



Universitetet
i Stavanger

**THE UIS BUSINESS SCHOOL
MASTER THESIS**

STUDY PROGRAMME:

E-MBA300

Executive Master of Business Administration

IS THE MASTER'S THESIS CONFIDENTIAL?

Yes:.....

No:..X.....

TITLE:

Goals, feedback and motivation in a matrix structured organisation

AUTHOR('S)

Student number(s):

252176

Name:

Geir Åge Nesse

SUPERVISOR:

Prof. Aslaug Mikkelsen

ABSTRACT

Organisations are all around us and they control and balance our world. Our lives are tied up in all kinds of organisations, or at least some sort of one. We are born and educated in an organisation. We work in organisations, and in the end, we are buried by an organisation. Organisations want to deliver good results and achieve their goals and visions, and to be able to do this the organisation needs employees. The more motivated the employees are in doing a good job the better the organisational results. The purpose of this study is to understand employee's motivation in an organisational structure, and how goals and feedback is experienced in this setting. This study is a qualitative single case study performed within the engineering department in DeepOcean. The semi-structured interview guide, which served as the main basis for gathering data, was developed using both organisational and motivational theory. The results from the data analysis verify many of the challenges and opportunities identified in theory.

This study shows how important it is for employees to have a plan at work, and how motivating it is to work together with others. The degree to which the department is involved in the engineer's work life when setting objectives and plans, as well as how feedback is given, is found to be a factor for work motivation. Moreover, feedback is found to be more appreciated and valued when it is perceived directly from the projects and from the people where the relationships are closest. This study shows a correlation between the degree of autonomy and frequency of feedback, and how this can have an impact on organisational performance in a matrix organisation. The study concludes with recommendations that can be evaluated to increase motivation and performance in DeepOcean.

PREFACE

This document concludes my master thesis for the Executive Master of Business Administration at UiS. I started the study three years ago and it has been a very interesting and educational study. It has without doubt been challenging to complete the whole master study in combination with family life and work. I am therefore finishing this thesis with a great level of mastery. My next goal is to use my acquired competence in my daily work as Project Manager and try share my knowledge with the organisation, and my fellow colleagues.

I would like to thank DeepOcean for giving me the opportunity to perform this EMBA and for the support and autonomy I have felt throughout. I am forever grateful to the informants who shared their stories and tried to answer my difficult questions as best as they could. I would like to express my gratitude to my former co-student, Leif Helge Helgesen, which always have had time for my questions and queries, and to my very good friend and neighbour, Brynjar Aardal, which have supported me with comments, thoughts and good conversations. Last but not least, I am very grateful for the support I have received from my guidance professor at UiS, Aslaug Mikkelsen, which have challenged me and guided me in the process of this master thesis, thank you!

My family, my wife and my three sons, have supported me in their own unique ways, accepting that I spent evenings and weekends with my nose in a book or in front of the computer. We have achieved this together!

Geir Åge Nesse

Haugesund, 02.06.2022

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1	INTRODUCTION	- 1 -
2	THEORY	- 3 -
2.1	INTRODUCTION	- 3 -
2.2	ORGANISATION THEORY	- 4 -
2.3	MOTIVATION THEORY	- 11 -
3	METHOD	- 26 -
3.1	THE ORGANISATION	- 26 -
3.2	RESEARCH METHOD AND DESIGN	- 28 -
4	RESULTS	- 35 -
4.1	AUTONOMOUS COLLABORATION.....	- 36 -
4.2	COMPETENCE DEVELOPMENT.....	- 42 -
4.3	WORK MOTIVATION	- 46 -
5	DISCUSSION	- 52 -
5.1	AUTONOMOUS COLLABORATION.....	- 52 -
5.2	COMPETENCE DEVELOPMENT.....	- 56 -
5.3	WORK MOTIVATION	- 57 -
5.4	CONCLUSION	- 60 -
6	REFERENCES.....	- 62 -
	APPENDIX 1 – INTERVIEW GUIDE.....	I
	APPENDIX 2 – INTERVIEW GUIDE (NORWEGIAN)	V
	APPENDIX 3 – INFORMATION AND CONSENT	IX
	APPENDIX 4 – NSD APPROVAL ASSESSMENT	X

TABLE OF FIGURES

FIGURE 2-1 – SIX BASIC PARTS OF AN ORGANISATION (FROM MINTZBERG, 1989, P. 99).....	- 6 -
FIGURE 2-2 – TYPICAL MATRIX ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE (FROM JACOBSEN & THORSVIK, 2019, P.77).....	- 9 -
FIGURE 2-3 – SELF-DETERMINATION CONTINUUM (FROM GAGNÈ & DECI, 2005, P.336).....	- 16 -
FIGURE 2-4 – SIMPLIFIED HIGH-PERFORMANCE CYCLE (FROM LATHAM, 2012, P.83).....	- 20 -
FIGURE 2-5 – PERFORMANCE IMPROVEMENT FOLLOWING FEEDBACK (FROM SMITHER ET AL., 2005)	- 22 -
FIGURE 3-1 – DEEPOCEAN STRATEGIC APPROACH	- 27 -
FIGURE 3-2 – SIMPLIFIED ORGANIZATION CHART FOR THE ENGINEERING DEPARTMENT.....	- 28 -
FIGURE 4-1 – STUDY RESULTS FROM ANALYSIS	- 35 -
FIGURE 4-2 – AGGREGATED DIMENSION: AUTONOMOUS COLLABORATION	- 36 -
FIGURE 4-3 – AGGREGATED DIMENSION: COMPETENCE DEVELOPMENT	- 42 -
FIGURE 4-4 – AGGREGATED DIMENSION: WORK MOTIVATION	- 46 -
FIGURE 5-1 – AUTONOMY AND FEEDBACK IMPACTING PERFORMANCE IN A MATRIX STRUCTURE.....	- 61 -

1 INTRODUCTION

Every organisation wants to be successful. How to achieve this success is not a straightforward task. There is no recipe that can guarantee organisational success, but why are some organisations more successful than others? Such complex questions have compound answers, and in search for parts of this answer we go further into what an organisation is. If we try to peel back the layers of an organisations surrounding carpet, we may come to understand it as a production system (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019). With a mission to transform input to a desirable outcome. The tools used in this transformation process are in one way or another dependant on employees, the human capital. Hence, making the most of the employees in an organisation leads to desirable results, and organisational success (Mahoney & Deckop, 1986; Obeidat, Mitchell & Bray, 2016).

Each organisation develops their own unique mixture of structure and form, dynamically changing and adapting to internal and external forces (Mintzberg, 1989). Organisations are developing towards a more team-based structure to better organise and utilise their human capital, as well as to better adapt to changes and emerging markets (Hammernes, 2021). Compared to hierarchical pyramidic structures, where one boss has all power and authority, the team-based type has a more diverse structure focusing on project organisation (Jones, 2013). To further utilise the human capital resources and competence, the project organisations evolved into a hybrid of team and pyramidic hierarchy, known as the matrix structure (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019). The matrix structure is a complex structure aiming towards high quality processes, as well as reducing administrative work, and utilising employees as effective as possible. Having separate projects with responsibility for their own budgets and objectives are typical for a matrix structure organisation, where the project borrows resources temporarily from specialised departments to be able to meet its objectives.

The utilisation and effect of the human capital is not only dependent on the organisational structure. It is also dependent on employees' motivation; their choices, efforts and persistence (Latham, 2012). A motivated workforce is crucial for organisational performance and success (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019). Empirical research suggests that motivated employees are satisfied employees with a high organisational commitment, resulting in high-performing organisations (Appelbaum et al., 2000).

In this study, I will explore how feedback, goals and motivation are perceived and experienced in a matrix structured organisation. The study will be carried out in the engineering department in DeepOcean. DeepOcean is an offshore service company in the energy and renewable segment. The engineering department in DeepOcean is organised as a matrix structure, delivering services to projects. DeepOcean aims to be a high-performing organisation. It is therefore interesting to understand how employees in the engineering department experience motivational tools like goals and feedback. This study is a qualitative designed study with semi-structured informant interviews as the main source of data.

2 THEORY

The first section of this chapter presents organisational theory, describing known forms and structures of organisations and how we need them to make the most out of our employees. The second section of this chapter describe work motivation in an organisation, with a focus on feedback and goals. Where the goal-setting theory (Latham, 2012) as well as the self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2017) surface as dominant and relevant theories.

2.1 Introduction

Organisations aims to be more cost-effective and productive to increase their performance. This search for success never halts, and organisations must change and adopt on a regular basis to keep up with market trends. The development of the organisation's structure and form is guided by these changes, as well as the organisation's service lines and mission. Independent of the service and mission, an organisation with highly satisfied and motivated people achieves better results utilising employees in a good and efficient way (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019).

A production facility focuses on other values and strengths than an organisation renting out consultancy services. How an organisation is formed or structured does not in itself maintain satisfied and motivated employees. It all comes down to the people in the various positions in the organisation (Boxall & Macky, 2007). The social areas, organisational commitment, and management of people are important for job performance and motivation, and thus for the organisational results (Walton, 1985; Mahoney & Deckop, 1986; Obeidat et al., 2016). This understanding springs out from the Hawthorne studies (Mayo, 1945) where it was suggested that humans are social beings that in addition to monetary and symbolic rewards, are motivated by non-monetary rewards and challenging work tasks (Etzioni, 1964).

