Motivating non-core employees
- What affects motivation for employees working in a non-core unit?

Att motivera icke-kärnverksamhet anställda
- Vad påverkar anställdas motivation i en icke-kärnverksamhet avdelning?

Susanne Midbeck
Zebastian Nylund

Vårterminen 2011

Handledare: Fredrik Tell

Civilonomprogrammet

Institutionen för ekonomisk och industriell utveckling
Motivating non-core employees
Susanne Midbeck and Zebastian Nylund (2011), Linköping University
Preface

As part of our MSc in Business Administration, this Master Thesis will be our final and utmost important contribution to our studies at Linköping University. We take great pride in our achievement and hope you will find use of this research. As a final word we would like to acknowledge our supervisor and friend Fredrik Tell, our contact at Ericsson, Ingela Hansen, who in a most professional manner always found the time to aid us in any matter of this thesis. Further gratefulness goes out to our opposition group who spent countless hours making this study better. Thank you to our parents, siblings and friends, none mentioned, none forgotten, without your support this would not have been possible.

Linköping, May 2011

Susanne Midbeck and Zebastian Nylund
Abstract

Title: Motivating non-core employees – What affects motivation for employees working in a non-core unit?

Titel: Att motivera icke-kärnverksamhet anställda – Vad påverkar anställdas motivation i en icke-kärnverksamhet avdelning?

Thesis supervisor and advisor: Fredrik Tell

Background: The topical business subject, motivation, is claimed to have a positive correlation with performance, making the subject highly relevant and important for contemporary companies around the world. As capital goods industries are today changing strategies into integrated solution customer offerings, motivation at all units of the value chain is a matter of increasing importance. Being part of an integrated solution strategy, non-core units are contributing to the overall package offered to customers, but typically in less organizational focus and with lack of stability due to e.g. outsourcing trends. As their importance might at times be overlooked, what affects their motivation?

Aim: The main focus of this thesis is on motivation within a non-core unit. The studied single case is an Ericsson non-core unit, SITE. The aim of this study is to contribute to an understanding of what affects motivation for employees working in a non-core unit. More closely, the authors will consider factors that can influence motivation and what ultimately affects these factors.

Completion and results: With the contribution on the subject of motivating non-core employees, it is the authors understanding that employees of a non-core unit are affected by several motivational factors. Adding up the motivational factors, there are two ultimate features affecting motivation i.e. meaning and recognition. As a part of an integrated solution, and the knowledge of previously outsourced non-core units, employees need to feel that they are employed with a meaning. Further, the feature of recognition affects non-core employee motivation, and it is crucial that colleagues, other units and the organization recognize them.

Search phrases: Motivation, Affecting motivation, Employee motivation, Non-core, Motivating non-core employees
Abbreviations and terms dictionary

2G/GSM – Global System for Mobile Communications - Voice centric networks

3G/WCDMA - Wideband Code Division Multiple Access - Multimedia centric networks

4G/LTE - Long Term Evolution network for enhancing mobile communication and entertainment

Capital goods - Products which are not produced for immediate consumption; rather, they are objects that are used to produce other goods and services.

CDMA solutions - Code division multiple access, which allows multiple users to use the same physical mobile channel

Fiber and microwave transmissions - Transmitting information through fiber cable or radio waves

Fortune list - A theme of the Fortune Magazine is its regular publishing of researched and ranked lists.

Nodes – A communication connection point, capable of sending, receiving or forwarding information through a communication channel

SITE – Site Material Supply, a non-core unit at the global company Ericsson

TNS SIFO – Sweden’s largest market research company

xDSL - Digital Subscriber Line – provides digital data transmissions over local telephone network wires
# Table of contents

1. **Introduction** ........................................................................................................................... 1  
   1.1 Motivation, a topical business subject ................................................................................. 1  
   1.2 A change in organizational strategy ................................................................................... 2  
   1.3 SITE, a representative case ............................................................................................... 3  
   1.4 Purpose of study .................................................................................................................. 4  
   1.5 Research question ............................................................................................................. 4  
   1.6 Delimitations ....................................................................................................................... 4  
   1.7 Disposition of thesis ........................................................................................................... 5  

2. **Methodology** ............................................................................................................................ 6  
   2.1 The view on knowledge and reality ...................................................................................... 6  
   2.2 Research Strategy ............................................................................................................... 7  
      2.2.1 The inductive approach ................................................................................................. 8  
      2.2.2 The qualitative research strategy ............................................................................... 9  
   2.3 Research Design .................................................................................................................. 10  
      2.3.1 The single case study .................................................................................................. 10  
   2.4 Research Method ............................................................................................................... 12  
      2.4.1 Interviews .................................................................................................................... 13  
      2.4.2 Selection of Research participants ............................................................................. 16  
   2.5 Ethical Issues ....................................................................................................................... 16  
   2.6 Qualitative data analysis ...................................................................................................... 18  
   2.7 Criteria in business research .............................................................................................. 18  
      2.7.1 Credibility .................................................................................................................... 19  
      2.7.2 Transferability .............................................................................................................. 19  
      2.7.3 Dependability .............................................................................................................. 19  
      2.7.4 Confirmability ............................................................................................................. 20  
   2.8 Theory selection ................................................................................................................... 20  

3. **Theoretical Frame of Reference** ............................................................................................ 21  
   3.1 Why motivation is important ............................................................................................. 22  
   3.2 Physiological motivation .................................................................................................... 23  
      3.2.1 Two factor Theory ....................................................................................................... 24  
      3.2.2 Theory X and Theory Y .............................................................................................. 25
Motivating non-core employees

Susanne Midbeck and Zebastian Nylund (2011), Linköping University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.3 Cognitive motivation</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3.1 Goal-setting theory</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4 Behaviorist motivation</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4.1 Incentive theory</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5 Job characteristics model</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6 Towards a contemporary framework</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7 A framework conclusion</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The case of the Ericsson unit SITE</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1 Introduction</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2 Interview outcomes</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.1 Introductory interview findings</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.2 Respondents general view on motivation and performance</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.3 Employees physiological needs and motivation</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.4 Employees’ cognition and motivation</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.5 Employees’ behaviorism and motivation</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2.6 SITE’s importance to Ericsson</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Analysis</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1 Non-core employees’ motivational needs</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2 Motivation through goals</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3 Incentives as non-core employee motivators</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4 SITE as part of “the bigger picture”</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Conclusion</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bibliography</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appendix</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Research process (authors own model, 2011) ................................................................. 6
Figure 2: Theoretical framework (authors own model, 2011) ........................................................... 21
Figure 3: Theory X and Theory Y (Chapman, 2002, p. 1) .................................................................. 27
Figure 4: Job characteristics model (Hackman, Oldham, 1976, p. 256) ............................................... 33
Figure 5: Concluding highlights of employee motivation (authors own model, 2011) ...................... 38
Figure 6: Ericsson partial BNET structure (Ericsson AB, 2011, pp. 2-3) ............................................. 40

TABLE OF TABLES

Table 1: Interview participants ........................................................................................................... 41
Table 2: Motivational factors of physiological motivation ................................................................. 62
Table 3: Motivational factors of goal-setting practices ..................................................................... 66
Table 4: Incentives and motivational factors ..................................................................................... 70
1. Introduction

"Staying motivated through change is a challenge to all of us in today’s turbulent world”

Barbara Horsfield, AVA CEO (1998)

1.1 Motivation, a topical business subject

What would you do, as a manager, if you came across delicate information regarding your workforce, unfolding that 50 percent of your subordinates only did the minimum required for them in order not to be fired, and that an entire 84 percent admitted to being able to work much harder?

The statistics above were concluded from a large-scale work attitude study amongst 1500 employees independent from each other, completed by Spitzer (1995). With numbers like these, it is evident that employee motivation is essential for organizational success and managers need to establish factors that motivate their workforce. A manager struggling with figures like those presented by Spitzer might find their solution in employee motivational aspects, but would the same motivational factors be superior for any workforce?

Motivating employees might seem very simple at a first glance. However, it is no coincidence that one Fortune list is named ‘The best companies to work for’ with a focus on employee motivation factors. Motivating employees is highly complex and a difficult task where no organizational environment is alike, nor are any two employees. Therefore, organizational motivation tools are often tailored for specific purposes and organizational contexts. As Google uses one motivation strategy, competing Yahoo might use another, even though employees at the two firms share similar characteristics as they engage their competences in the same industry segment. Moreover, large organizations are not unfamiliar with practicing different motivational tools in different segments of the organization. As IT technicians at Apple might be motivated by having flexible working hours, employees at the financial department at Apple might find that company benefits is what motivates them.
On this note, it is reasonable to believe that employees at non-core units of an organization might be motivated by other factors compared to that of employees working at a core unit within the same organization.

The aspect of motivating employees has become the subject of increased importance as research has shown that high motivation by nature leads to higher employee performance (Clark 2003, Hackman, Oldham, 1976, Hume, 1995, Huselid, 1995, Ramsay et al., 2000, Spitzer, 1995). Traditionally, high performance within organizations has commonly been referred to as establishing employee practices that in a positive matter impact the ‘bottom line’ (Hume, 1995, Ramsay et al., 2000), suggesting that high net profits indicates a high organizational performance. Performance areas are numerous including financial performance, different services such as quality performance and customer services- and efficiency performance (Hume, 1995). As a central aspect in this thesis, regardless of the area of performance, it is assumed that high motivation has a positive effect on performance i.e. the correlation between motivation and performance is positive.

1.2 A change in organizational strategy

Industries and markets are today victims of an intensifying competition, which have brought vast and varied changes to companies around the globe (Al-Mudimigh et al., 2004). Significant to this thesis, one change is the growing interest organizations have in extending their businesses with additional and new service offerings (Kowalkowski et al., 2009, Kindström, Kowalkowski 2009). Hunt et al. (2005) means that this interest comes with the intention of creating more attractive and complete package offerings to customers. Suppliers of high-cost capital goods are spreading risks as they are distancing themselves from solely providing physical products and instead move closer to a combination-offering of products and services. The combination seeks to match customers different operational and business needs, also referred to as integrated solutions (Davies, 2004, Windahl, 2004).

As a world-leading supplier of capital goods, the organization Ericsson is one such entity moving downstream into operational services and integrated solutions (Davies, 2004). Davies (2004) means that Ericsson’s traditional strategy has been to not move
any business segment into customers operations network. However, as Davies (2004) declares that more than 80 percent of operators’ i.e. Ericsson customers, costs are in maintenance, operation and administration, it is not surprising that Ericsson has tailored its strategy to better provide customers with integrated solutions. Over time this has resulted in the dismissal and outsourcing of several non-core units, whereas others have been maintained as part of the organization because they contribute to the integrated solution strategy.

When establishing what non-core units to outsource, Ericsson must consider what contribution units have to the complete package or integrated solution offered to customers. Non-core units and its employees provide crucial services in order for the organization to achieve integrated solutions and maintained units are kept within the company because they are important for the integrated solution strategy. It is therefore of great importance to have motivated employees within these non-core units.

Earlier research has been generous in providing motivational theories, which will be presented later in this thesis. However, the balance between contemporary organizations, altering their structural strategy to better fit the package offering of integrated solutions, and existing classic motivational theories, generates a research gap.

On behalf of this study, the authors conducted a literature review on aspects of motivation research and concluded that there is a lack of theories, evidence or thoughts on how to motivate employees in certain units, e.g. non-core units.

1.3 SITE, a representative case

The Ericsson organization is an industry leader in IT- and telecom solutions with several units of both core and non-core character, SITE being an example of the latter. In the fourth quarter of 2010 it was declared that 19 percent of SITE employees felt a low job commitment and low job satisfaction at work, internally referred to as alienated work motivation. The statistics were drawn from an annual survey called ‘Dialog’, completed by all Ericsson employees. Producers, and responsible for data structuring of the survey, was TNS SIFO and as part of benchmarking the data, they also exhibited the IT- and Telecom industry results for alienated work motivation. In contrast to the SITE result of 19 percent, the industry result was only three percent.
SITE’s function contributes with secondary product attributes in complements, services and commodities to Ericsson core products. Nevertheless, while nodes and software are primary products at Ericsson, they would have little or no value without surrounding activities, services and products offered by such non-core units as SITE. In this sense, SITE is part of the integrated solution offering Ericsson provides to its customers but still considered a structural non-core unit. With this in mind, the strategic fit of SITE makes it representative as a case on researching what affects motivation of non-core employees.

1.4 Purpose of study

The main focus of this thesis is on motivation within a non-core unit. The studied single case is an Ericsson non-core unit, SITE. The aim of this study is to contribute to an understanding of what affects motivation for employees working in a non-core unit. More closely, the authors will consider factors that can influence motivation and what ultimately affects these factors.

1.5 Research question

What affects motivation for employees working in a non-core unit?

- How are non-core employees motivated today?
- How would non-core employees like to be motivated?
- How is the motivational gap decreased within the non-core unit?

1.6 Delimitations

As performance is assumed to be strongly linked with motivation, the authors commence that increased motivation will lead to higher performance. Moreover, the study considers a case of present negative motivation and attempted to understand how motivation could be improved from the existing situation. This research is based on empirical data from one business unit within the international organization Ericsson. The empirical data was collected through qualitative interviews. Constraints allowed for a limited number of interviews restraining empirical input. Constraints also limited the
allowed insight in the Ericsson organization permitting only two hierarchical levels of managerial information beyond subordinates interviewed. Additionally, publication was only made available due to censorship of sensitive organizational information.

1.7 Disposition of thesis

The following chapters of this thesis will cover the areas briefly described below:

2. Chapter two is used to give the reader an understanding of the methodological procedure used to derive in the empirical findings, analysis and conclusions of this study. Central aspects are research strategy, design and methods used including acknowledgement of the contemporary criticism.

3. Chapter three presents the theoretical framework of which is to supply a pre-understanding of theoretical approaches used to analyze the empirical findings. Classic theory will eventually be assessed with more recent research findings and develop into a, by the authors, generated model highlighting theoretical motivational aspects used to structure and give meaning to the research findings.

4. Chapter four aims to give a clear idea of the empirical findings. Initially, a presentation of the case study is offered; following are the findings from conducted personal interviews. All evidence was collected from personal interviews. Initially there is an introduction of the case context in order to give the reader a clear idea of the single case.

5. Chapter five takes an analytical approach in finding theoretical meaning in the empirical findings and contributes to the understanding of what affects non-core employee motivation.

6. Chapter six provides a research conclusion and discussion and in final word gives suggestions to further research on the subject of employee motivation in non-core units.
2. Methodology

The authors of this thesis got in contact with Ericsson and more specifically, the managing level of the SITE department in December 2010. As employees indicated feelings of alienation, concerns about declining motivation were proven true in January of 2011 and the opportunity to contribute to strategic motivation restructuring presented itself. As an in-house survey had shown a negative motivational trend, the objective of this study developed into the research question. In order to contribute to the aim of this thesis study, a thoughtful methodology was established. Figure 1 illustrates the abstract chronological order of which this master thesis was conducted and processed. Although the overall research issue remained within the frame of the research purpose throughout this study, it was still necessary to reword the research question as a final phase for this thesis.

