training at all (Ardichvili, Cardozo, & Gasparishvili, 1998).

Conclusions

This literature review aimed at examining research produced by U.S. scholars and published in U.S. journals and magazines related to HRD in Russian enterprises, U.S. firms in Russia, or U.S.-Russian joint ventures to determine the role and function of HRD practitioners. Despite the depth and breadth of changes in Russian economy, its global importance, and the U.S. involvement, a small number of articles (32) related to the topic were found. The role of HRD practitioners was discussed in regards to training and the function of HRD practitioners was concerned with managerial practices. Training practices either utilize U.S. model or encourage accounting for Soviet and post-Soviet teaching and learning styles, employees' age, and cultural sensitivity. None of the articles presented a discussion of career development or performance improvement, which are also considered two important functions of HRD in U.S. literature (Gilley et al., 2002). Further research should investigate if and how these aspects of HRD are implemented in U.S.-Russian enterprises. Few articles (e.g., Vikhanski & Puffer, 1993; Welsh et al., 1993) presented results of an HRD intervention; the majority simply described observations of Russian employees' work-related characteristics (i.e., responsibility and communication). The discussion of HRD practitioners' role and function is not only limited to training and management practices, but also may not reflect changes and improvements in HRD of U.S.-based firms in Russia and in Russian employees' work-related values and work practices since most articles were produced in mid-90s.

Implications

This literature review found a need in skills training for Russian employees in both managerial and non-managerial positions. Since various internal and external training practices seem to be established, this may not be true across country. Traditionally, exchanges and partnerships in business and education have been established in Moscow, St. Petersburg and other large cities. However, even Russians say, "If you have lived only in Moscow or St. Petersburg, don't say you know Russia." HRD practitioners should understand that Russian workers' skills and work-related values and practices may not be the same in various parts of the country which is very ethnically and economically diverse. Work ethic may represent even a greater challenge since it has deep cultural roots and could be an area where U.S.-based models of employee accountability or organizational commitment may not work. Since less than half of the articles were based on empirical studies, more HRD scholarly research which incorporates theories of national cultures, recent changes in Russian society, or different demographic groups of employees (e.g., age and gender) is needed. Professional collaborations with Russian and European universities, research centers and government agencies can contribute to the discussion of U.S.-Russian HRD practices.

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