The people employed in an organisation represent the human capital. How to best utilise the human capital to reach high performance and results, will always be a focus area for organisations (Appelbaum et al., 2000), especially the ones that have a high degree of personnel services and consultancies. Boxall and Purcell (2011) suggest organisations to focus on three vital elements to succeed in utilising the human capital, employees should have: the *ability* to perform, and knowledge in how to perform the job; the *motivation* to perform, and willingness to perform the job; the *opportunity* to participate through structure and necessary support.

Employee ability, motivation and opportunity are elements which contribute to performance, however the relationships between these elements varies (Boxall & Purcell, 2011). For some organisations the ability will be more important than the opportunity, and vice versa for other organisations. It is the organisational human relations politics and practices which facilitates the ability, motivation and opportunity for employees. The politics and practices in an organisation determine how and why people are employed, and how the organisation shall be structured to meet its goals and objectives (Mikkelsen & Laudal, 2016, p.33).

2.2 Organisation Theory

Mintzberg (1989, p.101) define an organisation as: *“The total of the ways in which its labour is divided into distinct tasks and then its coordination achieved among those tasks.”* Further to this, Jacobsen and Thorsvik (2019) describes an organisation as a production system. Organisations need to produce something, for example: a service, a product or some sort of consultancy. During the production phase the organisation transform input to valuable results, input can be some sort of data information or raw materials, while the result can be a report with future recommendations or a retail sales product. When the result from the production phase is desirable, and the surrounding markets are willing to pay for it, the organisation can contribute to value and continue the production phase. When melting it down to the purpose of an organisation, Jacobsen and Thorsvik’s (2019) description will fit any organisation regardless of the structure, form, size or culture. Nevertheless, it is the people who makes the central core in organisations. The behaviour of employees can influence the effectiveness of the production phase, and the quality of the result. Thus, determining the success of the organisation.

Despite the individual differences, organisations aim to coordinate and control large amount of people. Well-structured organisations can find the golden pathway between different forms and structures, where the people in the organisation works towards the same result and pulls in the same direction throughout the production phase, ending up with results which could never be achieved by one person alone. These results come through three organisational behaviour controls (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019): (1) Specialised work through work specifications and delimitations of the work, specialising the tasks and work force; (2) coordination and structure through rules, routines and reward schemes; (3) stability in structure through positions in hierarchy and systems, people know where they belong and what they shall do within certain frames of responsibility. Finding the balance between these behavioural controls is important

for employee motivation making account for employee feelings, attributes, capabilities and perceptions, rather than only seeing the organisational structure as a function of productions (Goldhaber, 1993).

The coordination and control of employees in an organisation require balance of vertical and horizontal distinction through a mixture of: administration, formalisation, centralisation, and differentiation (Mikkelsen, 2016, p.108). The degree of these dimensions results in either a mechanistic structure or an organic structure (Jones, 2013). The mechanistic structure focus on authority, control, centralisation and standardisation, with internal rules and regulations to be followed. An organic structure is more flexible and focus on collaboration in teams, decentralisation and mutual adjustments (Jones, 2013; Mikkelsen, 2012, p.109). Organisations typically adapt to a variety of structures as they see fit, to be able to solve their tasks and provide their services. A clear organic or mechanic structure throughout the organisation may not be the best fit for high performance, and organisations balance this with the degree of the uncertainty of their environment (Mintzberg, 1989). As such, Mintzberg (1989) divides an organisation in to six basic parts: The foundation of the organisation is the *operating core* consisting of the people who perform the basic work of production and/or services. Above the operating core is the *strategic apex / top leaders*, this part of the organisation organises and control the whole system. When an organisation grows, more managers are needed to divide the span of control and hierarchy, this will be the managers of others and managers of managers place and is called the *middle line*. When the organisation grows it becomes more complex, and two new parts emerge. These parts consist of people who coordinate and conduct administrative duties and are placed on the side in the hierarchy. They are named *technostructure*, which are people with analytical skills performing planning, training and financials tasks; and *support staff*, which are people providing among others: canteen, reception and payroll services. The sixth part is the *ideology* which can be related to the culture and traditions of the organisation. The ideology is what really distinguish organisation from each other. The parts and how they are interacting is illustrated in Figure 2-1.

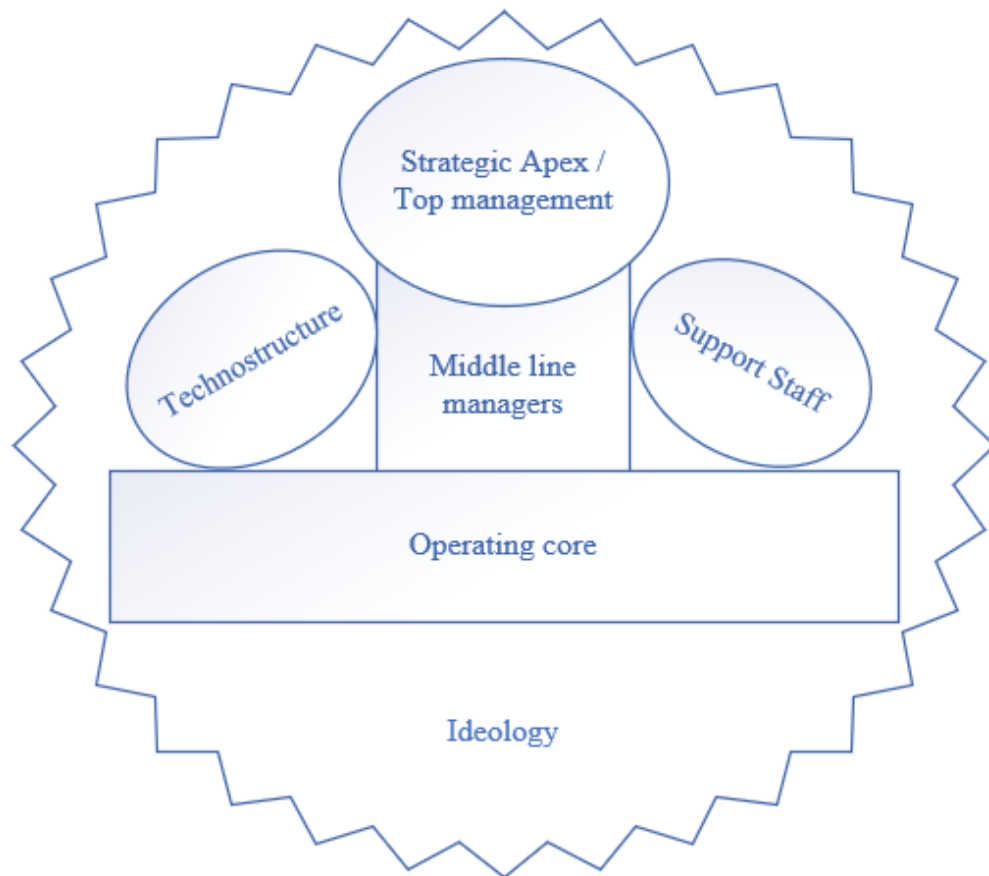


Figure 2-1 – Six basic parts of an organisation (from Mintzberg, 1989, p. 99)

External forces which may influence the organisation are clients, government decisions, competitors and suppliers. The internal and external forces will determine how the organisation change and develop throughout time. This is also why it is so difficult to classify an organisation to fit one specific structure. If an organisation is truly faithful to one type of structure and neglects the external forces, it may not be an organisation which is built for the future since it does not sufficiently adapt over time (Mintzberg, 1989). Each of the six parts all have their own forces pulling and pushing internally in the organisation, these internal forces can be divided in the ideology forces, which surrounds the organisation providing cooperation and communication, and the politics forces, which provides competition. The politics forces will adhere to the external context, challenge and pull apart the organisation from time to time ensuring necessary changes, while the ideology pulls it back together to find a common way (Mintzberg, 1989). There is always an unbalance in these forces (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019). However, a successful organisation finds a dynamic balance in the mixture of types and forms, fulfilling its mission and being able to adapt to the external and internal forces (Mintzberg, 1989).

The internal forces, the ideology and the culture, might be the strongest and yet maybe the most abstract forces, making organisations hard to predict and analyse and impossible to place in one bin. Each organisation has their own distinguish design depending on how important each of the six parts are for the organisation (Mintzberg, 1989). The organisation forms itself over the years to adapt to changes and growth.

The entrepreneurial form can be the first organisation form since this is the simplest (Mintzberg, 1989). The entrepreneurial form has no support staff or technostructure and has a very thin middle line. The operating core and strategic apex are dominant. When the organisation grows it will see challenges in controlling and coordinating its people through a simple hierarchy, as in the entrepreneurial form, and will then gradually shift over to another diversified form. Typically, organisations are built vertically to maintain control of the business and to better coordinate and motivate employees (Jones, 2013). As a result, more layers of managers are needed to maintain communication with employees at the lower levels, increasing the span of control and middle line as well as the need for support staff and technostructure. Organisations which rely on high efficiency can have a massive operating core with centralised hierarchy and a large middle line. These organisations also have large technostructures to make rules and regulations for the organisations (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019). This type of organisation is characterised as the machine organisation (Mintzberg, 1989). Another type of organisation is the professional organisation, with a large operating core and a large support staff. This type of organisation normally has higher educated employees or experts and does not focus on a centralised authority, as such the middle line and technostructure are smaller in these organisation types.