![Figure 1: Research process (authors own model, 2011)](image)

2.1 The view on knowledge and reality

Before a methodological approach is presented it is relevant to consider the authors view on knowledge and reality. It is of importance that researchers consider the general philosophical approach, reflecting on ontological and epistemological concerns when developing a research strategy (Morgan, 1980, Bryman, Bell 2007). The view of knowledge and reality is divided into two fields of thoughts, epistemological and ontological. Epistemology seeks to answer what is, or could be, considered acceptable knowledge (Bryman, 2001, Bryman, Bell, 2007). To construct an understanding about knowledge, there are two main research focuses, positivism and interpretativism (Jacobsen, 2002). According to Bryman (2001) positivism is employed when explanations and causes are needed to explain a phenomenon. Within positivism,
different science methods are used when studying the social reality and the result is the explanation of human behavior. The contrast of positivism is interpretativism, also known as the hermeneutic approach (ibid.). The knowledge stimulated from interpretativism, is understanding and interpretation (Ödman, 2004, Bryman, 2001). According to Ödman (2004), the hermeneutic approach consists of four main elements, interpretation, understanding, pre-understanding and explanation. Interpretation is explained as the translation of meanings into understandings, which can affect and change one’s life at a deeper level. The pre-understanding is needed in order for us to understand and is often based on previous experiences and feelings. The last element, the explanation, tells us that one needs to explain it in order to get an understanding, and to explain we need to understand what we are explaining. The epistemological approach of this research is hermeneutic as it aims to understand the phenomenon researched. This goes well in line with Jacobsen’s (2002) suggestion that the hermeneutic approach is focused on individual’s thoughts and actions considering that empirical findings are based on values of individuals.

Ontology deals with what reality is, and what kind of knowledge there is. According to Jacobsen (2002) ontology is the precise study of what the world actually looks like and in turn, how this affects research carried out. Bryman and Bell (2007) claims that the ontological issue concern the nature of social entities. Ontology contains of two main typologies, which are objectivism and constructionism. The view of social entities within constructionism is created from actions of social actors. The view of social entities within objectivism is that entities are objective as a result of a reality that cannot be influenced by actors (Bryman, 2001). This study uses a mix of objectivism and constructivism for the ontological approach. Objectivism is applied as participants communicate internal thoughts in contrast to an external reality. Meanwhile, constructionism is apparent as participants have been part of the reality, communicated thoughts and feelings resulting in change hence influencing reality over time.

2.2 Research Strategy

Bryman and Bell (2007) argues that a research strategy is a much needed and general direction to any business and management research. Not only does the strategy give an
overall direction but it also includes a mapping of the research process. This section
deals with the research strategy based on the selection between four foundations, which
are inductive versus deductive and quantitative versus qualitative research strategies.

In the process of developing the research strategy the authors considered four main
factors suggested by Remenyi et al. (1998), which ultimately influenced the research
methodology: the research question, skill, cost and time.

Firstly, the research problem was overlooked. The problem is characterized by being
phenomelogical for a small group of people, hence very empirical. Secondly, the skills
of the researchers were considered and the extent to which experience and knowledge
would contribute to the research method. The skillset also eliminated possible research
methods where knowledge was not adequate. Costs were not perceived as a great
concern as the thesis client covered most expenses. Lastly, the limited time did
contribute to a large extent of the research methodology, as will be discussed later on.

There are two key approaches to a research strategy, the deductive and the inductive
approach. The deductive approach takes ground in existing theoretical frameworks and
uses these to generate research topics. Bryman and Bell (2007) summarizes this as using
collected data in order to test hypothesis and theories. The inductive approach implies
that theories are the outcome of the collected data. Bryman and Bell (2007) also notes
that it is important to look at inductive and deductive approaches as tendencies of
research rather than hard and clear distinctions, allowing for a mixed research strategy.

2.2.1 The inductive approach

This study was approached with a pre-understanding of the theoretical field of
motivation but with the aim to generate principles from the empirical findings.
According to Remenyi et al. (1998) and Bryman and Bell (2007) such method is
referred to as an inductive study where empirical evidence is analyzed in an inductive
setting to later be the foundation of theoretical production. An inductive methodology is
appropriate where there is no apparent relationship between the phenomenon and
accepted theories. While reviewing literature within the field of motivation, it was
concluded that the field of employee motivation is well covered but nothing was found
to be written on the issue of motivating employees working in non-core units of large
organizations. Consequently, the authors found an inductive approach to be appropriate. Based on Emory and Cooper (1991), the authors established a fact, i.e. declining motivation in the researched case, and searched to answer, “Why is this?” by attempting to understand, “What affects?”. As the study gained ground, a tentative explanation was shaped in line with the inductive approach and according to Emory and Cooper (1991) the tentative explanation is reasonable where it answers “Why is this?”

2.2.2 The qualitative research strategy

Remenyi et al. (1998) defines qualitative research as research findings that are difficult to transfer into numbers and where a more narrative approach is better suited. Bryman and Bell (2007) favor the definition by expressing qualitative research as being more emphasized with words rather than numbers and measurements. Qualitative research strategies are also associated with an inductive approach (Boolsen 2007, Bryman, Bell 2007).

Smith (2008) suggests that qualitative research is focused on the personal and social experience of the researched members. The researcher then explores, describes and eventually interprets the data collected from the participants attempting to understand a relatively small selection of participants but in a deep frame of reference. Lee (1999) does however warn researchers considering qualitative research, saying that the research is extensive and intensive, demanding time spent in contextual settings, constant contact with sites and people, and great effort in understanding participants.

As the empirical findings were deducted from personal interviews with case relevant employees, the findings of this study are of a qualitative nature. Moreover, as the findings were to be translated into words rather than numbers, a qualitative strategy was considered appropriate. A dominating qualitative strategy was also favorable as the study was inductive and qualitative data is therefore preferred. The phenomenon studied was also to be documented and described, as participants of the study perceived it. Furthermore, as the authors gained great access to the case studied and its employees a qualitative study was made possible. A qualitative strategy, with an inductive approach, thereby mounted well with this thesis.
2.3 Research Design

According to Bryman and Bell (2007) a research design is the framework for collecting and analyzing data, and generating this into evidence. Scholars agree that there are five major research designs; experimental-, longitudinal-, comparative-, case study-, and the most common form, the cross-sectional design (Remenyi et al. 1998). Comparative and cross-sectional designs require collected data from more than one case. By using a longitudinal design data must be collected on at least two separate occasions. Experiments are often reliant on observations that are later transformed into numbers or measurements. Experiments are also known to be structured in such a way that they allow for replication (ibid.).

To achieve the thesis purpose and collect the relevant data the authors have used a qualitative single case study design to enrich the empirical findings and provide for greater case understanding. Data was collected from one case over a period of time; this research strategy is preferable because it contributes to an in-depth and more detailed examination of the single case (Bell, 2006, Dul, Hak, 2008, Dyer, Wilkins, 1991).

2.3.1 The single case study

Eisenhardt (1989) and Merriam (1994) propose that a case study is an appropriate design when the purpose is to create an understanding of dynamics within a single setting. Bryman and Bell (2007) develops the definition suggesting that the case could be a single organization, a person, a single event or a single location. A case study usually combines different methods when collecting data such as observations, documents and interviews (Merriam 1994, Eisenhardt, 1989). The single case study is a study where only one case in its contemporary, real context is chosen and data is obtained from the case and later analyzed to eventually generate into results for the researcher (Dul, Hak, 2008). Naturally, the framework for a single case study is attentive to that of a case study. Becker (1986) suggests that the aim of the case study is to contribute general theoretical statements about regularities in a social setting. Remenyi et al. (1998) ads to the aim when stating that the purpose of the case study is to
provide a more detailed and multi-dimensional image of a particular situation that is studied.

A case study can entail single or multiple cases and according to Eisenhardt (1989) it is preferable to study multiple-cases. She believes that less than four cases make it difficult to generate theories. According to Bryman and Bell (2007) multiple-case studies allow researcher to compare different cases and encourage researchers to reflect on what is unique. In contrast, Yin (1984) claims that using a single case study design is preferred, as it will observe events when there are no possibilities to manipulate significant variables. Dyer and Wilkins (1991) explain that using a single case can contribute to an in-depth study instead of focusing on considerable but thin data. In continuing their argument they claim that researchers find new theoretical relationships when they cautiously study a single case, this being the essence of case studies since it contributes to questioning old theoretical relationships, hence providing groundwork for theoretical development. Therefore, it is suiting to use a single case study for this research, as the authors found no evidence for existing research on the subject matter. By conducting a single case study, more depth is contributed as opposed to a multiple case study processed within the same time frame. Moreover, Dul and Hak (2008), claims the single case study to be a good fit with the qualitative research approach.

One restriction of case studies concerns generalization possibilities. Barlow and Hersen (1984) argue that it is not always possible to generalize from a case study. In contrast, Denscombe (1998) argues that the collected data needs to be simplified to the study, so it can fit the overall picture, applying them to other cases and then generalizing the findings. In answer to this, the findings from this study do not prioritize generalizability but rather transferability in line with the criteria chapter below, and portray an understanding of what affects motivation for non-core employees.

Practicing a single case study, only researching a single entity, was based on the nature of the client assignment description and also the time limit. Furthermore, the design choice was fitting with the qualitative strategy and inductive approach as the developing of theoretical framework presents the possibility of generalizing theory and results if they can be applied on other cases.
Using a single case study method contributed to deeper understanding of the problem instead of a dominating quantitative method with multiple cases that would have resulted in rather thin data due to the time restriction. The SITE department was chosen as a result of previous contact regarding the subject of employee motivation. Nevertheless, SITE is representative of the research problem considering its size, organizational contribution and contemporary issues. Furthermore, as Ericsson is a large organization, other secondary product attribute departments at Ericsson can potentially make use of the results of this case study.

The authors were allowed access to many sources of information and gained great insight in the SITE department. Thereby, a qualitative, in-depth method could be approached and allowed for a single case study to be conducted.

### 2.4 Research Method

According to Bryman and Bell (2007) a research method is the technique used for collecting the data used in a research. Academically there are four main qualitative research methods used; interviews, document studies, observations, and diary methods. Interviews can be conducted face-to-face, by phone and via e-mail and are used to collect large amounts of evidence. An interview is the best technique to use for an intensive study of individuals (Merriam, 1994). Document studies involve all types of visual objects such as photographs, videos, websites, images, statistical information, official reports etc. As a principle, documents studied should always be from earlier studies or conducted in such a way that they were not produced on behalf of the researcher request (Bryman, Bell, 2007). According to Remenyi et al. (1998) observations are used when deep understanding of individuals’ actual behavior and process in a certain context is needed. A diary method is a collection of evidence through data collection of on-going experiences (Bolger, et al., 2003). Regularly this method involves keeping a diary and recording daily events. The methods can be of various qualitative or quantitative natures or a mix of the two (Kidder, Fine, 1987).

By applying a qualitative method, using interviews as the primary data collection method, Eisenhardt (1989), Gersick (1988) and Harris and Sutton (1986) agrees that a
foundation for generating theory is expressed. In conclusion, the interview method favors the inductive single case study research methodology.

2.4.1 Interviews

Interviews are a special form of a unique social interaction with the purpose of collecting information. According to Bryman and Bell (2007) an important data collection strategy, for both qualitative and quantitative research, are research interviews. Most commonly, interviews are used in qualitative research because they generate deep understanding of a phenomenon within a context (ibid.). Distinguishing between different interview techniques, standardized and unstandardized interviews are considered to be the most common forms and terms (Merriam, 1994, Remenyi, et al. 1998).

When using standardized interviews, also known as structured interviews, the question and response options used by the interviewer(s) are formulated in advance and hold the same context of questioning for all the respondents. At times, even the answers are limited to a set of options for the interviewees (Merriam, 1994, Bryman, Bell, 2007). In contrast, an unstructured interview, also called unstandardized, do not have questions that are formulated in advance. In some cases, the interviewer uses a list of topics, but overall, it is an informal style of questioning and the questions usually differ from one interview to another. As a mix of standardized and unstandardized interviews there are semi-structured interviews. This technique is used when certain information is needed from all respondents (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Some context is general and predefined as main questions for all respondents, but it can also mean that the interviewer can allow the respondent to speak more freely around certain issues. Bryman and Bell (2007) addresses the semi-structured interview as being flexible and often very favorable for the interviewer.

This thesis allowed for deep insight into the case studied and granted opportunity for extensive group- and individual contact. As a result, the authors found it fitting to conduct qualitative semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews were found to be appropriate due to their structure, which allowed the interview to stay within relevant topics but still be flexible in order to allow unanticipated information to be contributed by the interviewees. Another advantage with the semi-structured technique
was that it allowed the researchers to approach dissimilar participants differently and still cover the relevant fields of the research.

Collecting information through interviews requires asking contextually relevant questions to retrieve meaningful and qualified information. An unstructured interview comes with advantages and disadvantages. One advantage using open questions is that the respondent can give any answer that comes to mind, as response options are not present to limit responses. Bryman and Bell (2007) however accuse the unstructured interview to be time-consuming and demanding extensive work when structuring and handling the data. A structured interview is beneficial because of its uniformity, which makes it easy to quantify the research information retrieved. However, due to the lack of flexibility in the structured interview researchers are unlikely to find unanticipated research evidence (Breakwell et al. 1995). There is also criticism directed towards the semi-structured interviews. Because they allow respondents to answer freely, interviews often results in an abundant amount of information leading to extensive work of filtering findings in the search of relevant research evidence (ibid.). Due to the time limit for this study, the semi-structured interviews were most favorable to use. To maintain responses relevant, the semi-structure was conducted in such a way that the field of motivation was not disregarded of at any time (see appendix 1). It should also be noted that the authors realized the risk of some information falling outside research findings as a result of time shortage and partially structured interviews.

In conducting reliable interviews, Merriam (1994) points to the skills of the interviewer where she states that any interviewer must have excellent communication skills in order to gain the most out of an interview. Communications skills involve empathy, having good contact with the respondent, having relevant questions and the ability to listen attentively. If the interviewer does not possess these skills, procedural problems can occur. Procedural problems involve the respondent finding a question difficult to answer, and/or when the respondent give answers to the questions he/she thinks are appropriate rather than based on factual. As a tool to avoid these issues, probing can be used. Probing is a way of following up on unclear questions and answers in order to reach more comprehensive information from the interviewee (Bryman, Bell 2007, Merriam 1994). In answer to this, the authors used a method where questionable or short answers where considered once the interview was officially over. If there was
reason to extend an answer, the respondent was asked to assess the question again and the recording was resumed.

Dexter (1970) has observed the interaction between the interviewer and the respondents and argues that there are three variables that determine this relationship. The first variable is the interviewer's own personality and skills. The second variable concerns the respondent, its attitudes and orientation and the last variable is how the parties define the situation. He believes that the interviewer, in order to avoid/minimize errors, should be neutral and non-judgmental.

As a total of eleven interviews were completed for this study, one priority was always that participants felt comfortable and unstressed. The authors never questioned a response nor made assumptions when quoting and assessing interview findings. To enhance the mood of participants feeling comfortable and unstressed, all interviews were held at participants' workstation offices, in a closed setting and with enough scheduled time to leave room for any discussion at the end of the interview. The interviews were recorded and converted into MP3 files. Once they had contributed to the empirical findings of this study they were uploaded to a password protected USB memory stick. This method eliminated the transcribing work, and with risk of being criticized, the authors found that it was the most time efficient, reliable and participant anonymity guaranteeing procedure. However, as suggested by Breakwell et al. (1995), not transcribing interview findings might question the reliability of a study as information can be overlooked. Additionally, as interviews were held in Swedish, quotations in the empirical chapter are translations conducted by the authors. Although the authors possess the adequate skill level of translating Swedish to English, it should be considered that some proverbs or direct word translations runs the risk of being misinterpreted or losing contextual meaning.