The structure dynamics shows how organisations change shape and form as necessary to accomplish results. Mintzberg (1989) generalised organisational forms as an ideology, the forms are not practically fully adopted by organisations, but they do provide guidance on what type of organisation form that can best fit with the strategy (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019). The six basic parts gives a broadened view of the various building blocks of an organisation. The blocks can be divided in bricks and assembled according to organisational needs. The internal hierarchy of communication and reporting lines in an organisation is the spiderweb that ties all the bricks and pieces together. This spiderweb advocates the formal communication and interactions between employees and is therefore of high interest when studying employee motivation.

An organisation's communication and reporting lines can be divided in three larger models: the functional structure, the product structure and the matrix structure (Rosengren, 2000). These structures design how the hierarchy is built up determining the communication and reporting lines in an organisation.

The functional structure organises work tasks after similarities and dependencies, and group the tasks in functions or departments. This is to specialise the work and to benefit from large-scale operations (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019). The functional structure can have challenges with internal communication if each department rides its own horse, and do not pay attention to other internal departments, nor clients or market needs and requirements (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019). The product structure gathers the expertise and functions for the product or service in divisions, and the administration is built up around each division instead of centralising these functions (Jones, 2013; Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019).

The product structure is more flexible and can be more reactive to market conditions than the functional centralised structure, however a product structure may require duplication of resources and can contribute to lack of coordination and control (Mikkelsen, 2012, p.113). The line of formal feedback and goals in these organisational structures is clear and logical, they follow the reporting lines. The same goes for the responsibilities for goals and feedback, they naturally fall in under the organisational reporting line responsibilities.

The advantages in functional structures are disadvantages in product structures and vice versa (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019). Both these structures struggle to coordinate the timeline, technical performance, development and innovation on several tasks simultaneously (Galbraith, 1971; Ford & Randolph, 1992). Either the functional structure or the product structure will provide good enough results for some organisations. The idea of taking the best from these two structures and integrate them into one was the start of the matrix structure (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019). In the matrix structure, the organisation can be highly specialised delivering high quality and at the same time avoid double administration work. As can be seen in Figure 2-2 below, the function and product (project) structures are horizontally incorporated in the matrix organisation. The matrix structure is a flat organising structure with decentralised authority, and with a distributed span of control, dividing responsibility for employees between functional managers and project managers (Jones, 2013). This establishes a cross-functional chain of command known as the "two-boss principle" (Moodley, Pretorius & Sutherland, 2016;

Dunne, Stahl & Melhart, 1978). Further highlighted by Davis and Lawrence (1978, p.134) in their definition of a matrix organisation: “A matrix organization is that some managers report to two bosses rather than to the traditional single boss; there is a dual rather than a single chain of command.”

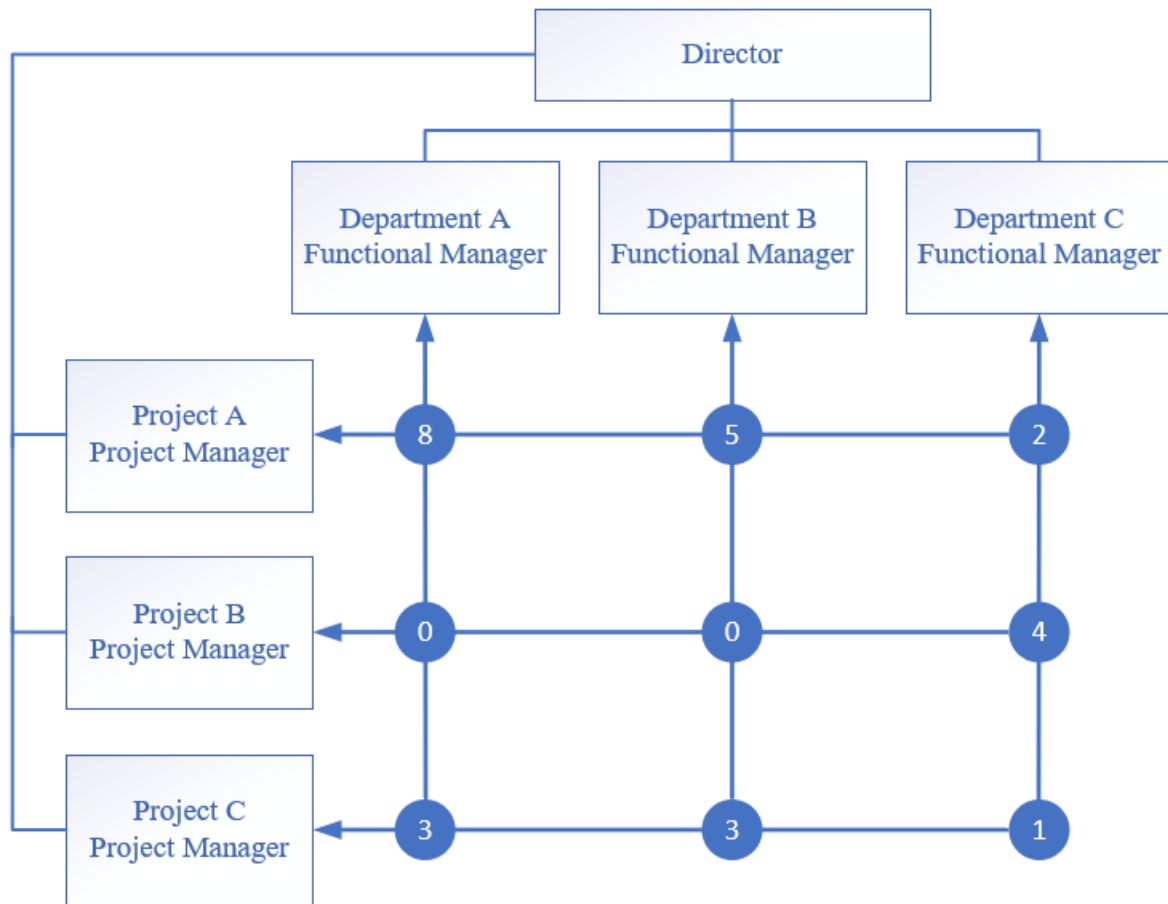


Figure 2-2 – Typical matrix organisational structure (from Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019, p.77)

As can be seen in Figure 2-2 above, the matrix organisation’s reporting lines can be divided to a functional manager (department/line leaders), and a project manager. The functional manager has formal authority and direct responsibilities over personnel, whilst the responsibility for executing work and projects deliveries lies with the project managers (Dunne et al., 1978). The numbers in Figure 2-2 illustrates the number of employees which belong to the project and department. There are 8 employees in department B, whereas 3 of them work in project C and 5 work in project A. In project B there is only a need for specialists from department C. There can also be a percentage covering between the projects, an employee can work 70% in project A and 30% in project C.

Mixing the functional and product structure can be done in several ways, and Larson and Gobeli (1987) divides the matrix structure in three different forms: (1) Functional matrix, where the project manager has less control and is a staff assistance with indirect authority. (2) Project matrix is the opposite to functional matrix where the project manager have full authority to make decisions over personnel and processes, the functional manager only supply services and personnel. (3) Balanced matrix, where the functional manager assigns personnel and ensures that the department / discipline delivers on the project requirements, whilst the project manager have responsibility for the project deliverables, plan, schedule and progress. In a balanced matrix the project manager does not have any formal control or authority over the team members (Dunn, 2001). In a matrix structure the formal feedback may come from functional manager or project manager, depending on the form of the matrix structure. The different forms and interpretations of the matrix structure may be unclear for employees and give nurture for misunderstandings, resulting in a lack of quality in the goals and feedback, or total absent of it. Ensuring a common understanding of the communication and reporting lines emerges as an important point in these structures, which may require a larger organisational technostructure. Organisations with matrix structures and without a technostructure may struggle to find a path through the mist of the matrix.

The matrix structure provides more effectively use of resources and can focus both on quality and cost simultaneously. In addition, the matrix structures, with its effective handling of the span of control, make the organisation more flexible and able to respond faster to customer and client needs, avoiding an overly tall organisational hierarchy (Jones, 2013; Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019). The matrix structure introduces uncertainty and ambiguity through the two-boss principle. This can increase conflicts and stress in the organisation, especially a balanced matrix can have challenges with resource allocation conflicts and uncertainties in who to make decisions (Jones, 2013). The matrix structures are understood as some of the most complex ways to structure resources in an organisation and depends more on people's skills and attributes, than function and product structures (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019). Due to its complexity people's ability to cooperate becomes a necessity for making the matrix structure work effectively, and the structure requires more time for management meetings and coordination of people. Organisations which are project driven and are very sensitive to marked conjunctions may find more value in the advantages a matrix structure provides, compared to the disadvantages. These organisations are more reliant on their employees as a human capital, including how leadership and management is exercised (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019;

Mintzberg, 1989) and how skilful employees are in handling interpersonal relations and emotions (Sy & Cote, 2004; Moodley et al., 2016).