The interviews made were of explanatory nature that, according to Darmer and Freytag (1995), is the most accurate interview type when using semi-structured interviews. Explanatory interviews are distinguished in the way that they generate knowledge on a subject unknown or vaguely familiar to the researcher. Furthermore, they contribute to gaining greater understanding of the contextual issue and are able to generate theories within this certain field.
2.4.2 Selection of Research participants

As the authors were allowed access to the SITE unit and its employees it created, not only great insight, but also facilitated execution of the interviews. As the unit employs between 40-50 employees, a valid number of eleven interviews were conducted. SITE is located at two geographical locations and as a result, six interviews took place in Borås and the additional five were conducted at the office in Kista. It was important to include a similar number of interviews from both locations, as the number of employees is comparable in Borås and Kista. The participants of the case study within the SITE unit were selected to be representative of different levels and segments of the unit. In addition, the gender mix was also fairly distributed with seven men and five women. Having a diverse mix of employees allowed for a broader perspective and enticed participants to discuss both their internal segment but also other segments of SITE. As a result of having great access to the case unit the selection of participants was made simple as participants had the time to schedule interviews and spend the time needed. In the selection process, the time concern was a very decisive factor. The researchers made the selection of the participants of this study freely. However, the contact person at Ericsson directed choices to get a broader perspective from employees at different positions. Involving the contact person was a decision based on the lack of time, however, with additional time to the assignment, it would have been beneficial to observe employees and select participant based on observations in contrast to the actual method used.

2.5 Ethical Issues

In their book, Bryman and Bell (2007) looks to four main areas of ethical considerations when conducting business research. The first area deals with ethical issues ensuring that there is no harm to the respondents that participate in research e.g. mental breakdowns or jeopardizing participants security. It is widely agreed upon that qualitative research should be carried out in such way that participants, and their contributions, maintain anonymous and at times even confidential. The second area deals with ethical considerations regarding the lack of informed consent. The participants need to have necessary information about the research, and its process before they participate. This
Motivating non-core employees
Susanne Midbeck and Zebastian Nylund (2011), Linköping University

gives the participant a choice of being involved, and the opportunity to chose whether or not to participate in the research. The third ethical area concerns the privacy of the participant and is related to the second area, to inform consent. The participant needs to understand what the research regards, and what the involvement in the research can lead to in terms of privacy. Bryman and Bell (2007) gives the following guideline in consideration to ethical concerns of qualitative research:

“The objectives of any study do not give researchers a special right to intrude on a respondent’s privacy nor to abandon normal respect for an individual’s values.”

Bryman and Bell (2007, p. 139)

The fourth area regards unethical deception that occurs when researchers are not honest about what type of research it is.

The authors of this thesis have taken the ethical issues into great consideration and by all means aimed at avoiding interactions that could result in ethical issues being raised. In this sense, the anonymous nature of all interviews is of great importance. Additionally, empirical findings are presented in a way maintaining participants anonymous. To further ensure anonymity and as mentioned earlier, the authors chose not to publish interviews in their initial context but only convert them into MP3 files and add them to a password protected USB memory stick. It was also ensured that all participants were informed about the nature of the research and its purpose. Respondents were informed about how their participation would be dealt with and their right to dismiss any information they had communicated as long as the authors were informed prior to research publication. Nevertheless, it is reasonable to believe that participants would not communicate interview input that potentially could hurt them or question their loyalty to the organization. Therefore, transcribing findings into documents was considered a liability, hence, declined by the authors.

It is also important to point out the positive aspects of keeping the interviews anonymous. The authors sincerely felt that it invited participants to be more open, honest and elaborating in their responses. This fact of course made anonymity
confirmation of even greater importance and could to some extent respond to criticism of respondents not being honest or giving complete answers.

2.6 Qualitative data analysis

Bryman and Bell (2007) describes a general business research methodology strategy as a framework that can be applied as guidance for data analysis. They claim that there are two general strategies for analyzing qualitative data; analytic induction and grounded theory. A researcher using an analytic induction strategy seeks a universal explanation of a phenomenon by using tentative explanations i.e. hypothesis. The most well known strategy for analyzing data is grounded theory. Strauss and Corbin (1998) describe grounded theory as theory that has been more or less established on the grounds of vast data collection and analysis within the field of research.

This research uses a combination of analytic induction and grounded theory. As mentioned earlier, the empirical findings have driven the study forward but the authors have been persistence in not developing hypothesis as it could direct data analysis and alter the outcome of the study. Grounded theory has been looked at as a framework, of the theoretical approach, though, not as a determinant when analyzing data. In this sense, the authors have built a typology in the pre-understanding of theoretical framework and used this as a tool to analyze the empirical findings from the qualitative data.

Bryman and Bell (2007) also contends that an important stand to make in business research method, especially qualitative, is the level of analysis. The most recognized levels of analysis are individuals, groups, organizations and societies. The level of analysis of this study is a grouping of individuals and how these groups form a motivational relationship with their organization.

2.7 Criteria in business research

There are several varied views and thoughts on which criteria is the most suitable when determining the quality of a business research. Lincoln and Guba (1995), Marshall and Rossman (1995), Gummesson (1991) and Remenyi et al., (1998) refer to four main
criteria to be used; credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Though the method is a less structured and more complex to use in comparison to other methods, Remenyi et al. (1998) recommends it on the basis that a qualitative case study will contribute to large amounts of soft data, and this method aids to give a deep understanding of the behavior studied i.e. the soft data. Listed below are the criteria followed by the researchers when conducting this thesis.

2.7.1 Credibility

Scott (1990) considers credibility to measure to what extent a research and its findings are free from errors and misrepresentation. Bryman and Bell (2007) claims that credibility measures its trustworthiness in how acceptable the research and its findings are in the eyes of someone else. In order to reach a high degree of credibility, this research was conducted according to strict methodological guidelines and interviewees were given the opportunity to revise their interview material before publication.

2.7.2 Transferability

Transferability assess the external validity of a study and according to Remenyi et al. (1998) it highlights the importance of how well a phenomenon or case studied can be transferred into a broader scope and to what extent the findings can be applied onto similar situations in a similar context. Marshall and Rossman (1995) suggest that although qualitative studies are not generalizable, their findings can still possibly be transferable. The SITE unit at Ericsson is representative of a non-core unit. The core work at Ericsson is heavy in technology whereas the SITE contribution is less focused on complex technology. Nevertheless, the SITE contribution is of great importance in the value chain of Ericsson’s integrated solutions, much like similar cases. Hence, the transferability of the findings is positive as the nature of this research deals with everyday assumptions that by standard are represented in any non-core department or unit.

2.7.3 Dependability

Dependability seeks to evaluate how dependable results are, i.e. to what extent another researcher would find results to correspond with this research. Remenyi et al. (1998)
refer to dependability as the possibility to replicate the study and its results assuming similar contextual conditions. Bryman and Bell (2007) suggest researchers to structure their studies in such a way that another researcher could replicate it. When writing this study, the authors have dedicated great detail to be narrative in every procedure to ensure dependability.

2.7.4 Confirmability

Remenyi et al. (1998) looks at confirmability as a synonym to the researchers objectivity. This is favored by Bryman and Bell (2007), explaining that confirmability of a qualitative study is achieved when findings are produced without the influence of the researcher. Confirmability can be tested based on how alike findings are compared to a similar study. When writing this thesis it has also been of importance not to overlook data, findings or details and produce findings based on facts.

2.8 Theory selection

The theory selection of this study is based on a pre-understanding of the phenomenon of employee motivation. Theories included in the framework of the pre-understanding were chosen based on a vast literature research. The literature research helped to decide what theories were most accurate and recognized amongst scholars on the subject of motivation. Important was also that theories were still widely accepted and not dated, where scholars had tested the theories and perhaps contributed to more contemporary developments. Theories were also only considered if literature showed that they had some relation to performance as an assumption of this thesis is that motivation has a positive correlation to performance.
3. Theoretical Frame of Reference

The inductive nature of this thesis is a choice based on the lack of similar research on motivating non-core employees and therefore absence of theoretical evidence. Following literature review on the subject of employee motivation in non-core units, the authors of this study concluded that there are no grounded theoretical approaches to what affects employee motivation within non-core units. Nevertheless, it is reasonable to assume that some motivational drivers for individuals, regardless of core or non-core employment, can be deduced from motivational theory. Therefore, existing theory was used to contribute to pre-understanding of the individual motivation phenomenon, as an inductive approach does not exclude partial deductive theoretical methodology.

The theoretical pre-understanding is based on a framework model (figure 2) created by the authors on behalf of Hume’s (1995) suggestion that motivation theory is categorized into three fields of thought: physiological, cognitive and behaviorism. The model illustrates the relationship between relevant theories contributing to greater employee motivation. As an important note, the authors assume that the organizational benefit of employee motivation is that of increased performance, which is also argued throughout relevant literature. However, as the assumption is made, performance is not widely considered henceforth although its relationship to motivation will at times be mentioned. The model was designed as a framework for understanding the authors’ assessment of existing theories related to the research problem.

Figure 2: Theoretical framework (authors own model, 2011)
3.1 Why motivation is important

As a main assumption of this study, motivation has a positive correlation with performance. It is crucial to consider this assumption, as it is the incentive for organizations to practice motivation activities. According to Paarlberg and Lavigna (2010), a majority of recent motivation studies have moved from the traditional exploring of motivation and instead focus on how organizational practices influence the performance of the organization. Scholars have recognized the relationship between motivation and performance contributing to the relevance of making the postulation that motivation affects performance.

Hume (1995) argues that a well-motivated employee will have a greater impact on the profitability of an organization than one that is unmotivated. In line with this, Ramsay et al. (2000) suggests that although there are several factors having a direct effect on performance, motivation shows the greatest relatedness to how well an organization performs. Clark (2003) develops this input proposing that performance gaps are generated when organizations fail to assess issues within “the big three” which are: knowledge and skills, motivation and organizational barriers. Performance gaps are confirmed when efforts does not result in the performance level resources allow it to achieve. Clark (2003) means that work motivation is crucial to avoid these gaps as motivation creates goal-directed performance and maintains performance within the field of the goal to be reached. Spitzer (1995) addresses motivation as a divided field of research consisting of motivators and demotivators. Based on his argument, it is not enough for an organization to simply apply motivators in order to achieve high performance; it is also of great importance to eliminate demotivators. Huselid’s (1995) contribution to the relationship between motivation and performance is unambiguous:

"The effectiveness of even highly skilled employees will be limited if they are not motivated to perform..."

Huselid (1995, p. 637)
Hackman and Oldham (1976) are also very distinctive in their assessment of motivation and motivators as they argue that employees experiencing motivation will contribute superior efforts and performance to the goals of the organization.

These references are supported by many other academics arguing that motivation has a direct effect on organizational performance. The collected view is that individual performance can be improved by using different motivational incentives, which is an essential assumption for this study.

### 3.2 Physiological motivation

The physiological approach of motivation assumes that all individuals have a set of innate needs and are motivated to act in a behavior with the intention of fulfilling these needs (Hume, 1995, Biehler, Snowman, 1997). Maslow, Herzberg, McGregor, McClelland and Alderfer are well known for their recognized contributions within this field. Maslow’s theory of hierarchical needs argues that every individual has a set of essential needs prioritized according to primary and secondary needs of existence (Maslow, 1954). Herzberg developed the two factor model also known as the motivation-hygiene theory. McGregor’s contribution is known as theory X and theory Y and concerns management impact on employee motivation. McClelland argued that individuals have three needs of primary importance, which are: need for achievement, affiliation and power. Lastly, Alderfer introduced the ERG theory suggesting that individuals are motivated to act in a certain manner in order to be satisfied. Satisfaction is in turn reliant on three needs, existence, relatedness and growth (Hume, 1995).

This field of the framework considers the theoretical approach of Herzberg and McGregor. Classic motivational theory including contributions by Herzberg, McClelland and Alderfer is to a great extent based on findings by Maslow (ibid.). Maslow’s theory is widely criticized for e.g. being too hierarchical, and the remaining scholars have several overlapping aspects in their theoretical findings. Therefore, Herzberg two factor theory was found to be most appropriate as it includes both intangible and tangible factors. McGregor’s management theory on motivation was chosen to expand the opportunity of finding managerial factors that can have an impact on employee motivation.
3.2.1 Two factor Theory

Partly constructed on Maslow’s theory of motivation, Herzberg developed the two factor theory, also known as the motivation—hygiene theory in the late 1950’s (Herzberg, 1959). Based on a literature research, Herzberg concluded that there was a severe lack of knowledge in the field of motivation. As a result, Herzberg found it necessary to conduct a research where participants were asked to identify factors that stimulated job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction with the motive to explain employee motivation (Hume, 1995).

Based on his work, Herzberg (1993) concludes that there are certain aspects in every work environment that, if fulfilled, will prevent employees from being dissatisfied. Commonly, these are referred to as basic needs and if fulfilled they achieve the basic foundations for employees to not feel dissatisfaction. Herzberg calls these factors hygiene factors and argues that without hygiene factors, contributing to the basic needs of employees, job dissatisfaction will never be overcome. On behalf of this argument, Herzberg (1959) suggests a number of hygiene factors including:

- Organizational policies
- Supervision of work
- Relationship with manager(s)
- Work conditions
- Compensation
- Relationship with colleagues
- Organizational culture

Hygiene factors are not tools capable of creating job motivation; hence they cannot create job satisfaction but only prevent dissatisfaction (ibid.).

Instead, Herzberg (1959) means that job motivation is created through motivation factors, which are separate and independent from hygiene factors. Motivation factors spark job satisfaction and according to Herzberg, when motivational factors make a positive change in job satisfaction, it will also improve individual job performance. Suggestively, typical motivation factors might be:
Motivating non-core employees
Susanne Midbeck and Zebastian Nylund (2011), Linköping University

- Achievements
- Recognition
- Work itself being challenging
- Responsibility and independence
- Advancement opportunities
- Personal growth

These factors answer to the need of employee self-fulfillment, self-actualization and stimulate individual growth. Such needs are of great importance in the two factor theory, where employees must be satisfied with what they produce and how their performance is evaluated in order to be motivated (Hume, 1995).

Herzberg’s two factor theory suggests that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not two opposing forces where one increases as the other decreases, instead they are independent phenomena alternating according to their own cycles (ibid). Herzberg (1959) means that managers must consider both factors in their quest for worker motivation and not rely on change in one single set of factors. Another important distinction between hygiene- and- motivation factors that managers need to consider is the contextual extent. While hygiene factors often are exercised throughout the entire organization, motivation factors are individual measurements of employee satisfaction. In other words, unit managers might have little control over hygiene factors making motivational factors of great importance to generate job satisfaction. Furthermore, the importance of hygiene factors decreases as motivational factors are enhanced. Although hygiene factors can never be completely disregarded for, an employee experiencing great motivational factors will be more likely to accept a lower quality in hygiene factors (Herzberg, 1993).