Organisations are developed and structured to coordinate behaviour, and it is the employees which determines whether the organisation makes profitable results and performs well. Therefore, the work motivation of employees in the organisation is of special interest, knowing that the matrix structure has advantages and disadvantages which can be heavily influenced by individual motivation (Schnetler, Steyn & Van Staden, 2015).

It is a complex and confound puzzle making organisations successful in delivering results, and organisational forms and structures are only part of the solution. We can structure, coordinate and control people in organisations however, regardless of this, each organisation have their own ideology and culture, and develops their own way of doing things. This is because organisations are made up by people and social systems. Individuals have their own set of values and emotions which influence what happens in an organisation, independent of a well-designed organisational structure and form (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019). The individual employee will always play a pivotal role in making organisational success, and an organisation is dependent on employee competence, ability and motivation to reach its goals and objectives (Boxall & Purcell, 2011). The next chapter continues the puzzle of making successful organisations, focusing on the motivation of employees.

2.3 Motivation Theory

The term motivation is a derivation of the Latin word for movement (*movere*), and it refers to what “moves” individuals to action. Motivation theories focus on what energise and gives direction to behaviour (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Organisational forms and structures attempt to coordinate and control behaviour whereas motivation refers to the variables that start and drive people’s behaviour (Mikkelsen, 2016, p.34). This suggests that employee motivation influence the organisational structures, affecting the performance of an organisation and its ability to deliver beneficial results. Latham (2012) suggests three pillars to define motivation, these are choice, effort and persistence. Further to this, Latham (2012, p.132) suggests seven variables that predict, explain and influence motivation: (1) *Needs*, and the physical and psychological well-being of people. (2) *Personal traits*, to determine the individual orientation of ones needs. (3) *Values*, which brings the variables in individual needs and behaviour. (4) *Context*, where

the values and needs are fulfilled by a culture. (5) *Cognition*, with goals and specific forms of values, objects and aims. (6) *Affect*, which are emotions and automated reactions formed by value and culture. (7) *Reward*, and incentives providing effort and persistence when values are satisfied.

Motivated employee's wants to perform well, they want to contribute, they want to develop, and they want to be part of a meaningful collaborative organisation (Ryan & Deci, 2017). This was not the understanding from the earlier behaviourism, where motivation was thought to be something that could be observed directly, and performance was thought to be the product of stimuli and extrinsic motivation. Work was merely an exchange of labour for money (Latham, 2012). This view was challenged by Maslow (1943), which suggested in his theory of human motivation, that people have distinct basic physical and safety needs. When these needs are satisfied other higher ranked needs, as the: social, esteem and self-actualisation needs, emerge and are sought to be satisfied. The theory has received critic for its hierarchical setup (Deci, 1975; Smith, 1973), but describes a view on people's needs and how humans are motivated to act and perform to satisfy their needs. Working regime, salary and job safety are examples of physiological and safety needs in an organisation. While relatedness, status and recognition are examples of social and esteem needs. At the top of the need hierarchy in an organisation are the needs for self-actualisation, such as personal development and satisfaction in own performance (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019). Employees will have their own individual hierarchy of needs. Nevertheless, the employee's needs in an organisation can contribute to knowledge in what motivates to perform. As a logical hierarchy, the needs low in the hierarchy can be identified as more extrinsic driven, while needs high in the hierarchy can be more intrinsically driven (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019; McGregor, 1960). Herzberg (1966) suggest that the need hierarchy can be connected to people's motivation to perform job tasks. Recognition, variation in tasks and responsibility are examples of motivating factors for performing job tasks. On the contrary factors such as: administrative systems, physical conditions and job safety provides demotivation if they are not present, but they do not provide motivation if they are present (Herzberg, 1966). The latter factors were named hygiene factors and are needs that employee's normally expects to be in place. Many organisations fulfil the basic needs and hygiene factors as salary and job safety. Those organisations should then focus on how they can facilitate the ability, motivation and opportunity (Boxall & Purcell, 2011) for employees to reach higher ranked needs. The need hierarchy is dynamic, and the internal and external forces on an organisation can change the hierarchy dramatically. For instance, if salary is not provided as

expected, the motivation of an employee might not be present even if the need for self-actualisation is achieved.

We have many common needs as humans. We react to things differently since we have different personality and values, as such we are motivated by different things. Organisations can do several things to enhance motivation but since we react and value things differently, personal traits can predict and influence job performance and satisfaction (Latham, 2012). These traits can be described by the “five-factor model”. The five-factor model (McCrae & Costa, 1997; Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003) consists of five basic dimensions: (1) Openness to experience or intellect, imagination or culture. People with high openness are willing to try new things and to question authorities and the established. People with low openness thrive with routine work and predictability, and are more conservative and conventional. (2) Conscientiousness or will to achieve. People with high degree of conscientiousness will strive to achieve external expectations, and are reliable and determined. People with low conscientiousness are more unorganized, spontaneous and unreliable. (3) Extraversion or surgency. People with high extraversion enjoys interaction with other people and social settings. Introverts on the other hand have low social engagement and are more reserved and independent. People low on extraversion are more reserved and do not have the same urge to assert themselves. (4) Agreeableness or antagonism. People with high agreeableness are trustworthy and willing to compromise their own interests with others. People low on agreeableness put their self-interests higher than others and are more unpleasant, argumentative and challenging, resulting in lower cooperation skills. (5) Neuroticism or emotional stability. People with high neuroticism are emotionally reactive and vulnerable to stress. They are more pessimistic, unstable and react negatively to pressure. People low in neuroticism are calm, emotionally stable and are more confident.

The value and variance in these five dimensions can predict the job characteristic and job design. In some jobs extraversion is highly valued, but in other jobs emotional stability may be of great importance. Organisations can benefit of having open and extraverted employees in sales and customer relations. While having analysts and engineers which have traits towards emotional stability and surgency in the operating core of the organisation, can be an advantage for the organisation. However, Sackett and Walmsley (2014) found that attributes related to conscientiousness and agreeableness are in average the most important traits in a workplace. The “five-factor model” can describe personality and predict behaviour, but the model has

received criticism for its generality. The model or parts of the model might not be applicable in all cultures and societies, nevertheless the “big five” is widely renowned and used as a taxonomy for personality (Latham, 2012). Employees personal traits and personalities are not examined in this study. However, personal traits affect the perception of oneself and the environment and will have influence on employee motivation for performing a task. Ryan and Deci (2017) suggest three personal orientation concepts to help explain why people have different task motivation: the first concept is the *autonomy orientated* person. These people feel that they can decide their work tasks themselves and are internally motivated to perform a task. The second concept is the *control orientated* person. These people feel the social context instructive and controlling and are motivated externally to perform tasks. The third concept is the *impersonal orientated* person. These people do not feel either external nor internal motivation, have low self-esteem and a tendency towards amotivation (Gagnè & Deci, 2005; Mikkelsen, 2016, p.45). Further to these three concepts derived from personal traits, motivation can be divided in two larger sources: extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Intrinsic motivation comes from the need to be competent and self-determining, where motivation lies in the work itself, and the meaning and purpose of the work. Extrinsic motivation is the monetary, material, and social rewards of the work (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation both have a saying in employee motivation for work (Rose 2003; Clark 2005) and thus have influence on the work performance. This understanding is developed further in the self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2017; Deci & Ryan, 2000) which have its roots from psychology, and is an empirical based organismic theory of human behaviour and personal development (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

With reference to the three personal traits described above, the self-determination theory (SDT) can be related to personality and traits. However, SDT is also categorised as a theory with focus on behaviour and needs (Ryan & Deci, 2017). From this, SDT can be understood as a bridging theory, tying together and connecting the two first motivational variables from Latham (2012). Namely, needs and personal traits. SDT argues that humans have innate psychological needs that are essential for growth, integrity and well-being. These needs are nutriment for motivation and internalisation, and are need for autonomy, competence and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2017; Deci & Ryan, 2000). *Autonomy* is defined as when the behaviour is self-endorsed or congruent with the interests and values of the person. Some actions are truly self-regulated, and others are regulated by external forces. *Competence* is the basic need for feeling mastery, but this feeling can be ruined by negative feedback or too difficult tasks and goals. *Relatedness*

is the satisfaction of being connected to others and function socially, people are satisfied and motivated when they feel cared for by others or have a feeling of significance among others (Ryan & Deci, 2017). SDT have autonomy as a core concept (Ryan & Deci, 2006), and argues that people with high degree of autonomy increase the effort and persistence on a task when empowerment is increased. The critics of the SDT are mainly focused on the nature of the autonomy and its limits. A misconception is to synonym autonomy with independence, autonomy in SDT is the experience of self-governance and not necessarily independence (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2006).