3.2.2 Theory X and Theory Y

Much like Herzberg, McGregor developed his theory based on the findings of Maslow. McGregor’s (1960) contribution to the field of physiological motivation theory is known as Theory X and Theory Y, which is based on analysis of motivation at the workplace. With his theory, McGregor suggested that there is a direct link between managers’ way of handling their workers and employees work motivation (Hume,
1995). Fiman (1973) claims that McGregor based his theory on a firm belief that managers’ actions derive from a set of assumptions about their employees, mainly related to trust. These assumptions lead organizations to practicing one of two different managerial attitudes; one leading to low employee motivation, because employees feel devalued and untrusted, and one leading to high employee motivation where employees feel that they are valued and given responsibilities because they are trusted (McGregor, 1960).

Theory X aims to show the effects of managers closely supervising their subordinates, i.e. an elitist management approach. This theory assumes that the individual employee is fundamentally lazy, dislikes work tasks and avoids working whenever possible. Managers therefore grow great concern and tight control practices develop where supervising employees’ work is prioritized. Theory X grants that employees lack ambition and avoids responsibility and accountability situations, and will at times only show motivation when there are incentive programs involved (Hume, 1995). Disciplinary actions from managers are common and inflate existing distrust between employees and managers as employees constantly are punished and managers feel that employees are only at work to earn a salary and do as little as possible in order to do so (McGregor, 1960, Hume, 1995).

Supporting McGregor (1960), Chapman (2002), means that theory X leadership is very demotivational and counter-effective for employees suggesting it does not generate any individual development, having the effect of creating a very depressed organizational culture. Instead, as represented by the “X” (see figure 3), employees are not encouraged and motivated by management and the relationship does not stimulate an environment where employees are encouraged to have inputs and benefit the organization (ibid).

With Theory Y, McGregor tries to illustrate what happens when the managerial empowerment is alternated to that of Theory X. Theory Y explains the motivational results of managers showing belief and trust in individual employees and believe employees are ambitious, motivated, have self-control, are willing to take on responsibilities and in fact enjoy their job and its tasks (McGregor, 1960). Under the right circumstances, managers practicing Theory Y will portray their confidence and trust in employee dedication to work duties, creativity and accountability. In return,
McGregor (1960) claims that employees will feel more dedicated to their work and employees will experience increased motivation as they feel empowered by the responsibility and internally realize their self-actualization. Theory Y finds that managers need to develop a more employee-friendly work environment to encourage employees and motivate them. Suggestively, Hume (1995) states that by allowing employees to be a part of decision-making and having good employee-management communication are practices embraced by Theory Y management. Such environment also allows for individual development, which according to McGregor is crucial for any organization (McGregor, 1960, Hume, 1995, Chapman, 2002). Theory Y creates the basic foundation to let employees channel their thoughts and ideas within the organization. Although management sets the framework for employee tasks, it allows for greater achievements and continuous improvement in the organization (Chapman, 2002).

![Figure 3: Theory X and Theory Y (Chapman, 2002, p. 1)](image-url)
In line with the advances of managerial motivation theory, Grant et al. (1994) argue that the development of theories has led to a production of tools that bridge the two approaches of Theory X and Y and allows for managers to adapt aspects from both approaches as a result of a more dynamic organizational environment. However, as argued by Hume (1995), managers will find their nature of beliefs belonging to one of the schools of Theory X or Theory Y, and can from this standpoint only import aspects from the other theoretical school.

3.3 Cognitive motivation

Biehler and Snowman (1997) believe that cognitive interpretations of motivation are compelled when human behavior is affected by the way individuals view themselves and their environment. Contribution to the cognitive motivation theory mainly comes from Tolman, Vroom and Locke and Latham. Hume (1995) suggests that Tolman’s and Vroom’s cognitive theories are not based on needs but rather on goals and the belief that a certain behavior will lead to an expected performance outcome. Hence, the theories are referred to the category of expectancy theories. Locke and Latham’s (1984) contribution developed the expectancy theories with motivation as the central aspect and introduced a more goal-orientated theory appropriate for this framework. With their findings, Locke and Latham argues that the relationship between cognition, i.e. goal-setting, and employee motivation is evident:

“It is a virtual axiom that all action is the result of cognition and motivation...”

Locke and Latham (2002 p. 707)

3.3.1 Goal-setting theory

Locke and Latham (1984) argues that managers are time sensitive and are therefore not able to always control and keep track of employees’ work. As a result, managers find it difficult to drive motivation in a continuous fashion. In the company of other scholars, Locke, has for the past five decades been a great contributor in developing the goal-setting theory with the aim to provide employees with a guidance framework resulting in employee performance according to work tasks but with a limited amount of
managerial guidance. Locke and Latham (2002) claim that there are four goal-setting mechanisms or functions that actively play part in employee motivation and performance. Firstly, goals focus employee attention towards goal-relevant activities and decreases attention on goal-irrelevant activities, referred to as a directive function. Secondly, setting goals provide an energizing function where employees are more motivated to achieve high goals as opposed to low goals. Thirdly, goals have an affect on persistence. Constraints on resources will have an effect on the work pace and motivation, for instance, goals with tight deadlines will lead to a faster work pace. Lastly, goals influence employee actions informally by generating for example excitement (ibid.).

Suggesting that goal-setting can have a positive effect on employee motivation, Locke and Latham (2002) have also found the need to establish moderators that aid managerial goal-setting practices. Firstly, goal commitment is essential as Locke means that employee motivation relies on how committed the individual is to achieve the goal in question. Goal commitment is facilitated by the importance of the goal to those who are to achieve it but also other stakeholders and self-efficacy, which represents ones belief in achieving the goal. Secondly, feedback is of great importance as it gives employees the opportunity to view their performance level in attaining the goal and adjust to the appropriate conduct in order to attain the goal. The third moderator is the task complexity. Difficult tasks asks for a higher level of skills from employees and naturally, a smaller number of people will be able to achieve goals based on difficult tasks. It is therefore more difficult for an organization to achieve many difficult tasks since the appropriate skill level often is scarce (ibid.).

Latham’s et al. (1988) research on goal-setting theory found that an assigned goal is equally effective on employee motivation as a goal that is set in collaboration with the employee who is to achieve it. However, a goal that is assigned brusquely and has the character of being an order e.g. “Do that by then…” proved to be extremely demotivational and generate significantly lower employee performance.
3.4 Behaviorist motivation

The behaviorist motivational theories, suggests that external factors, so called environment factors, are in direct contrast to physiological theories that look to the internal needs of individuals (Hume, 1995). In developing his definition, Hume (1995) means that the behaviorist theories also are different from cognitive theories since the cognitive process assumes the individuals internal reasoning. Watson, Thorndike, Pavlov and Skinner stand as great contributors to the field of behavioristic motivation theory with the aim of explaining individual behavior as an affect of the external environment (ibid.).

As part of the behaviorist field, radical behaviorism is a theory attempting to understand individual behavior as a result of reinforcing external consequences (Skinner, 1953). This is also in line with Hume (1995) arguing that motivation can cause specific actions in individuals and the intensity of motivation is an important aspect in this sense. Radical behaviorism concerns positive and negative reinforcements i.e. rewards and punishments. Skinner (1953) believed that reinforcements were primary attributes in the shaping of individual behavior where positive reinforcements strengthen behavior and negative reinforcements aid to remove unwanted behavior. By strengthening positive behavior, it is more likely to be repeated and vice versa. Therefore, when rewarding employees due to a beneficial behavior, employees will be motivated to, in a theoretical sense, repeat the appreciated behavior. By punishing or disciplining employees, individuals are demotivated to repeat the behavior resulting in punishment removing behaviors that are not in line with managerial demands (ibid.).

3.4.1 Incentive theory

Skinner’s radical behaviorism motivation theory is regularly considered as one of the cornerstones in the establishment of contemporary incentive systems (Hume, 1995). Incentive systems are considered as drivers to align the individual employee’s self-interest with the overall goal of the organization. Therefore, it is reasonable to consider incentive systems as a motivational tool where a suitable behavior is pulled rather than pushed. Merchant et al. (2007) claim that by using incentive systems, organizations and
managers experience a number of control advantages, primarily, information to employees, employee motivation and employee related issues.

By applying incentive systems to certain organizational operations, governance highlights organizational areas of importance. Such practices channel information to employees and assist in creating employee understanding of what is significant to the organization. Motivation can also be controlled through incentive systems. With the use of rewards, management motivate employees to work hard in order to be able to reach the level that is required to be rewarded (Engellandt, Riphahn, 2011). Employee-related issues are controlled in situations such as recruiting and maintaining attractive and potential personnel. Offering incentive systems that are tailored for the individual, with commission levels and an appropriate base salary, can be very motivating for employees (Merchant et al. 2007)

Incentive systems can be practiced in two different meanings, short-term and/or long-term incentives (ibid.). Short-term incentives are commonly recognized as being of monetary character. However, reinforcements such as appraisal, recognition and responsibility can also be considered short-term incentives and are of great importance according to Skinner (1953) and Locke and Latham (2002). The use of short-term incentives carries the advantage of employees being able to link the reward with a certain performance since there is limited time between the effort and reward presentation (Merchant et al. 2007). Long-term incentives are reinforced over a longer period of time, e.g. one year with the purpose of rewarding employees on their performance for the permanent value of the organization. Consequently, long-term incentives encourage employees to perform in line with the strategic mission and vision of the organization. Additionally, it appeals to employees to maintain their employment and interests in the organization.
3.5 Job characteristics model

Whereas Herzberg’s theory of motivation is based on Maslow’s findings, Lunenburg and Ornstein (2008) mean that Hackman and Oldham provide their work as an expansion on the theoretical motivation work by Herzberg. While Herzberg sought to create “good” jobs, Hackman and Oldham aimed to create an understanding of what a “good” job actually is (ibid.).

Hackman and Oldham (1976) studied individual employee motivation in the search for higher effectiveness and job performance. Through theory testing, Hackman and Oldham’s examination derived into a model explaining the individual internal motivation. The model was eventually named *The job characteristics model*, (figure 4) and employs to systemize and refine the link between job characteristics and the work responses the individual holds. The core job dimensions holds five characteristics, or dimensions, of a job that contribute to three critical psychological states.

When employees experience that the three psychological states exists and are fulfilled, it will result in different positive *outcomes* and promote a motivated internal work behavior. One, or several, core job dimensions affect all the three psychological states. Example of outcomes, when the three critical psychological states are fulfilled, is high internal work motivation, high quality work performance, high satisfaction with the work and low absenteeism and turnover (ibid.).

The three critical psychological states are:

- Knowledge of actual results of the work activities
- Experience of responsibility of work
- Experience of meaningfulness of the work
The critical psychological state of *knowledge of the actual results of the work activities*, is fulfilled when the employee is aware of his or hers performance. To create this awareness the individual needs to attain direct and clear information of the results of their work activities. As job characteristics, the employee has to contain knowledge and understand the effectiveness of his or hers performance which can be expressed as feedback on work from managers (ibid.).

![Job characteristics model](image)

**Figure 4: Job characteristics model (Hackman, Oldham, 1976, p. 256)**

The job characteristic of autonomy influences the psychological state of *experiencing responsibility for work*. If employees experience a high level of autonomy, they, usually also create a feeling of strong personal responsibility for the outcome of the work. In other words, the result from their work depends on their own actions such as decisions and efforts based on own initiatives. For an employee to experience responsibility he or she needs to feel accountability for the result of the work (ibid.).
The last critical psychological state is *experiencing meaningfulness of the work*. The state depends on three core job dimensions, which are; skill variety, task identity and task significance. The skill variety is influenced by the diverse activities a person needs to engage in, in order to get the job done and what the job requires. When different activities are used, an employee is able to feel more meaningfulness because the employee must use several skills and excel within the skill area. This in turn affects the feeling of being challenged by the activities, which influences the experience of realizing meaningfulness. The task identity is defined as the degree of participation and completion of a whole chain of work. When an employee can be involved in work from the beginning to the end with a noticeable outcome, the employees will experience more meaningfulness. The task significance is referred to as to what extent the job done has an influence on others. When employees can understand what significant impact their job has on other individuals’ lives and work, the meaningfulness of the work is improved. Psychological meaningfulness of a job is reached when an employee sense that the job tasks are valued and worthwhile (ibid.).

Additionally, one overall aspect of the model that should be viewed as essential is the level of *employee growth need strength*. According to Hackman and Oldham (1976), the employee growth need strength aspect indicates that individuals value personal growth and development differently. This value differentiation affects the reaction individuals hold towards jobs that contain either high or low motivational potential levels. For example, employees with strong growth and development needs will react positively to jobs that can offer a high level of motivational possibilities (ibid.).

### 3.6 Towards a contemporary framework

Although the theories in this research are mostly labeled as classic models and their origin dates back several decades in time, their importance to the field of motivation is still greatly recognized and in no sense outdated. As a result, the authors find it necessary to elaborate on the development of the theoretical framework. Miner (2003) concludes that although other fields of theory have grown in the studies of organizational behavior, motivation is still a central aspect and very reliable in the
Motivating non-core employees
Susanne Midbeck and Zebastian Nylund (2011), Linköping University

crafting of performance models. Latham and Pinder (2005) greatly support the importance of employee motivation as they attain to explain the influence of classic motivational theory on the contemporary employee and work environment. Their initial approach concerns physiological needs including themes such as working conditions, safety, team membership, responsibility, recognition and creative- and challenging tasks, which they find to be widely accepted as factors of motivation. Theory Y and Theory X is still considered to be part of physiological motivation but due to some criticism, the theory’s way of influencing motivation has seen changed. Firstly, Kopelman et al. (2008) concludes that a Theory X leadership style is in most organizational situations classified as dated and inefficient and that a majority of contemporary managers adapt an approach influenced by Theory Y. Haslam et al. (2000) claims that motivation is not in fact influenced by neither a Theory Y nor Theory X leadership style, instead they mean that motivation is achieved through Theory Y, and Theory Y is only applicable when a supervisor and subordinate share the same or similar social identity. Demotivation, or Theory X assumption, applies when social identity is not shared between an employee and manager. Latham and Pinder (2005) support this view as they claim that employees are motivated when they find that the managerial environment is compatible with their self-identity.

In the modern business environment, Goal-setting theory is highly topical as a tool for increasing employee motivation (Latham, Locke, 2002). However, more recent research (Brett, VandeWalle, 1999, Dweck, 1999, Baum et al., 2001) show that the development of goal-setting have established critical aspects needed for organizations to be successful in creating employee motivation. Locke (2001) and Latham and Pinder (2005) raise concerns about employee values and how well these align with the goal set for the employee. The concerns also touch upon personality and identity. The authors agree that goal setting can work as a motivation enhancer but it is important that employees can relate to their goals according to their personality traits and values. Employees that find goals to be incompatible with their identity and values will find it hard to relate to the actual tasks in reaching the goal thus will be unmotivated to reach the goal (Latham, Pinder, 2005). Individual values assist in directing and sustaining a certain behavior. Opposite to needs, values are obtained through experience and cognition; therefore, values are more easily verbalized and have a close relationship to

35
actions since values influence behavior. In this sense, an employee’s values is what leads to actions and goals are the fuel for this mechanism (ibid.). By example, an employee feeling pride and concern for the company success will find that goals capable of influencing the organizational success will align with the individual’s values, hence, lead to motivated actions. Latham and Pinder (2005) claim that with motivation comes individual commitment and in order to utilize on commitment it must be directed to specific and challenging goals. However, in their research, Zetik and Stuhlmacher (2002) found that participants performance was not affected whether they were part of goal setting or not; assumingly then having no impact on motivation.