Extrinsic rewards are important motivators and used correctly they can enhance motivation (Gagnè & Deci, 2005). Rewards can also be a necessity for organisations to ensure that certain tasks are performed. SDT describes this as an extrinsic motivation which is externally regulated and controlled. The external regulation can also be perceived as a value which is important for the person, and the task can then be internalised and performed relatively autonomously or with a certain intrinsic motivation (Mikkelsen, 2016, p.45). An example can be made from goal-setting in an organisation. Self-participation and support in goal setting, and feedback on the progress for attaining the goal, drives the internalisation and turns an external goal to an internalised goal with an intrinsic motivation to achieve. SDT argues that when attaining autonomous and intrinsic valued goals the satisfaction and motivation increase. Controlled extrinsic goals, on the other hand, are negatively associated with satisfaction and yield no or marginal gains on motivation. This is because intrinsically valuable goals are more directly associated with people's fundamental psychological needs (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

The more the task has been internalised, the more it is turned from a controlled motivation with external regulation, to an autonomous self-determined behaviour (Gagnè & Deci, 2005). The amount of control measures can become excessive when the autonomy and intrinsic motivation increase. However, intrinsic, and different types of extrinsic motivation, often occur simultaneously in a person's motivation to perform a task (Ryan & Deci, 2017). This is illustrated in the continuum in Figure 2-3. The amotivation to the left side have zero self-determination and the tasks here gives no meaning or interest. All the way to the right side is the intrinsic motivation which is fully self-determined. The continuum shows the relation between self-determination, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, and how extrinsic motivation can influence the autonomous motivation through internalisation (Ryan & Deci, 2006). Figure 2-3 shows how the previous mentioned external regulated organisational goal can start on the

left side of the figure, and end up on the right side when it is internalised and perceived meaningful. When people are on the right side in the continuum, they need lower amount of extrinsic motivation to perform the tasks and perform well. The continuum in Figure 2-3 illustrates the concept of internalisation and self-determination, and how extrinsic motivation can affect intrinsic motivation. The figure does not illustrate the amount and type of extrinsic motivation necessary to get people on the left side over to the right side. Those variables are individual and people with low level of intrinsic motivation may need higher level of external regulations to perform well (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2011).

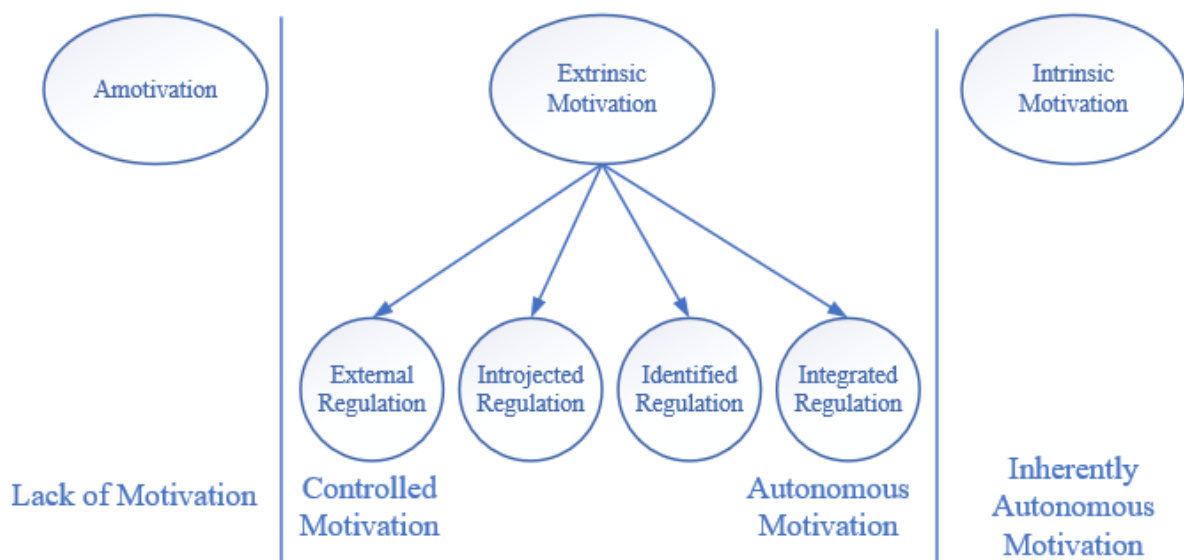


Figure 2-3 – Self-Determination Continuum (from Gagnè & Deci, 2005, p.336)

SDT is developed empirically over the years and consequently the theory can be divided in mini-theories. One of the mini-theories is the Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET). This mini-theory is of interest since it focuses on the intrinsic motivation and how extrinsic motivation, such as feedback, can affect the intrinsic motivation. CET argues that events which negatively affect a person’s experience of competence or autonomy, will undermine intrinsic motivation. On the opposite side, positive experience of autonomy and competence will enhance intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Moreover, CET suggests that intrinsic motivation is further enhanced when people feel a connection to others, and argues for relatedness to also play a role in enhancing the intrinsic motivation, especially in a social context (Ryan & Deci, 2017). CET also suggests how extrinsic and intrinsic motivation can work against each other where

extrinsic motivation can undermine intrinsic motivation. The balance between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation can be illustrated through an example of monetary bonus scheme: If an employee receives an unexpected monetary bonus for a task or job, the employee's intrinsic motivation for the current task is not affected, since the bonus was unexpected. However, the bonus can diminish the intrinsic motivation for future similar tasks since the extrinsic motivation can be felt as controlling (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

The monetary bonus can be defined as an external reward and as feedback on the task or job performed. CET suggests that positive feedback in general enhance intrinsic motivation, but if an employee perceive oneself as competent, salient positive feedback can be perceived as controlling, thus diminishing intrinsic motivation. Corrective or negative feedback on a specific task or activity can also enhance intrinsic motivation. However, not if the negative feedback diminishes the perceived competence (Ryan & Deci, 2017). This suggests that any feedback which is experienced as controlling will diminish intrinsic motivation (Hewett & Conway, 2016). Feedback is better received when it comes from trusted sources. The effectiveness from feedback is impacted by how specific and accurate it is, and how rapidly and consecutively it is given (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1993; Mikkelsen, 2016, p.58). This argues for how the intent and the perceived intent of the feedback affect intrinsic motivation. The monetary bonus scheme example can illustrate this: A bonus is normally given by others. If there is a good and healthy relation to the employee, and the bonus is perceived with good intentions and not as a control of behaviour, it most likely will not diminish the intrinsic motivation. This example also illustrates how relatedness affect intrinsic motivation. Nonetheless, a rule of thumb for negative versus positive feedback is suggested as: positive feedback enhance competence and increase intrinsic motivation, while negative feedback diminish competence and decrease intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

Needs and personal traits regulates people's behaviour. The degree of intrinsic motivation is regulated by a person's values, and autonomous behaviour arises when the activity is aligned with their values. Values determine the perception of what is right and wrong, if there is lack of intrinsic motivation the person's values will regulate the behaviour (Mikkelsen, 2016, p.46). This can be illustrated by the continuum in Figure 2-3. If a person moves from the left side and over to the right side, the value in the extrinsic motivation and regulation is perceived as important for the person. Hackman and Oldham (1976) argue in their job-characteristic theory that the context determines employee's behaviour. An organisation can therefore benefit from

influencing employee's behaviour through a set of organisational values. The theory aims to establish what kind of job characteristics and attributes which can foster a meaningful job and internal work motivation (Oldham & Hackman, 2010), and propose 5 core job characteristics: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. An interesting point in this theory is the substantial weight autonomy and feedback is given. The theory states that if either autonomy or feedback is low, the outcome will be low regardless of the value on the other job characteristics (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). A prerequisite in the theory, is that people have the skills and knowledge to perform the job, and values opportunities for personal growth and development at work. Latham & Pinder (2005) found that autonomy is only important where the work is not routine or predictable. In addition, the theory focuses on independent individual work without accommodating social factors (Oldham & Hackman, 2010).

People's needs form the foundation for their actions, but their personalities and values affect how they create goals and how they achieve them (Latham, 2012). Motivation and performance can be achieved through goals, and the goal-setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990) describes that better performance is achieved, when goals are specific and when they are high stretching goals. Goals affect action in three ways (Latham, 2012, p.194): (1) Goals affect the facts that people choose to act on, and regulates the direction of, action and behaviour towards what is relevant for the goal. (2) Values and goals affect the intensity of action by focusing on the importance of the goal, the more important a goal is the more energy and effort is put in to achieving the goal. (3) Goals affect persistence to attain them and affect the resources we are willing to use and source. The goal setting theory influence people's motivation since it provides choice, effort and persistence (Latham & Kinne, 1974). The goal-setting theory is related to other motivation theories which tries to predict behaviour, such as equity theory (Adams, 1963) and expectancy theory (Vroom, 1995). Equity theory is primarily focused on extrinsic motivation and how people compare their outcome with others. The theory is limited however, it has empirical evidence and can be used when evaluating performance and salary in a high-performance culture. The expectancy theory provides a more cognitive approach. This theory focus on what is expected as a value of the outcome, compared to the perception of input and effort. There is a cognitive perception of what a certain effort will generate, and that the outcome is achievable. Critics of the theory question people's rationality and cognitive ability when making decisions (Locke, 1975). Nevertheless, the expectancy theory can be used by leaders in organisations to acknowledge the cognitive resources used by people when

analysing situations, and how they balance their efforts based on their beliefs and expectations of the outcomes and results. Despite criticism and limitations in the equity theory and expectancy theory, these theories illuminate the fact that people use time and effort trying to predict outcomes and argue that motivation is influenced by individual comparison and beliefs. The bonus scheme example can again be used to illustrate this: If an employee receives a highly appreciated and valued bonus, he or she will develop an expectancy of receiving a bonus for a similar task in the future. If the bonus is absent or not as high on future similar tasks, the employee might get demotivated since the bonus is not perceived as a fair or as expected in value. Organisations can solve this by connecting the bonus to a measurable goal, the bonus then becomes the monetary feedback if the goal is achieved. This shows the fragile correlation between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, and how feedback and goal-setting can affect motivation. However, a prerequisite to the goal-setting theory is that knowledge and ability of the goal is necessary (Locke, 2000). Without this prerequisite, goal-setting can have a negative effect on motivation and performance. Hence, there is a diversity between a learning goal and a performance goal. A learning goal is set when the person lacks the ability to perform the task, or the behaviour to achieve the task is unknown. Whereas a performance goal should be set when the person's ability already is in place (Latham, 2012).

A theory that draws the line between cognition and behaviour more clearly is the Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1986). This theory argues that behaviour is a reciprocal interaction among cognitive, behavioural and environmental variables, and further states that the environment both determines and affects a person's conscious intention or goals. Self-efficacy is a variable which plays a critical role in this theory. Self-efficacy is the cognitive belief that one can execute a given behaviour in a given setting (Bandura, 1986). According to Bandura (2001), self-efficacy can influence performances, motivation, and the likelihood to act on the outcomes. Low self-efficacy will make people abandon their goals when things get tough or performance is low, while people with high self-efficacy will have a persistent motivation until the task is achieved (Bandura, 2001). The higher self-efficacy a person has, the higher goals will be set and higher commitment in reaching the goals will be attained (Locke & Latham, 2002).

The goal-setting theory and social cognitive theory both have goals as demands in their theory, and both theories emphasise the importance of feedback as a moderator for the performance. However, there are differences in these theories. Goal-setting theory has more emphasis on

goals specificity, difficulty and content, while social cognitive theory emphasis more on the self-efficacy and outcome expectancy (Latham, 2012). Goal-setting theory further states that the goal commitment and self-management techniques are important factors for achieving the goals, especially the difficult ones (Latham & Locke, 2007; Locke & Latham, 1990; Latham & Locke, 1991).

The model in Figure 2-4 illustrate the relationships between high-performance and satisfied employees. The model argues that high performance is achieved from repetitive cycles through the steps in the model. It all starts with the demands in the model; a challenging high goal which is set on a meaningful task. To be able to set such high goals the person’s self-efficacy must be high. Rewards must be present to satisfy the employee’s needs, and to express the goal attainment, resulting in employee satisfaction. Feedback is a crucial component that can improve satisfaction. The employee satisfaction promotes a willingness to accept future challenges and high goals. Subsequently encourages organisational commitment and high-performance (Locke & Latham, 1990). There are several other mediators and moderators to this model, however the model is simplified to demonstrate the correlations between goals, feedback and rewards. Personal traits are not explicitly illustrated in the model, but personality and traits are implicitly embedded in the feedback as well as in the goal orientation and satisfaction (Latham, 2012).

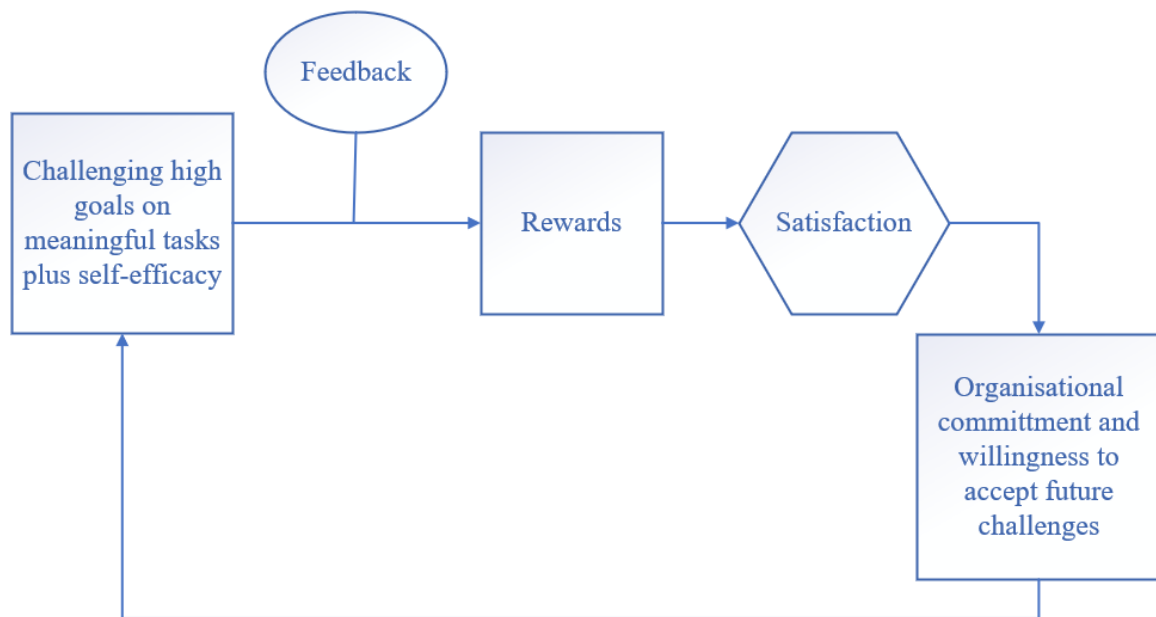


Figure 2-4 – Simplified High-Performance Cycle (from Latham, 2012, p.83)

If the self-efficacy is low, goals set by oneself may not be a challenging high goal, and as such an assigned challenging high goal can give better performance (Locke & Latham, 1990). On the contrary, a too high or too challenging assigned goal may demolish motivation. However, it is not the goal itself which destroy motivation. It is the perception of oneself and the self-efficacy which determine how high the goal is set, how challenging the goal is, and how confident one is in attaining the goal (Latham, 2012). When employees can freely choose tasks, an optimally challenging task, which gives meaning and growth, is selected (Ryan & Deci, 2017). These tasks are found to increase job satisfaction independently of the goal and are therefore a part of the demands in the model. As can be seen from the model in Figure 2-4, feedback influence the effect of the goals.

Goals and feedback strongly correlate with each other and work better together than does separately (Locke & Latham, 2002; Latham & Locke, 2007). Goal-setting without any feedback has minimal effect on behaviour and performance, and vice versa; feedback without goal-setting does not foster performance (Latham et al., 1978; Erez, 1977). Moreover, feedback affects the self-efficacy when it provides information on the progress and degree of mastery on the task (Latham, 2012). This suggests that an organisation with high degree of feedback culture, and with feedback as an integrated part of the organisational system, can achieve better performance and results (Mulder, 2013). But the type of feedback and how it is conveyed plays a pivotal role when determining how much effect feedback has on performance. The focal point of making feedback enhance performance, is the meaning and purpose behind the feedback (Mulder, 2013). If the feedback is related to the task and goals, and towards the self-development of the individual, it can make both negative and positive feedback effective (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Van-Dijk & Kluger, 2004). This type of feedback is supportive and informational, and acknowledge people's feelings and opinions, encouraging choice and participation, it is known as autonomy supportive feedback (Ryan & Deci, 2017). When feedback is constantly received, employees will increase their understanding and knowledge in how they shall perform their tasks, ultimately affecting organisational performance. The informal performance feedback from others can be just as important as feedback on a specific task or goal. However, a prerequisite to this is the organisation's culture promoting and valuing feedback, and the individual feedback orientation (Baker et al., 2013; Dahling et al., 2012).

Feedback can be defined as a dynamic communication process occurring between two individuals, that convey information regarding the receiver's performance, in the

accomplishment of work-related tasks (Baker et al., 2013; Baker, 2010). Individual feedback orientation is related to a combination of individual differences and environmental perceptions, and how feedback is received is related conceptually to personality and individual variables (Ilgen, Fisher & Taylor, 1979; Smither, London & Reilly, 2005; London & Smither, 2002; Dahling et al., 2012). Feedback orientation is an important moderator in how feedback effects performances (Gabriel et al., 2014). Seeking feedback is one of the feedback orientation skills, and it is prominent that feedback seeking behaviour is an element in how frequently the feedback is received and how it is perceived and treated (Ashford, Blatt & Walle, 2003). For instance, when an employee seek feedback on performances, it can give positive effects since this gives an understanding and caring for others impression of oneself (Ashford & Tsui, 1991). A model developed by Smither et al. (2005) suggests several factors to influence performance improvement following feedback. These factors influence and kick-off each other as depicted in Figure 2-5. It all starts with the characteristic of the feedback and how it is delivered. This gives the reactions to the feedback and how it is used in constructing targets and setting goals. Based on this, action is taken. These activities are all influenced by the personality and feedback orientation, and whether there is a perceived need for changing behaviour. The goal-setting and actions will improve performance, if the feedback orientation and personality are positive, and there is an understanding that change is required. The model brings in goal-setting as a central action which argues for the correlation between feedback and goal-setting theory (Latham, 2012). Feedback will increase goal-setting which in turn increase quality and quantity of performance (Latham & Pinder, 2005).