Locke and Latham (2002) established that self-efficacy is an important aspect of goal setting. Brown et al. (2001) concurs to this, as they considered the link between self-efficacy and feedback they found that employees with high self-efficacy would incorporate feedback, which would increase their motivation. DeNisi and Kluger (2000) agree to the importance of feedback as a motivational tool in goal-setting. They mean that a feedback loop enhances that employees actually learn from results of their behavior. Nevertheless, results from a research by DeNisi and Kluger in 1996 indicated that 38 percent of cases of feedback communication had a negative effect on motivation and performance. In addition, Carver et al. (2000) means that goal failure has a greater positive impact on motivation compare to that of goal success. DeNisi and Kluger (2000) therefore underline the importance of feedback being communicated in a positive nature regardless of failing or successful efforts.

Incentive theory is contemporarily regarded in a similar matter to that of the early school. Recent research has however shown indications of some development even within this theoretical field (Latham, Pinder, 2005). One highly discussed topic is that of organizational justice where Latham and Pinder (2005) argue that organizational justice is a field that controls much of the employee motivation with regards to rewards and disciplinary actions. Organizational justice also touches upon leadership and how it motivates employees. Namely, the focus is that fairness amongst employees and managers must be perceived as fair when it comes to rewards and punishments. Employees feeling unfairly treated, as a result of too little positive incentives or too many disciplinary actions from managers in relation to what their colleagues receive, will feel unmotivated. Latham and Pinder (2005) also relate rewards to theory of goal-
setting. They mean that rewards enhance employees’ self-efficacy, which will lead to greater motivation for future goals and the potential of setting goals even higher. Lee et al. (1997) does however raise concerns about increasing the level of difficulty for every new goal and rewarding goal attainment accordingly. Once a goal is regarded as impossible, a reward e.g. a monetary bonus, can lower employee motivation according to their research.

Recent research shows that characteristics of a job, as presented by Hackman and Oldham (1976), is still of great importance. Latham and Pinder (2005) clarifies that the motivational aspects are affected by the relationship between the job characteristics and the personal values. Gustafsson et al. (1995) agrees on the importance and highlights that the characteristics of a job must be highly considered in order to get an improved performance, satisfaction and motivation. Autonomy is a central characteristic and is viewed with great significance by Latham and Pinder (2005), and according to Wall and Jackson (1995) the level of autonomy affects job performance in a positive way since it assists the time for learning and development. Although Latham and Pinder (2005) finds autonomy of importance they argue that it is only of significance when a job is not routinely.

3.7 A framework conclusion

The pre-understanding of this theoretical framework provides a balance between classical and contemporary assessments of the theoretical field of employee motivation. The field of motivation theory has seen a great number of contributions over the last six decades. Therefore, it is necessary to establish a summary of recognized and accepted theoretical aspects of motivation, as it provides greater depth and a more modern approach to the phenomenon. The three fields used in this theoretical framework i.e. physiological, cognitive and behaviorism, are today considered to be highly valid as tools for sorting up motivational theories (Hume, 1995, Weightman, 2008). In addition to theoretical findings, it can be concluded that the psychological states of the job characteristics model all are found within one or several of the three fields of motivation (Lunenburg, Ornstein, 2008) since job satisfaction and motivation are two of the outcomes of the model by Hackman and Oldham (1976).
The model below (figure 5) is generated by the thesis authors and illustrates a summary of the most recognized factors that affect employee motivation according to theory. The model is a result of the theoretical findings when conducting the theoretical pre-understanding. The highlights consider both classical aspects and the most recent theoretical findings of employee motivation as it aims to give an understanding of what conclusions have been made in previous recognized research. The specific highlights in the model are important, as they have been key findings in researched literature on behalf of this study.

As the model illustrates the theoretical typology built by the authors, it is also the tool used for collecting and analyzing the empirical data. The model represents highlights of employee motivation but does not take into account any specific group or segment of employees. The next chapter will present the empirical findings where the above model was a useful tool of guidance to establish what affects motivation for non-core employees.
4. The case of the Ericsson unit SITE

“No matter what your profession is at Ericsson, you’ll find that your opinions are respected and your contributions highly valued. We have an open, non-hierarchical culture where your individual efforts are important to the global team. We know the entire company will become more successful if you are motivated and inspired.”

Ericsson website (2011)

4.1 Introduction

Ericsson is a global organization exceeding 90 000 individuals in personnel strength and is currently one of Sweden’s largest employers. The organization is divided into five strategic business units: Networks, Multimedia, Global Services, Sony Ericsson and ST-Ericsson, of which the two later are joint ventures. The segment Networks is responsible for developing and delivering mobile and fixed infrastructure equipment and software related products. The business unit has an impressive résumé with revolutionary solutions in both 2G/GSM and 3G/WCDMA mobile technologies. Currently, Networks is a key player in developing and providing the 4G/LTE technology for mobile broadband. Additionally, Networks provide CDMA solutions, xDSL, fiber and microwave transmissions. In 2010, Ericsson net sales reached 203.3 billion SEK of which Networks accounted for approximately two-thirds. Networks is responsible for providing several of Ericsson’s core products and solutions including radio base stations antennas and nodes and software for the antenna systems to be functional for the above-mentioned mobile technologies.

As part of Networks, Supply is a segment consisting of a unit department called SITE, Core and Packet Supply. Within this department, four different units contribute with the supply of infrastructural products to Ericsson specific products. The segment SITE, Core and Packet Supply is responsible for providing customers with everything that is needed to establish core and radio base station sites. SITE, Core and Packet Supply consists of the units Supply Site, Core, Supply (packet) and Site Material Supply according to the figure below (figure 6).
Site Material Supply (SITE) acquires and delivers material needed for clients to have fully functional and reliable nodes and radio base station antennas. The scope of operation is to manage regional supply chains and secure a flexible supply of BNET site products in a timely and cost-effective way. As a result, SITE practices a combination of make-to-order and stock, together with Ericsson external partners. The service scope covers the global supply of site products including phase-out of old products and driving supply chain and supply process improvements. SITE’s portfolio offers standardized products such as housing and power supplies that support Ericsson specific products. As part of SITE’s infrastructural strategy, the unit also supplies customers with everything from complex cables, antennas and battery products to more simple products such as commodities, cement foundations and flooring. SITE does not produce products on its own but acquires merchandise from several first and second tier providers. SITE then assembles a complete cargo of products rendering customer demands and ships them accordingly. SITE also employs positions in product buyers, life cycle, portfolio, supply chain functions, quality and performance, strategy, production and process functions. In total, the unit seeks to have approximately 40-50 employees at any given time. Considering that SITE provides additional material to previously sold Ericsson products, the unit is reliant on the sales of Networks core products. Additionally, although Networks core products would be highly un-functional
Motivating non-core employees
Susanne Midbeck and Zebastian Nylund (2011), Linköping University

without SITE material and products, it is not a virtual impossibility for a customer to acquire SITE products elsewhere. Hence, SITE does not provide Ericsson specific core products but rather non-core products.

Business related environmental changes and organizational restructuring has contributed to a geographical split of SITE between the two Swedish cities Kista and Borås with approximately 450 kilometers between the two locations. SITE management is located in Kista, which is also the headquarters of SITE. Apart from this, the two locations work under the same conditions, in similar environments and with equal rights and obligations to the Ericsson organization.

4.2 Interview outcomes

The following people were interviewed, concerning the motivational level and individual performance at SITE. In accordance with the methodological aspect of participants’ anonymity, respondents were labeled “Person A-K”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identification</th>
<th>Geographical location</th>
<th>Interview time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Person A</td>
<td>Borås</td>
<td>56min 11sec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person B</td>
<td>Borås</td>
<td>46min 51sec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person C</td>
<td>Borås</td>
<td>50min 38sec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person D</td>
<td>Borås</td>
<td>46min 37 sec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person E</td>
<td>Borås</td>
<td>37min 59sec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person F</td>
<td>Borås</td>
<td>52min 59sec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person G</td>
<td>Kista</td>
<td>63min 20sec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person H</td>
<td>Kista</td>
<td>63min 1sec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person I</td>
<td>Kista</td>
<td>31min 57sec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person J</td>
<td>Kista</td>
<td>41min 32sec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person K</td>
<td>Kista</td>
<td>52min 2sec</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Interview participants
4.2.1 Introductory interview findings

It was found that interview participants represented a broad background both in their academic achievements and in their paths leading to an employment at SITE. All had received at least a high school diploma but only five respondents had a higher degree varying from four to eight years of university studies. Considering the geographical split of SITE, only one of the interviewees at Borås had a higher education, whereas all but one at the Kista location had a higher education. The average interviewee had worked at Ericsson for approximately eleven years, however, the span varied for respondents between one and up to 30 years. The present employment at SITE had an average of three years for the employees and again the span varied in length between one year and six years. When asked about the circumstances that led to a permanent employment at SITE, none of the respondents claimed that they were recruited in a headhunting matter by Ericsson but rather employed on what they describe as natural paths from summer employments, staffing agencies or other circumstances.

Responding to the reason why Ericsson was an attractive option for employment, interviewees looked back at several and different motivators. All of the respondents were aware of Ericsson as a brand although their knowledge of Ericsson products and operations varied. Several participants clarified that the reason for employment at Ericsson was not because of Ericsson as a brand offering an attractive workplace; they were employed more on the basis of different circumstances. Person H sums up the general feeling of many respondents:

“I felt comfortable working here after my experiences as a summer intern so I stayed on... The work tasks were enjoyable and relevant. It was not Ericsson as brand which brought me here.”

*Person H (2011)*

Following the questions on background resulting in employments at SITE the respondents were asked to evaluate and consider how long they presently considered themselves stay employed at SITE. Six of the respondents could give a direct answer on how long they saw themselves staying at SITE and from these six respondents not one believed they would be employed at SITE within the three upcoming years and two
were presently looking for other job opportunities. The six respondents with a time limit to their employment at SITE were evenly divided between Kista and Borås. Only one person expressed the need to exit Ericsson whereas the other five were positive to an employment within Ericsson but at another unit. As a dominating reason, these six interviewees claimed that their present role at SITE could not offer additional personal development or challenging work tasks.

“I would stay on for a maximum of two years... Presently there are no work opportunities I feel would stimulate me and be sufficient to the competence I’ve gained here.”

Person A (2011)

In contrast, the remaining respondents showed a willingness to stay with SITE, but could not agree on a unanimous reason. Nevertheless, all expressed a general feeling of comfort. One respondent elaborated:

“I see no end today... it all depends on work tasks and the overall atmosphere in the workplace. I haven’t moved very much [between workplaces] so I might stay for very long or I might move tomorrow.”

Person B (2011)

Another respondent:

“I have no plans [to change jobs]... I’ve been offered another job but turned it down... If I was to leave SITE I would like to stay within the organization Ericsson since I lack a higher degree of education and Ericsson allows you to climb the ladder based on merits.”

Person D (2011)

The majority of the participants found working at SITE enjoyable and only one respondent expressed feeling discomfort. However, this interviewee was currently looking for another employment. Although, the initial answer in most cases was that SITE is an enjoyable workplace, five participants immediately stated factors that at times had lowered their motivation, by example:
“Yes I do [find the employment enjoyable]. I am very comfortable with my work tasks, however I find that the atmosphere has been good and bad... Initially we were a tight group working together and, which I find to be positive, we’ve grown but the organization has not been able to catch up and everything is not good... this leaves room for the cooperation between groups to be better and for the cooperation, between sites Kista and Borås, to be improved. It’s on it’s way to be improved but there are still gaps between management and employees.”

Person K (2011)

“Most of the time but not always [find working at Site enjoyable]... unfortunately the working climate is bad and at times the atmosphere between groups is not good... as a result of great workloads there is a negative trend [in the working climate].”

Person D (2011)

With regards to the grouping of SITE and particularly the geographical split, participants assessed aspects of two groups working under the same brand name but at different places. All interviewees were opposed to the idea of the two locations being a team beyond superficial circumstances shaped by organizational structure and bureaucracy. Respondents meant that although the two locations shared the same goals and attained to work tasks within the same framework, work was carried out differently and competence sharing between the two groups was limited. One respondent referred to the Kista and Borås locations as two unique units and was joined by others in stressing the importance of attaining to the already infected relationship between the two individual teams.

4.2.2 Respondents general view on motivation and performance

Employees at SITE seemed to greatly value intangible motivational situations and found these to be core aspects in order to uphold motivation and performance. Moreover, the foundation of an employee’s interest to work took ground in monetary incentives such as salaries; however, interviewees at SITE still claimed that monetary compensation
was not motivational in the sense that it improved performance. Instead participants meant that their motivation was found in motivational aspects to a high degree related to work tasks. Respondents emphasized features that by some meaning had a direct link to work tasks; one popular feature was the level of freedom at work. Some of the respondent found it greatly motivating to work under a loose managerial control that allowed for greater flexibility in working hours and tasks for the employee.

Furthermore, to be motivated, SITE employees meant that having influence over, and work tasks of value, enhanced motivation as it increased the meaningfulness of work tasks. As argued by some respondents, organizational meaningfulness of work tasks has a great impact of employee motivation, since it provides for challenges and individual development. Respondents that stated the individual development as a crucial motivational factor also expressed the lack of this dynamic within SITE. These respondents believed that there were no opportunities for individual development and viewed their job as purely routinely and constrained by governance functions. Other respondents meant that although meaningfulness of work tasks are important it does not motivate if there is no feedback and confirmation on whether a task was completed in a good or bad manner. The same respondents also point to the need of variation of work tasks to stimulate motivation. They claimed that homogenous work tasks have a negative effect on individual development and function as a demotivator as work eventually will be found boring.

As the groundwork for motivational factors was established interviewees had a collected view on the link between motivation and work performance: the individual level of motivation directly affects the individual performance level at work. According to respondents, a high level of motivation results in extraordinary efforts. Additionally, performance was influenced by the commitment workers feel to tasks and the organization, the amount of feedback received by colleagues and managers, and as expressed by one interviewee:

"If a job is great fun and very very enjoyable it is easier to put in the extra time and effort"

*Person F (2011)*
When asked to make inquiries about what would enhance performance at SITE interviewees initially stated that it is of importance to recognize that the present performance should already be considered to be of high standard. Even though, there was an advertised list of factors that could potentially increase performance. At SITE it was found that employees experienced a shortage of time in several aspects. Due to a high workload throughout the organization there was limited time for work groups to cooperate in an efficient manner with other work groups and managers. Moreover, the 40-hour workweek was not sufficient enough to complete the tasks at hand. One respondent explained concerns:

"More time [needed to perform higher]. I have way too many things thrown at me and too little time. Sometimes I feel like a disposal bin"

Person B (2011)

The lack of time was claimed to constrain the opportunities for individuals to work together, as a result there were difficulties utilizing on team members knowledge at SITE. Some participants meant that in order to perform higher there must be a higher quality of teamwork between individuals and groups. Partly due to poor teamwork leading to a negative atmosphere and partly due to isolated knowledge where performance could be increased if there was a more comprehensible forum for knowledge sharing between SITE employees. In the quest for higher performance participants also mentioned the need of meaningful work, clearer goals, more influence and clearer incentives for the individual and SITE as a unit.

4.2.3 Employees physiological needs and motivation

The majority of participants considered their relationship with colleagues at SITE to be the most innate environmental need in their workplace. Frequent contact with colleagues, preferably on a daily basis, allowed for social interaction and could according to respondents often generate a more positive social attitude at SITE. Colleague interaction was also considered to be the foundation of the atmosphere amongst SITE employees. Respondents were tentative to this fact:
“If I as an individual can influence the behavior of colleagues... then I ask myself what can I bring to the table and what can I do to enhance the well-being and performance of others?”

*Person G* (2011)

On the other hand, negative attitudes amongst colleagues would have a negative effect on motivation. Some of the respondents explained colleague relationships in the current situation at SITE to be, at times, quite strained:

“If there is a continuous negative atmosphere of course you’ll be dragged down with it and as a result, be less motivated... At times it’s been hell”

*Person D* (2011)

As part of colleague relationships, respondents emphasized the importance of feeling belongingness to a group, which in turn asked for colleagues that support individuals in daily work efforts. Belongingness does not however come very easy as pointed out by one respondent who highlighted difficulties in belonging to a group at SITE as a result of the high staff turnover, which made it difficult to form reliable and stable social groups. Another popular innate need amongst SITEs employees was the facilities. Several interviewees praised foremost the open landscape office space, allowing for easy discussions and social gatherings amongst colleagues, appreciated by those valuing colleague relationships as a motivator. Participants discussing facilities as a motivator did however point out that it was not a crucial or foremost factor to achieve motivation.

On the concern about organizational culture it was found that participants valued a number of internal factors. Employees had to have a positive attitude towards the organization and the corporate brand. Apart from the positive attitude for the organization it was also highlighted that a prominent organization culture is permeated with positive attitudes leading to a positive working climate amongst colleagues. There must also be a general feeling that the organization allows for individual creativity and initiative. Moreover, respondents felt that an organizational culture must provide for an internal individual feeling of belongingness and the belief that each individual at each position is truly needed for company success. Several of the cultural features mentioned by the respondents were, according to the same, not to a great extent offered by the
culture at SITE. However, one feature that split the responses was that of a positive mood at SITE. Whereas some considered that the present mood situation was positive, others viewed it as negative. Nevertheless, the same respondents meant that individual and group attitudes at SITE were very cyclical and affected by both internal and external factors.

The majority of employees at SITE found management to be motivational. Respondents communicated that motivational managers should thrive to be inspiring, visionaries, encourage freedom under responsibility and have a coaching function in daily work tasks where feedback is not uncommon. In the pool of suggested existing managerial motivational drivers at SITE, knowledge stimulation, freedom and feedback stood out. Although some participants found these motivators to be present at the managerial level others also comment on demotivational managerial aspects, particularly tight control. Interviewees said that the tight control did not necessarily eliminate an inspiring and visionary leadership style but did however easily excel into a necessity of control by managers having negative effects on motivation.

“My manager is a person that can be highly motivating at time, having visions, being specific, good to work with and very motivating and at other times it’s all about being dominant and controlling... Not allowing employee input making at least me quite unmotivated”

Person H (2011)

Another respondent pointed to the alarming risks of having tight control as it could decrease creativity and initiatives from subordinates at SITE:

“Sometimes a leadership style can be very controlling and does not allow for dialogue, instead it’s just pure monologue from the manager which scares people of bringing up new ideas and questioning managerial decisions”

Person J (2011)
Employee motivational concerns were even more illuminated when the discussion on tight managerial control worked its way down the value chain. Respondents claimed that the tight control found ways to impact even the smaller details at the lowest hierarchical levels at SITE. One interviewee elaborates on thoughts about how such tight control can have a direct influence on daily individual performance:

“At times there is a need to control everything which sometimes results in me letting go because I know that there’s someone else partly doing the work for me, down to the last detail. I tend to lose motivation to work with that very specific project when this happens because I know someone else is looking it over in detail”

Person G (2011)

On the issue of control there was a clear distinction between the perception of how managerial control influences employee motivation between the locations Kista and Borås. No respondents at the Borås unit claimed to experience a managerial control that was perceived as being too tight. On the contrary, some Borås respondents claimed that managers at SITE at times practiced too loose control resulting in a lack of straightforwardness and clarity from managerial level. Respondents at the Kista unit agreeably meant that they were managed with a great deal of control and claimed that the management style could have an impact on their motivation, both positively and negatively, but would not result in any of the interviewees feeling unmotivated. Instead, respondents from Kista pointed out organizational restructuring and management turnover numbers as leading aspects of feeling unmotivated on behalf of managerial related issues.

Even though employees at times experienced too tight control where some meant that managers were “breathing down employees’ necks” a few employees expressed the shortage of the supportive time with managers. Employees were aware of manager workloads but found that there was a great need of more face-time with managers. At the time, the shortage of meeting time led to managers acting less and less as a supportive function to employees.
“A manager needs to be supportive. But there is too little time. When looking at their calendars managers are always fully booked, it is hard to find any time for a meeting with a manager...In summary they are hardly ever available”

*Person F (2011)*

All interviewees found that managers encouraged and allowed them to take on a lot of responsibilities. Additional work tasks outside the boundaries of regular employment were considered popular measures of responsibility for employees at SITE. Respondents also meant that their tasks were not completed by anyone else than those accountable for them, hence, work itself was considered a determinant of the level of responsibility and trust in employees.

“[managers encourage me to take on a lot of responsibilities]. They hand out specific work tasks that go outside of my usual field of work. Managers ask me to fill in for them on meetings and take on managerial responsibilities when they are not available themselves”

*Person I (2011)*

### 4.2.4 Employees’ cognition and motivation

The SITE unit provided a wide variety of goals for its different employees. All interviewees declared to have clear and precise goals according to which they structured their work. Goals were based on what position an employee held at SITE and goals at different positions differed in complexity, length and lifecycles. As suggested by one participant, goal-setting allowed for greater control, a crucial tool in the organizational setting.

“In general I believe we are quite a goal-oriented organization... control through goal-setting is a very central aspect of the organization which by nature makes it very clear what we are striving for”

*Person H (2011)*
Agreeing on the grounds of having clear goals there was a distinction on what impact goals had on employee motivation, between the units Kista and Borås. All of the respondents at the Kista unit declared that their motivation was directly influenced in a positive matter by the type of clear goals described above. As an important aspect, Kista members highlighted that in order for goals to be motivational it had to be apparent that contributed employee efforts generated beneficial results for the organization. One Kista member defined the function of goal setting on motivation:

"My performance is very controlled by goals. The goals which I am aiming for is the driving factor for my performance and works as adrenalin that gives me extra energy"

Person I (2011)

In Borås the majority of participants found that they were hardly, or not at all, motivated by the goals set up for them. Borås employees referred to many of the goals as pure measurements without motivational stimuli. The goals themselves were not described as unclear however the reason why certain goal measurements were established and what their ultimate benefit would be, was highly questioned. Furthermore, goals were related to as a deadline, which increased stress amongst employees. Some goals were also viewed with skepticism as employees felt they were unreachable and when they were not reached employees experienced a feeling of failure and stress.

"We’re killing ourselves with all these goal measurements."

Person D (2011)

There was no distinction to be made between Kista and Borås when discussing important factors of goal establishments. Both units heavily believed that employee participation was the most essential dynamic of successful goal establishment. Participants suggest that being a part of goal establishment creates a forum for all employees to be heard and valued for their opinion amongst managers and colleagues. Employee participation was also said to enhance motivation:
“If I’m allowed to have my input in the establishment of goals, I’ll be more motivated because I’m allowed to have my opinions heard.”

Person F (2011)

As the second most important aspect of goal establishment, interviewees emphasized the importance of recognizing meaningfulness in the goals that were set up. It was argued that meaningfulness was of great importance to achieve high performance and without meaningfulness there was a risk that those working with a goal would not find it to be suitable, which in turn could affect motivation and performance negatively.

“I am motivated by early evidence of meaningfulness to a goal that is communicated as something that is very positive for the organization. That is what motivates me, confirmation of meaningfulness and I believe this is very important when establishing a goal.”

Person H (2011)

As a last aspect of goal establishment, participants were keen to express the significance of finding goals reachable at the time of establishment and during the process of working towards the goal. It was found that unreachable goals were considered to be highly demotivational. One widely discussed aspect of demotivational unreachability was the lack of appropriate prerequisites to attain a goal. Without appropriate requirements present at the establishment of goals, employees claimed that there was little incentive to work hard as it was highly unlikely that the goal would be reached.

A valued aspect of goal setting amongst SITE employees was the feedback received over time. As part of organizational feedback strategy, employees attended an Individual Performance Meeting (IPM) with their closest manager several times a year. Other than feedback the IPM agenda consisted of planning individual work tasks and individual development. All respondents agreed to acquire a continuous flow of feedback, but the type of feedback received was distinctly different between Kista and Borås employees. Borås respondents considered IPMs to play the greatest role in the area of feedback. Much due to the structure employees found that IPMs were stimulating because they allowed for face-to-face time with their managers and covered relevant feedback and individual goal discussions. At Kista, IPMs were not viewed with
the same optimism and enthusiasm. The meetings were not put into the context as a main tool of feedback contributions. Instead other feedback aspects were highlighted such as daily feedback from colleagues and managers. Although existing, there was room for the daily feedback to be improved in terms of spontaneity and concretization. Respondents from both locations also suggested that at times there was a tendency to focus much feedback on negative aspects. Instead of communicating positive feedback on well-performed work the feedback given was more attained to fields of improvement:

“Yes [feedback is given through IPMs]. But in general, positive feedback is scarce, people usually don’t walk up to you, tap you on the shoulder and say; good work. The focus is almost always on improvements.”

Person F (2011)

4.2.5 Employees’ behaviorism and motivation

For achievement of motivation at SITE, the majority of participants found non-monetary rewards to be a superior factor and more useful than monetary rewards. Most commonly, the non-monetary reward consisted of acknowledgement from managers and colleagues. As part of acknowledgement, verbal appraisal and appreciation were mentioned as motivating rewards. However, one respondent signaled that non-monetary incentives only had a short-term performance effect as acknowledgement is intangible and can therefore not increase motivation over a long time. To some extent, other respondents discussing monetary rewards argue in a similar manner. Not only do monetary rewards have a short-time effect, they were also mentioned to carry certain risks. Several respondents meant that individual monetary rewards create an alarming working environment of unfairness:

“I’d rather receive verbal appraisal than two movie tickets for a task that I’ve completed… it might lead to unfairness when one person receives something and others don’t. Maybe that person just had too much to do and can’t meet the deadline on a goal. Therefore, I don’t believe in monetary rewards, or bribes if you will.”

Person D (2011)
None of the interviewees considered that employee punishment would have any sort of positive effect on motivation. However, some respondents made a clear distinction between punishment and constructive negative feedback and found the latter to have a potential of being motivational. In terms of constructive negative feedback as a motivational factor, respondents pointed to an enhanced self-awareness, which they meant facilitated employees understanding of what he or she is doing wrong and what can be improved. In assessing disciplinary actions as a motivator the respondents had a mixed set of beliefs. As the majority considered disciplinary actions to have a negative effect on motivation, those who did not, mentioned the exception of constructive negative criticism that at times could be directly motivational if the feedback was justified.

Existing rewards at SITE were not perceived as a motivational factor according to the majority of respondents. A leading reason for this was the annual bonus, which by interviewees was said to have little contextual relation to their work tasks and responsibilities.

“The bonus is not very explanatory, it is hard to see how I contribute, ok, my efforts have a tiny tiny tiny tiny part in the whole but no, I don’t find it [the bonus] directly motivating.”

_Person A (2011)_

Comments on this issue were similar from several respondents where the collected conclusion was that the bonus itself was a welcomed incentive but the structure on which the bonus was based on was a meaningless system as employees were unable to recognize their contribution to the bonus payment.

### 4.2.6 SITE’s importance to Ericsson

All interviewees initiated pride in being a part of the Ericsson organization. However, only two respondents found that working at Ericsson was considered a social status symbol. When looking at SITE’s contribution to the Ericsson organization a number of respondents argued that their work duties atSITE had a visible impact on the success of Ericsson. Nevertheless, some respondents questioned the importance of their work:
“My contribution to Ericsson as a whole is minimal, my feeling is that, although it’s terrible to say, I’m not the one contributing to an improved ‘bottom line’. I slightly feel insignificant, at the same time if I don’t do my job it will have an impact on the entire chain. But my contribution is not often visualized.”

*Person A (2011)*

Views on how different managerial levels communicated the importance of SITE were again differentiated between Kista and Borås. Kista employee implied that managerial levels from BNET and downwards clearly signaled that the SITE unit had great importance in the Ericsson organization. According to Kista’s respondents, recognition from upper management had been well improved over the last couple of years. This was believed to be the result of SITE taking on more tasks and greater responsibilities. On the other hand, Borås participants experienced little upper managerial understanding of the actual SITE function. Therefore, they felt that the importance of SITE at times was overlooked and suggestively, the SITE unit function was misunderstood. The general employee feeling was however that there was a promotional need for several reasons. Respondents agreed that advertising SITE’s function within Ericsson would decrease cases of misunderstanding of the SITE function. Also, internal Ericsson knowledge of the SITE function and its importance would be highlighted, hence, offering recognition of SITE’s value and its employees. The need to be noticed and appreciated was partly derived from SITE not being a core unit and employees finding it stressful to not be greatly valued in a situation where the SITE function easily could be moved or replaced through reorganization.

“Site material is not a core area for Ericsson and we don’t produce it ourselves and this fact alone makes it less important. At the same time our work is needed for complete installations which makes us important but we are never in focus”

*Person H (2011)*
“I think we speculate a lot concerning the location of SITE. It doesn’t really matter where it’s located which creates a feeling of not being important. SITE might as well be moved to Tallinn next week”

Person F (2011)

As part of recognizing the SITE importance to the Ericsson organization respondents were asked to consider the relationship to other Ericsson units and departments. A general view of the participants pointed to a lack of knowledge of what the SITE unit’s actual contribution was.

“Necessary but bad [other units view of SITE]. Many don’t know what we are doing, and what our reason for existence is. I really believe that. Many don’t know who we are, where we are and what function we fill”

Person B (2011)

Finally, a number of respondents believed that surrounding units found it easy to blame SITE when problems and issues occurred. It was believed that this was the result of surrounding units not fully understanding the concept of SITE and as a result there was a feeling amongst SITE employees of being devalued by surrounding units.
5. Analysis

To simplify the matter of which this analysis was processed, the authors structured this chapter within the three previously discussed areas of motivation theory. To further illustrate analytical findings, each section is concluded with a table of non-core employee motivational highlights.

5.1 Non-core employees’ motivational needs

In the motivation-hygiene theory, hygiene factors are not tools contributing to employee job motivation instead these factors provide the basic needs of an employee to not feel job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1959). Empirical findings showed that employee motivation at SITE is affected by what theory labels as hygiene factors. Topical in this field was that of having a positive atmosphere at the work place. Atmospheres are by nature very intangible and could be argued to fall under the field of organizational culture, which was also widely discussed by SITE employees. Herzberg (1959) refers to organizational culture as a hygiene factor, additionally, in his listing of hygiene factors several variables are repeated in the SITE empirical findings. However, SITE employees found that a positive atmosphere is not only functional to prevent job dissatisfaction, but it also works as a motivator.