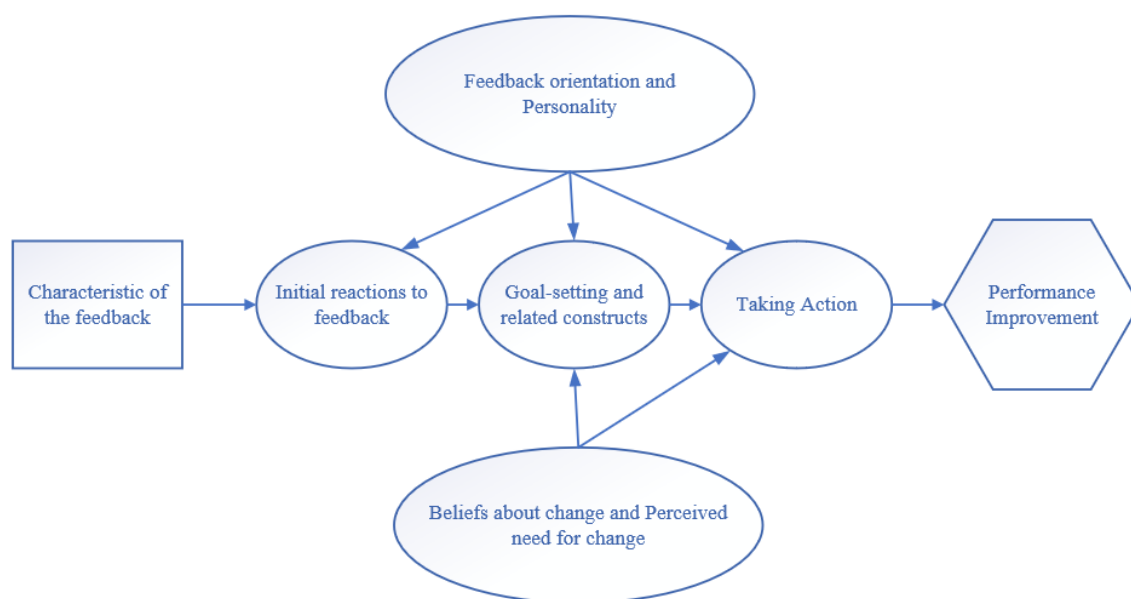


Figure 2-5 – Performance improvement following feedback (from Smither et al., 2005)

Kahneman (2011) divides the cognitive self in two parallel processes: system 1 and system 2. System 1 is the heuristic system that operates automatically and quickly with little or no effort and where emotionally biases decide actions. System 1 saves the complicated and conscious processes, and make humans act quickly based on previous experiences and associations. System 2 requires much more effortful mental activity such as comparison of options, anticipation of outcomes and development of strategies. Both systems work simultaneously and supports each other, while system 2 is the reasoning self we identify with, system 1 may often be decisive based on system 2 beliefs and choices (Kahneman, 2011). Hence, people often rely on system 1 to guide their behaviour even if the behaviour may come from heuristics, biases and cognitive shortcuts. Consequently, the emotions around organisational justice and perception of fairness are important for employee's motivation to work (Latham, 2012).

Organisational justice can be divided in three components (Colquitt et al., 2001): distributive, procedural and interactional. *Distributive justice* is when a person examines its input compared with the experienced outcome. The fairness is then evaluated relative to a comparison of others. *Procedural justice* is when the process and time allocation towards a decision is perceived fair. *Interactional justices* are divided in two types: *interpersonal justices*, when people are treated with politeness and respect, and *informational justices*, when information is provided explaining the outcomes. When confronted by uncertain or unclear situations employees search for answers and knowledge through the procedural and interactional justices. Lack of procedural and interactional justice are found to be primary drivers for stress in a workplace (Judge & Colquitt, 2004). The experience of injustice triggers emotions, especially interactional injustice since this is the most personal type of injustice an employee may experience (Latham, 2012).

Cropanzano et al. (2001) explains why justices matters to people, it is three folded: (1) People are concerned by justices since it is often related to rewards and is in their own economic best interests. (2) If it confirms identity and quality in relation to a group. (3) If it triggers morality and the basic respect for human dignity and worth. Justices provides nutrition to emotions and affect, and if employees feel treated unfairly, or they see others being treated unfair, their commitment will decrease, and their performances drops (Cropanzano, Massaro & Becker, 2017). The perceived justice and fairness in an organisation are affected by emotions from system 1 (Folger, Cropanzano & Goldman, 2005, p.234). System 2 can have an affect where the procedural and informational justice contribute to understanding of an action, which

originally was perceived as unfair. The perceived justices and fairness in an organisation influence employee's motivation, particularly if people feel injustice (Latham, 2012).

As illustrated in the model in Figure 2-4, reward is a central element for satisfaction and commitment. In a job, and when performing tasks, there is typically an agreement between the parties that the work will be rewarded. In addition, rewards are used by organisations as means for controlling behaviour. According to Figure 2-4 satisfaction is directly dependant on the reward based on the goal and task. Work performance is only increased when a person feels satisfaction of the work, commitment to the organisation, and are willing to accept future challenges (Latham, 2012). However, external rewards perceived as unfair can result in dissatisfaction and contribute to a negative cycle of performance and commitment. External rewards provide extrinsic motivation such as salary, acknowledge, status, bonus and privileges (Mikkelsen, 2016, p.61). How these rewards affect effort and persistence is determined to the extent that it satisfies one or more values for the employee (Latham, 2012). All types of extrinsic rewards undermine intrinsic motivation since it channels the attention away from the specific task and over to the rewards, impairing the perception of competence and autonomy (Deci, 1975; Ryan & Deci, 2017). However, verbal and more abstract rewards do not have such negative effects on intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

The expectancy theory (Vroom, 1995) suggests how rewards are perceived by employees, and how an expectancy of higher salary in the future can motivate. However, when the salary is achieved, the motivation for future work decreases and resets. Continuous goal-setting (Locke & Latham, 1990), and keeping the employee in the high-performance cycle (Latham, 2012), is an organisational challenge which have impacts on the performance and employee satisfaction. Employees who feel autonomous at work have higher work motivation, and autonomous supportive feedback surpasses pay as motivator (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

I would like to summarise the theory section with the model in Figure 2-4. The model is a theoretical model for this study and is based on Latham's (2012) High-Performance cycle model. Having employees in the high-performing cycle is a desired vision for many organisations. To be able to reach this vision the organisation must have motivated employees, with the abilities and opportunities to perform (Boxall & Purcell, 2011). Theory suggests that goal-setting and feedback is vital for employee satisfaction and commitment (Latham, 2012).

The first research question in this study is: will the matrix structure have any impact on how the goals are set, perceived and experienced? Since the matrix structure give opportunities for several natural communication channels, it is interesting to study what communication channels which are used for feedback? Further elaborations on feedback are: where is the feedback most appreciated and meaningful, and is feedback practiced on both goals and performance? The second research question in this study is therefore: How is feedback practiced and perceived in the organisation?

Meaningful tasks and self-efficacy, in addition to internal and external rewards, are elements for satisfaction and commitment. Meaningful tasks and rewards can be connected towards intrinsic motivation and the self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Where autonomy, competence and relatedness influence motivation. How is the autonomy experienced in a matrix organisation, and is there a sensible way of control from projects and functional departments? The competence sits in the functional departments in a matrix structure, but how is the individual competence taken care of by the matrix organisation, when people mainly work and develop in the project? Finally, how is relatedness played out in the matrix structure where there are at least two communication lines to relate to? These questions culminate in the third research question in this study: How does the employees experience autonomy, competence and relatedness?

The research questions to be analysed in this study are summarised in the following way:

- How are goals set and incorporated in a matrix structured organisation?
- How is feedback practiced and perceived in a matrix structured organisation?
- How is autonomy, competence and relatedness practiced and perceived in a matrix structured organisation?

3 METHOD

This chapter describe the research design and method for collecting and analysing the empirical data. This chapter will provide transparency through a review on how the research study have been planned and executed, testing the validity and reliability of the study to provide credibility and trustworthiness.

All researchers bring their own theoretical framework, beliefs and philosophical assumptions to the work (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). Ontology, epistemology, and methodology can describe a researcher's set of ideas and framework (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; Busch, 2013). Ontology describes how we see and understand the world, epistemology describes how we grasp the knowledge and ask the questions, while methodology describes how we collect and analyse data. Creswell and Poth (2018) add a fourth dimension which is the axiology, describing the values and biases. Since I am the researcher for this study; I have made efforts to understand these areas, and I have tried to be vigilant conscious of them and how they can affect the study throughout. This chapter aims to give an understanding and transparency around these interpretive frameworks to ascertain the study's validity, reliability and trustworthiness.

This study is a descriptive qualitative single case study with a phenomenological perspective. My interpretive view, as a researcher, is that the world is different from whoever eyes we are looking through, and the informant's reality is created through experiences and interactions with others (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018). The study has an abductive approach (Busch, 2013) combining a deductive approach when developing the interview guide, with a more inductive method approach when collecting and analysing the data.

3.1 The organisation

The organisation (DeepOcean) studied is an international offshore service company working in the energy, oil and gas sector. The business case for DeepOcean is to charter in vessels from ship owners and operate mission equipment from these vessels, providing services to Clients. Mission equipment is mainly Remote Operated Vehicles (ROV) which performs diver-less operations subsea. DeepOcean has approximately 1 000 employees worldwide and around 250-300 of these are based in the main office in Norway.

Deep Oceans' vision is: "to become the world leading, subsea services provider". The strategy for reaching this vision is depicted below, where the markets, competences and services are visualised.