Positive atmospheres decrease friction in aspects of e.g. communication and could lead to greater cooperation between colleagues and social work groups. This would also mean that there was a greater foundation for knowledge sharing amongst SITE employees, something that would be beneficial for the organization because employees would find that they develop as a result of interacting with colleagues. A positive atmosphere also allows for greater possibilities for colleagues to work together and collaborate, which would provide for employee belongingness, another factor discussed by respondents as necessary in a positive work atmosphere. At SITE however, belongingness is difficult to maintain in a long-term perspective as the unit has a very high staff turnover. Therefore, providing a good foundation for employees feeling belongingness is even more important at SITE. Because employees form new social groups very often, as a result of people leaving and entering the unit frequently, it is difficult for employees to experience a firm and continual feeling of belongingness.
Moreover, respondents also discussed the tangible factor of open landscape offices. Although this is by theory labeled as a hygiene factor, it could be considered as a catalyst to the positive atmosphere i.e. organizational culture; hence making it an influence on employee motivation. Due to open landscape offices, allowing for greater interaction between employees, communication is increased and allows for a greater extent of employee participation, which could be considered to enhance the feeling of belongingness and collaboration. The hygiene factor of culture asks for employees feeling belongingness, an important aspect in motivating non-core employees at SITE. The extent of feeling belongingness will also have a positive correlation to that of employees feeling needed, which will prevent job dissatisfaction. Employees that feel needed appreciate that they fill a function in the organizational success, hence feeling like they belong with others that also contribute to the success, an aspect that will be further analyzed later on in this chapter.

Summarizing the analytical approach of theoretical hygiene factors indicates that what is by theory considered as hygiene factors preventing job dissatisfaction, is in a non-core unit understood to be highly motivational. The reason why hygiene factors act as motivators is because they create an employee feeling of belongingness, which in turn leads to a more positive job atmosphere and increased motivation, as opposed to simply preventing job dissatisfaction.

On the other side of Herzberg’s (1959) two factor theory are motivation factors, including employee responsibility. According to Hertzberg (1959) and Latham and Pinder (2005), responsibility is an important factor that will affect the individual job motivation. With his theory on how motivation is affected by management, McGregor (1960) agrees and argues that when managers have developed a certain degree of trust in their employees, managers want to give employees greater responsibilities. Also, when employees are feeling trusted, they are more willing to take on a higher level of responsibility, making employees feel more motivated and dedicated to work tasks.

The importance of employee responsibility is also discussed in the model by Hackman and Oldham (1976). In their study, the psychological state of experiencing responsibility for the work is shown as one of the factors that will contribute to a motivated work behavior and several other positive outcomes. All respondents at the
SITE unit stated that they experienced a high level of responsibility within SITE and were motivated by this fact.

Nevertheless, some distinctions were made between the two locations Borås and Kista. Kista respondents declared a mixed view on the matter of responsibility. On the one hand, the interviewees identified additional work tasks outside regular employment as evidential to employee responsibility. On the other hand, Kista employees also constituted to working under tight control. The two aspects of responsibility are rather contradictory, as additional responsibilities would naturally increase motivation. However, tight control takes away much of the perceived image of employees having pronounced responsibilities because employees being controlled will not carry, nor feel, that they have full responsibility, hence, lowering motivation. In addition, empirical findings indicated that Borås respondents were lacking a supportive leadership style. In contrast to Kista, Borås respondents expressed that the managerial attitude was too loose. Borås employees therefore claimed that they at times lacked a straightforwardness and clarity in their daily work. The respondents were well aware of the high workloads that managers at SITE attained to, but the lack of face-to-face time and especially supportive time with the managers was considered a scarcity that easily could enhance the perception of work ambiguity.

In his theory, McGregor (1960) presents two different leadership styles, or managerial attitudes, that will lead to high or low work motivation. Basically, the two different managerial approaches are depending on what degree of trust a manager has towards subordinates. Within this context, trust also has a direct impact on the responsibility carried by employees. A manager that has trust in subordinates will find it easier to give employees responsibilities of varying nature. Chapman (2002) means that Theory X style of leadership will lead to lowered motivation as a result of tight control. Although control was perceived as rather tight in Kista, not all employees at Kista found that the tight control was demotivating. Therefore, it can be analyzed whether tight control i.e. Theory X managerial style has a direct impact on motivation or if its effect act in a different matter.

As the general feeling is that employees are quite motivated by management at SITE, Kista employees are not demotivated by the tight control itself but rather from what it
affects. Management practicing tight control might not be directly affective on motivation, which could be a result of managers and subordinates sharing social identities as suggested by Haslam et al. (2000). This would mean that the employees and managers have similar identities, which leads to a simpler understanding of what affects employee motivation since managers would know what motivates employees because it is also what motivates managers themselves. Instead, tight managerial control affects motivation unconsciously because it influences other aspects of motivation. For instance, tight managerial control could impact employee creativity and initiatives, as suggested by some respondents. This would then take away part of the responsibility given to employees as they are not encouraged to take as much initiative and motivation is as a result lowered. Tight control also risks lowering motivation because employees feel like important matters are so tightly controlled that managers attend to them themselves. In this scenario, responsibility is again the motivational aspect that is lowered. If managers urge to control many segments of employee tasks, employees will feel less motivated because they believe that the ultimate performance result is no longer their responsibility, but rather the managers.

Surprisingly, few respondents expressed their motivational concern in the isolated situation of managerial control. Nevertheless, as responsibility issues were discussed, the majority of employees could trace the negative affects on motivation back to tight managerial control. The heavy workload of managers should mean that there is less time for tight control but at Kista this was not the case. A looser control would therefore generate in a decreased workload and would perhaps even create additional opportunities for employee and managerial face-to-face time. Not so tight control would consequently mean more responsibility for employees (willing to take it) and meanwhile create more free time for managers to attend to employees who feel that they need more face-to-face time with managers. Meanwhile, Borås employees would benefit from a tighter managerial control, as it would provide clarity in guiding employees through work tasks. Tighter control would however result in a heavier workload for managers but in return it could contribute to more task orientated time spent between managers and subordinates.

Hume (1995) suggests that although managers are either X or Y in their leadership style, they can still import aspects from the other. A tight controlling management in
Kista could therefore consider importing more aspects from the theoretical management Y-style. Meanwhile, managers in Borås should consider importing more aspects from the X-style. It is impossible to adapt a leadership style that is compatible with all employees in the aspect of sharing social identities (Haslam et al., 2000). However, it is important to understand that some managerial approaches, although not directly, have a negative impact on employee motivation as it affects aspects that employees highly value in their view on what motivates them e.g. responsibility.

Hackman and Oldham (1976) indicates that an employee has a need for developing and stimulating work tasks, in order to experience meaningfulness of work. When an employee can use individual skills and even excel within certain competence areas, the employee develops feelings of challenging characteristics. From the empirical findings, evidence was found that employees at the SITE unit highly valued their work tasks and their freedom at work. Having freedom empowers the level of flexibility and gives a greater degree of influence in the daily work and decision-making. The respondents agree that, when having more influence over work tasks, it creates more challenging opportunities. In turn, finding work more challenging can lead to individual development. Together, these variables contribute to the meaningfulness of work and SITE employees find motivation in the fact that work is meaningful. Nevertheless, according to respondents, work tasks could be routinely and homogenous.

Hackman and Oldham (1976) mean that a job high on autonomy, leads to a greater experience of responsibility. Latham and Pinder (2005) also mentioned the autonomy level as important but argue that it is only significance when a job is not routinely. As mentioned earlier, respondents recognize the routinely level of work tasks but expressed that this would directly influence the individual development, not the responsibility, which the respondent mentioned to be high within SITE unit. Therefore, having routinely work tasks does not affect employees feeling of responsibility but rather that of meaningfulness of work. Such work environment is potentially dangerous for the meaningfulness and motivation since it is hard to find routine work stimulating over a long period of time, especially for employees who value individual development and challenging work tasks. Little variation in job tasks leads to less individual development, which in turn affects the motivational factor of meaningfulness.
Motivating non-core employees
Susanne Midbeck and Zebastian Nylund (2011), Linköping University

Table 2: Motivational factors of physiological motivation

The analysis of non-core employee motivation within the field of physiological theory is summarized in the table above (table 2). As illuminated in the analysis, the work atmosphere, extent of responsibility and experiencing meaningfulness of work are the cornerstones in non-core employee physiological motivation. The column to the right highlights the variables that are understood to have an effect on the motivational factors. When employees experience that the variables within the column ‘Variables influencing non-core employee motivation’ are fulfilled, they are likely to be motivated by the fitting factors within the column named ‘Motivational factors’; the factors which have
been sought out as being highly topical in affecting non-core employee motivation throughout this analysis section.

5.2 Motivation through goals

Locke and Latham (2002) suggested that goals have a directive function making employees focus on the “right” things. Goal-setting practices at SITE also provided for a directive function as SITE employees mean that their time at work is largely structured around the goals they have. SITE goals seem to provide for a structure that does not allow employees to lose focus. On the same note, employees realize that the goals they work with have the specific function of focusing practices in line with what the organization asks for. Employees believe that the goals allow for greater control, which they find to be suiting for the work they attain to and motivating in the sense that goals serve with a purpose. However, different aspects of goal setting at SITE have different effects on motivation and some distinctions between employees at Borås and Kista can be analyzed further.

Kista employees found that they were motivated by the goals they worked with, which was to be considered as a result of goals being very clear and precise. This further enhances the use of goals as a directive function. Clear goals motivated Kista employees as they provided a clear work-path and structured essential tasks for goal achievement. In the Kista case, goals made work easier as they concentrated employees on what needed to be done and therefore motivated employees because goals made work more easily understood. Locke and Latham (2002) also points to the energizing function of goals and mean that goals must be considered challenging to be motivational. However, Kista employees highlighted that as part of goals being motivational, it was not necessary that they were very challenging but rather that they contribute to the overall goal of the unit or the Ericsson organization. In this sense, the motivational aspect of goals is more closely related to that of actions as suggested by Locke and Latham (2002). It seems that Kista employees find it motivational and exciting to work with goals that contribute to the entire SITE unit rather than the success of just one single employee or one segment of SITE.
In Borås, employees were not as motivated by the goals set up for them. Their feeling was based on the fact that they could not see how their goal achievements would benefit the organization. In other words, Borås demotivation from goals was the lack of knowledge on how goals contributed to the success of the organization, which was what motivated Kista employees in the field of goal-setting. Hence, it can be analyzed that the employees at the two locations are motivated by the same aspects of goal-setting but only one location found that their motivation was stimulated by goal-setting practices.

As one possible assumption, not recognizing the importance of goals does not motivate certain aspects such as excitement (Locke and Latham, 2002) and employees are therefore not motivated to carry out goals. Additionally, where goal importance is not communicated, employees will not only lack aspects of actions but also commitment to goals (ibid.). At Kista, employees perceived goals as important because they benefited the entire organization and they also felt committed to achieving the goals. Meanwhile, their colleagues in Borås found that they were vaguely committed to the goals because they did not recognize the importance of the goals. As a result, lacking commitment further demotivated employees. This approach was also supported by the empirical findings that meaningfulness of goals was perceived as highly important for motivation. Throughout the goal-setting process of establishing a goal and working with it, recognizing the meaningfulness and contribution of the goal was considered crucial.

Although goals tend to be of different motivational extent between Borås and Kista, employees at both locations were perceived to have a high self-efficacy. This is beneficial for the organization as it shows that goals are not perceived as too difficult and the task complexity (ibid.) of goals is motivational for employees. However, concerns were raised about goals that were unreachable due to lack of necessary prerequisites to complete goals. This lowered motivation but did not have an impact on the self-efficacy, as it was believed that the competence of the employee was not what made a goal unreachable. This constitutes to a situation where employee motivation can be maintained high as long as the necessary task factors are available. If physical needs of goal completion are available, motivation can be kept high, as goals are believed to be reachable.
As it was concluded that all participants portrayed high self-efficacy, Brown et al. (2001) highlighted the importance of the link between feedback and self-efficacy. Employees with high self-efficacy find greater use of feedback as they find it to be very motivating. SITE employees claimed feedback to be very motivational but also made remarks on the feedback process, especially on feedback that was of a spontaneous nature and gave appraisal or showed appreciation. Employees thought the overall feedback was adequate but spontaneous feedback could be improved in quality and quantity. Interestingly, the IPM feedback was very appreciated in Borås but not as efficient in Kista. As employees in Borås believe that the managerial control is somewhat loose, the IPM feedback, which is very formal, might be what tightens the control and better directs a goal. Therefore, the IPM feedback is necessary but the content of the feedback does not communicate the importance of certain goals as argued above. Hence, there is a motivation gap in Borås where feedback is very formal and motivational through IPMs but eventually the goals lower motivation, as employees do not see how their achievement contributes to the organization.

On the other hand, Kista employees were exposed to very tight control and found IPM feedback to be less motivational. The tight control leads employees to find goals motivational as they provide structure to daily routines but feedback is not as motivational because they know they are tightly controlled and feedback is given when needed, not when deserved. This might also be the reason why much feedback is focused on negative aspects of efforts. Due to managerial control, positive feedback is not regarded as a motivation enhancer, making it rather useless and when feedback is given it will mostly be of a negative nature. Naturally this has a negative effect on motivation and contradicts the suggestion by DeNisi and Kluger (2000); that feedback should always be of a positive nature and such actions should also be attempted when efforts are not enough to lead to success.

Zetik and Stuhlmacher (2002) found that employee participation in goal-setting establishment did not affect performance. As this research assumes that motivation has a positive correlation with performance, it is the reasonable to believe that Zetik and Stuhlmacher’s findings would also be true for motivation. However, empirical findings show that SITE employees found it very motivational to be a part of establishing goals.
Employees felt that their participation allowed for their opinions to be heard and valued. It gave them the opportunity to structure goals more according to what they believed would be beneficial for the organization and what the individual represents. In this sense, goal establishment participation goes more along with the findings of Latham and Pinder (2005) who believe that for goals to work as motivators, they must be representative of employees’ identity and values. By being part of goal establishment, employees at SITE are motivated because they have an opportunity to communicate their opinion and be heard by colleagues and managers. Therefore, participation in goal establishment is understood to be motivational as it provides the opportunity of aligning employee values, believes and self-identities with goals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognitive field of theory</th>
<th>Motivational factors</th>
<th>Variables influencing non-core employee motivation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goal-setting</td>
<td>Goals with a directive function</td>
<td>• Goal purpose&lt;br&gt;• Goals with clarity&lt;br&gt;• Provide work structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal-setting</td>
<td>Goals with an organizational contribution</td>
<td>• Goal importance&lt;br&gt;• Goal meaningfulness&lt;br&gt;• Excitement generating&lt;br&gt;• Commitment to goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal-setting</td>
<td>Working with goals where feedback is given</td>
<td>• Spontaneous&lt;br&gt;• Positive&lt;br&gt;• Formal vs. informal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal-setting</td>
<td>Participation in goal establishment</td>
<td>• Goals in line with individual values, self-identity and opinions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Motivational factors of goal-setting practices

Similar to the previous section of the analysis, the table above (table 3) aims to indicate what aspects of cognitive theory are analyzed to have an impact on non-core
employees’ motivation. The discussion is solely based on goal-setting theory and following the analysis it is understood that goal setting is motivational when it has a directive functions, shows an organizational contribution, contain a continuous flow of feedback and allow employee participation in goal establishment, as found in the column named ‘Motivational factors’. The column to the far right, ‘Variables influencing non-core employee motivation’, indicates what variables that have been understood to be directly influential as to the extent of motivational factors actually being motivating for non-core employees at SITE. By example, goal setting is motivational when goals have a directive function and in order for the directive function to work, goals must have a purpose, give clarity to the work and provide a work structure. If these variables are tampered with, the directive function of goals will be decreased and employee motivation will decline.

5.3 Incentives as non-core employee motivators

The external environmental factors need to be discussed when analyzing behaviorist motivation, and according to Hume (1995) a perfect example of this is the organizational incentives systems. Skinner’s (1953) theory of radical behaviorism includes motivation consequences on behalf of external practices such as rewards and punishments, also known as positive and negative reinforcements. SITE respondents recognized no motivational benefit from punishments and also predicted potential demotivation from disciplinary actions. Nevertheless, when discussing disciplinary actions, respondents tended to acknowledge different types of criticism. Constructive criticism or feedback was considered to have a positive effect on motivation as long as it was presented in a constructive manner and came with a positive attitude towards improvement on behalf of what was criticized. Apparently, “tough”, negatively loaded words such as punishment or disciplinary actions are strongly linked to demotivational affects. Although respondents recognized the need for disciplinary actions, they did not find it appropriate to relate it to something negative such as punishments. This overlaps well with findings of goal-setting theory where feedback should always be presented in a positive nature, even if its origin asks for e.g. improvements. It is also important that criticism is constructive so that employees can relate to certain behaviors and how they should eliminate them. Another distinction made on criticism was that of justification.
Criticism was only motivational to SITE employees when it was justified. Findings by Latham and Pinder (2005) can relate to this through their concept of organizational justice. Employees being disciplined through criticism must find that the reason for criticism is a situation they have been part of creating. If criticism is delivered to an employee who do not find that it is justified because someone else is to blame, will find the criticism highly demotivational. Organizational justice in this case regulates that the correct employee receives the correct criticism and can henceforth perhaps be motivated by it.

According to Merchant et al. (2007) incentive systems are either short-term or long-term. Short-term incentives are of great importance according to Skinner (1953) and Latham and Pinder (2005). Appraisal is an example of short-term reinforcements. When discussing non-monetary rewards with the respondents from SITE, they were found to greater value non-monetary reinforcements and find them more stimulating compared to monetary rewards. Interviewees explained that the non-monetary rewards for them consisted of acknowledgement from managers and colleagues within SITE. Although, employees at SITE found that the interest to work took ground in salaries, they declared that this particular incentive was not motivational in the sense that it drives them to perform higher in work. Instead the respondents expressed that behavioristic motivation was highly related with non-monetary incentives.

Merchant et al. (2007) concludes that short-term reinforcements provide the benefit of employees being able to link efforts with consequential rewards, due to limited time between the two. This assumption is highly relevant with the findings from SITE. As employees mean that spontaneous rewards are scarce, they are pointing to short-term incentives. Employees need confirmation that their work is of good standard and beneficial to the organization. Therefore, monetary rewards are of less interest to the employees as they initially only need appraisal for their efforts. Even if goal-setting strategy provides for a good structure at the workplace, steps during work towards a goal need to be recognized. Not only would such rewards increase motivation, it would also provide employees with the knowledge that they are working according to plan and that what they are doing is important.
Empirical findings showed that rewards within the SITE unit are currently difficult to link to any specific efforts. Short-term rewards are naturally difficult to link because they are very scarce. However, there was also a long-term monetary reward discussed in the matter of the annual bonus. The bonus at SITE was viewed as a welcomed incentive, but the respondents declared that they were unable to recognize their contribution for earning and receiving it. In other words, the monetary reward that is used has a little contextual relation to employees work tasks and responsibilities and is not very motivational. In this scenario, rewards are given for such a long period of time that employees find it impossible to see what they did in order to receive the bonus. At the same time, the bonus system is universal for Ericsson, making individual efforts seem meaningless as influential on the bonus. It is therefore evident that regardless of non-monetary, monetary, short-term or long-term, employees must be able to link a certain reward with certain efforts in order to find the reward motivating.

Latham and Pinder (2005) stated that organizational justice also affects employee motivation through incentive systems. Organizational justice is in this case focused on the subject of fairness amongst employees and managers. If employees are feeling unfairly treated by their managers it will result in an unmotivated workforce, depending on the degree of too little positive incentives or too much disciplinary actions from managers. The subject of organizational justice appeared when discussing monetary rewards with the respondents from the SITE unit. Respondents believed that the monetary reinforcement carries risks of creating unfairness at the workplace. Participants expressed earlier that monetary rewards are viewed as a non-motivational incentives and believe that they are a factor that can create unfairness amongst employees. This dilemma puts even greater emphasis on the importance of short-term non-monetary incentives. If employees are worried that monetary rewards can create injustice and perhaps contribute to a negative atmosphere at the workplace, other rewards are automatically made more important.
Table 4: Incentives and motivational factors

As in the previous sections of the chapter, analyzing the behavioristic segment of motivation also generated a number of motivational factors and variables that were understood to impact the influence of the motivation factors. The table above (table 4) indicates that the behavioristic field of theory highlights three motivational factors of non-core employee motivation i.e. non-monetary rewards, monetary rewards and disciplinary actions. The column to the right, variables influencing non-core employee motivation illuminates the discussed variables, which stimulates the motivational factors.

5.4 SITE as part of “the bigger picture”

Empirical findings showed that while employees at the SITE unit felt pride in being a part of the Ericsson organization, a large majority of respondents were still considering leaving SITE within the three upcoming years. As a reason for this, employees claimed that there was a lack of opportunities for individual development. As individual development has shown to be a motivational employee need, it should therefore be looked at with great concern. A scarcity in opportunities of individual development further increases the employee turnover. In turn, this also affects employees feeling of belongingness, a problem that cannot simply be fixed through the social image of the brand Ericsson. Empirical findings also confirmed that there was a negative atmosphere at SITE, resulting in low motivation. As mentioned before, this affects the possibility
for cooperation between colleagues, managers, and also between the two sites, Borås and Kista. Another factor that constrains the opportunity for individuals working together is the limited time. Having a low degree of cooperation, as a result of time limitations, creates a working place that lack knowledge sharing and is therefore creating a lower quality of teamwork. In turn, poor teamwork could lead to an even more negative atmosphere. The consequence is that of a negative spiral with a domino effect where one aspect sets of another and the negative atmosphere continuously affects employee motivation in a negative matter. In addition to lowering motivation, the situation creates an unattractive workplace for new and old employees.

Being employees of a non-core unit makes individual contributions seem minimal and effects of contributions are difficult to see, as is the impact on the bottom line. Respondents claimed that they at times felt insignificant and empirical findings yield that it is of great importance for managers and managerial levels to express what significant value employees at a non-core unit have. By example, Borås employees experienced that upper managerial levels had little understanding of the actual SITE function and felt overlooked and misunderstood. Not surprisingly, the general employee feeling was that there was a promotional need of SITE. Advertising practices of SITE and its function within Ericsson could decrease cases of misunderstanding of the SITE function. Also, internal Ericsson knowledge of the SITE function and its importance would be highlighted, hence, providing recognition of SITE’s value and its employees.

Being part of a non-core unit was also expressed as being stressful as it left few guarantees. Naturally, Ericsson would not dismiss a core unit before it would drop a non-core unit. The SITE function can easily be moved and it is hardly ever in organizational focus as it is not working with the core business. The feeling of not being important and the fact that the department can easily be relocated stresses the need for improvements from management levels to make employees within non-core units feel needed. It is equally important to communicate non-core employees’ importance to other units, especially core-units. As motivation was generated partly through feeling belongingness and recognizing contributions to the organizations, employees must feel that their work is appreciated by surrounding departments and at corporate level as well.
6. Conclusion

Employee motivation has for long been a relevant research area for numerous scholars. This made it necessary to structure the theoretical pre-understanding into three fields of motivation theory. By doing so, the authors found that they could provide a more accurate contribution in their understanding of the research question(s):

What affects motivation for employees working in a non-core unit?
- How are non-core employees motivated today?
- How would non-core employees like to be motivated?
- How is the motivational gap decreased within the non-core unit?

Being part of an organizational integrated solution offer does not necessarily mean that a unit is core as concluded in this study. Nevertheless, as part of an integrated solution, employee performance is extremely important, making employee motivation equally important. The researched entity of this single case study provided for an established negative motivational trend. Yet, participating employees declared several factors that contemporarily were in practice and had a positive effect on motivation for the non-core unit’s employees. As a main contribution to motivation, the amount of responsibility given to employees was considered to be very motivational. Although the motivational influence through responsibility could at times be tampered with due to tight managerial control, employees still found it to be very motivational that they were trusted with work tasks and other responsibilities. Management was also considered to be very motivational, however, leadership styles were at times questioned to be too tight or too loose which could take away part of the motivational impact on employees. Lastly, the majority of the feedback was considered to be motivational. Feedback was linked to the cyclical motivational factor of a positive work atmosphere as it encouraged to communication between colleagues and managers. However, as this factor was found to be cyclical, it was declared that the atmosphere was not positive i.e. not motivational, during the process of this research, but employees recognized past instances where the atmosphere had been positive and therefore motivational.

Moreover, when establishing goals, employees found that it was very motivating to participate in the procedure whenever possible and it was important that goals had a
Motivating non-core employees
Susanne Midbeck and Zebastian Nylund (2011), Linköping University

directive function for the daily work and contributed to the overall goal of the organization. Although motivational, the directive function of goals was not experienced by all employees and therefore lacked potential in its motivational effect. A majority of participants also found that short-term incentive systems were those with the greatest possibility of being motivational. As a central aspect of incentive systems being motivational it was found important that rewards were traceable to certain efforts.

In addition to existing motivational aspects, the authors found a number of motivation factors that were understood to increase non-core employee motivation. With regards to the theoretical pre-understanding, the findings of how non-core employees would like to be motivated have been divided into three fields of theoretical thought. Research findings within physiological theory contributed with three motivational factors i.e. a positive work atmosphere between colleagues, great employee responsibility and employees experience of meaningfulness of work. Secondly, four motivational factors of cognitive theory and goal-setting practices were understood to be desired by non-core employees, namely, goals with a directive function, goals with an organizational contribution, working with goals where feedback is given and participation in goal establishment. Lastly, the field of behaviorism provided the three motivational factors non-monetary rewards, monetary rewards and disciplinary actions. It was understood that these factors were contributed findings of how non-core employees would contemporary like to be motivated.

As a motivational gap exists, it is crucial to understand what affects motivation for employees in a non-core unit. Desired, but lacking, motivational factors are not easily set into practice without the recognition of how non-core employee motivation is influenced. Findings from the studied single case SITE have ultimately contributed to an understanding of two features that affect non-core employee motivation.

The motivational factors of experiencing meaningfulness of work and goals with a directive function show that the feature of meaning of an employment has an effect on non-core employee motivation. As integrated solution offerings are extremely important for organizations, naturally, all segments of the chain fill a function and exists with a meaning. Regardless, employees of non-core units desire a communicated meaning of their function because their knowledge of not being core emphasizes certain
employment stability risks, such as the fear of the unit being outsourced, moved to a different location or a worst case scenario, being closed down.

Remaining motivational factors contribute to understanding of the second feature i.e. recognition. Findings showed that the employees at the non-core unit felt inadequately recognized by the organization and other units. As a result, employees urge more recognition from their environment through all segments of their work in order to be motivated. Goals worked with need to be recognized as having an organizational contribution, rewards are motivational when they recognize a certain effort, responsibilities are motivational as they recognize employee capabilities, and so on. Being recognized was understood as providing a feeling of security, which was considered to have a positive effect on motivation because it provided employment stability in a turbulent environment and efforts were recognized where the organization failed to do so.

In final word, the authors would like to encourage further research on behalf of the subject on “special” units motivation. Given the research gap on what affects employees in non-core units, there are several areas remaining to study and many interesting aspects left. This being a single case study, it would be of interest to apply these findings and models to other non-core units, especially in other industries. It would also be applicable to test findings from this research on behalf of a multiple case study. Furthermore, a comparative study, examining the relationship and differences between core and non-core units would also contribute to this field. Lastly, motivational aspects of other special units would provide further knowledge within this field. Suggestively, looking at e.g. “tiger-teams” or project groups would provide for interesting studies.
Bibliography


Motivating non-core employees
Susanne Midbeck and Zebastian Nylund (2011), Linköping University


Motivating non-core employees
Susanne Midbeck and Zebastian Nylund (2011), Linköping University

University Press.


Gersick, C. J. G. (1988) *Time and transition in work teams: Toward a new model of
Motivating non-core employees
Susanne Midbeck and Zebastian Nylund (2011), Linköping University

group development, Academy of Management Journal, 31: pp. 9–41


Herzberg, F. (1959) The Motivation to Work, New York: John Wiley and Sons


Hunt, I. Wall, B. Jadgev, H. (2005) Applying the concepts of extended products and
extended enterprises to support the activities of dynamic supply networks in the agri-food industry, Journal of Food Engineering, Vol. 70, Issue 3: pp. 393-402


Motivating non-core employees
Susanne Midbeck and Zebastian Nylund (2011), Linköping University


Motivating non-core employees
Susanne Midbeck and Zebastian Nylund (2011), Linköping University

Learning & Education, 2, 3: pp. 250-268


Motivating non-core employees
Susanne Midbeck and Zebastian Nylund (2011), Linköping University

_Creativity and Productivity_, Academy of Management Journal 38, 2: p. 501


Tolman, E. C. (1932) _Purposive behavior in animals and men_, New York: Century U.P.


Appendix

Interview questions

1. What is your age?
2. What is your academic background?
3. How long have you been employed at SITE?
4. How long have you been working at Ericsson?
5. How did you get your current job? What were the circumstances?
6. Why did you apply to Ericsson? Is it an attractive place to work at?
7. For how long do you think you will stay with SITE?
8. Do you like working at SITE?
9. What motivates you to work?
10. Do you think there is a connection between your motivation and your performance at work?
11. Does your environment affect your motivation? What and how?
12. Are managers at SITE motivating?
13. What attributes of a leader are more or less motivating for a group?
14. Do managers encourage you to take on a lot of responsibility?
15. How would you define work, are there clear goals?
16. If so, are you motivated by these?
17. What do you find important when working with – and establishing goals?
18. Do you receive feedback on behalf of your work?
19. Have you come across anything else that motivates you?

20. What would be needed for you to perform even higher?

21. What is your attitude towards rewards and punishments, can they motivate you?

22. Do you find rewards at SITE to be fair and motivating?

23. Can disciplinary actions motivate you?

24. Are you proud to be working for Ericsson?

25. Do you find it to be a social status symbol to be working for Ericsson?

26. What do you appreciate your work at SITE contributes with to the organization of Ericsson?

27. What does corporate governance signal on how important SITE is for Ericsson?

28. How do you think other units look at SITE?

29. What is your view on good organizational culture?

30. From what you have said about corporate culture, do you think SITE fulfills these aspects?

31. The relationship between Kista and Borås: Does it feel like you are a team?

32. Have you meat those working in Borås/Kista?

33. What is the best thing about working at SITE?

34. What is the worst thing about working at SITE?