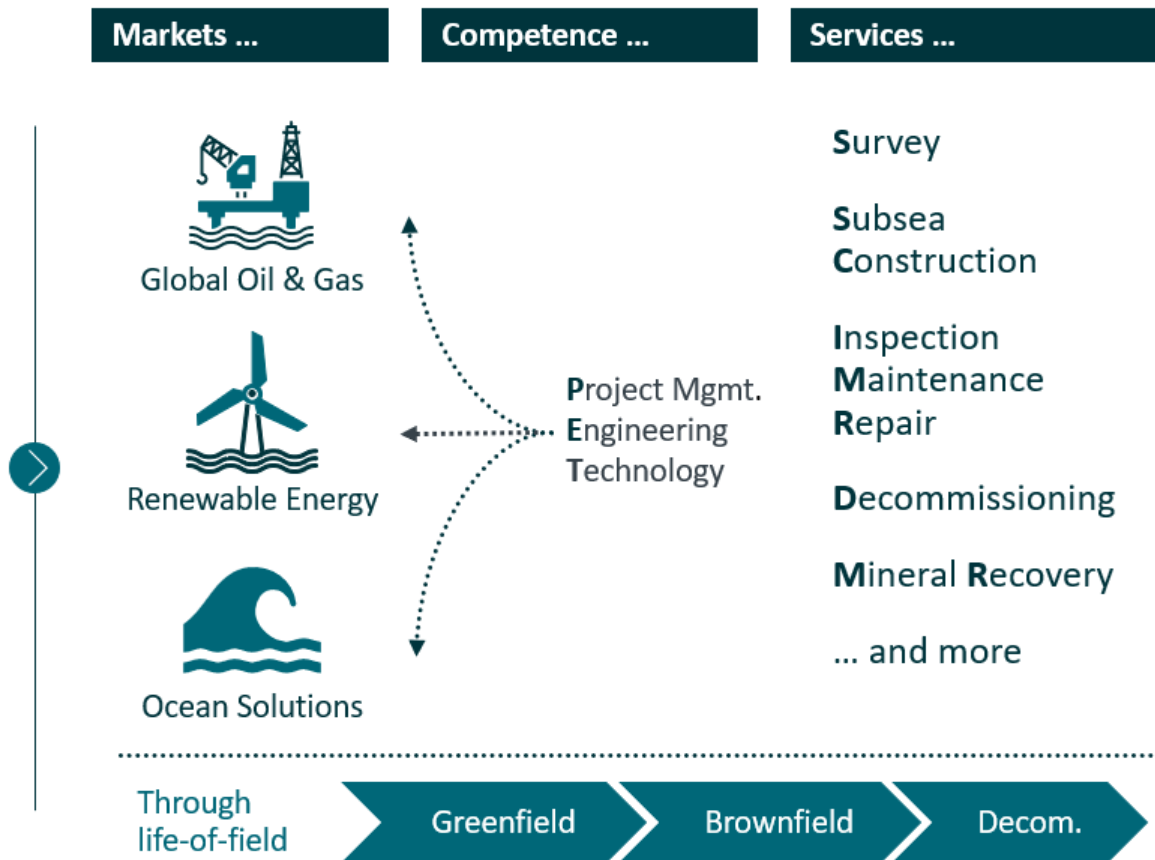


Figure 3-1 – DeepOcean strategic approach

DeepOcean is a project driven organisation with a matrix structure. This case study will focus on the engineering department, which is organised as a matrix structure. The projects diversity is wide; from large projects with many resources going over months or years, to smaller projects which have a life span over days, weeks or months.

A simplified organisation chart showing the engineering department structure build-up is illustrated in Figure 3-2. Approx. number of resources for each position is noted in parentheses.

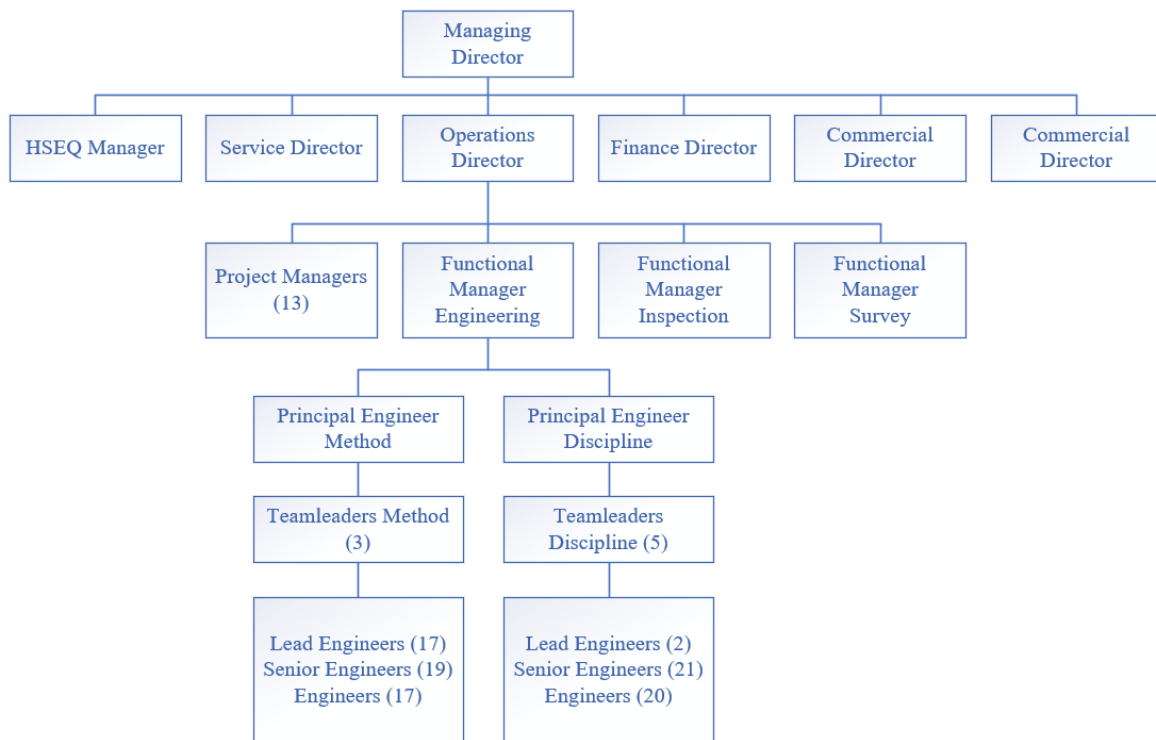


Figure 3-2 – Simplified organization chart for the engineering department

3.2 Research method and design

This study is a single case study (Yin, 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018). Yin (2018, p.15) defines a case study in two parts, where the first part is: “A case study is an empirical method that: investigates a contemporary phenomenon (the “case”) in depth and within its real-world context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident.” This study focuses on contemporary events without requiring any control over behavioural events, and asks “how” questions, this argues for a case study design Yin (2018).

The aim for this study is to abductively understand more around how motivation, feedback and goals are used and perceived in a matrix organisation. This case study is performed with a qualitative research method. Motivation, feedback and goals are wide and vast terms with many definitions, and the theory on these topics shows, among others, that people’s personality, perceptions and personal orientations are moderating and influencing motivation in many ways and directions. A qualitative research design can provide empirical data in natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret phenomena in terms of people’s meanings (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). Moreover, a qualitative study will go closely in towards the informants to try to understand their view from their position in the organisation, with limited intrusion from

research procedure (Yin, 2011). With the above in mind, and since I am interested in understanding the informant's experiences in a specific context, a qualitative research method is chosen (Yin, 2011; Creswell & Poth, 2018).

I collected data through documentation from the organisation (Flick, 2015) and from qualitative research interviews (Brinkmann & Kvale 2018; Kvale et al., 2015). Organisation charts, manuals, procedures and flowcharts are used as supporting and corroborating documentation (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The documents I reviewed and used in this study were among others: organisation charts over the project and engineering departments, flowcharts over working processes in the projects, project manuals and procedures for execution of projects and governing organisational procedures stating the vision and purpose of the organisation. The primary data collection method was the qualitative semi-structured interviews. I chose interviews as primary data collection method since the interviews will provide information on how the informants experience, perceive and understands their life in the organisation, from their point of view (Kvale et al., 2015; Tjora, 2021). As an interviewer, I could ask follow-up questions giving the informant the possibility to specify and interpret meanings and understandings (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2018). This way of interpreting the informants voice through probing questions could not be achieved through other methods of data collection (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2018).

Qualitative semi-structured interviews do not have a strict set of rules to follow, nevertheless Brinkmann and Kvale (2018) suggest seven stages of an interview inquiry which is used as a guidance throughout this study. These stages are described in the following pages.

Thematising

Thematising the study refers to setting up and formulating the research questions and clarifying the why, what and how of the study (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2018). This study started with a purpose (*why*) of investigating motivation, feedback and goals in the context of a matrix organisation. Ending up with a set of research questions describing *what* to investigate, based on theory. The interview guide and analyse methods describe the *how* of the study. In addition to acquiring knowledge of the topic through theory; I chose the method for data analyse prior to conducting the interviews. This contributed to better quality of the data since I could better prepare for the interviews, and had a better foundation for conducting the interviews (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2018).

Designing

The interview informants were selected from the case study boundary, which was the engineering department. The employees in the engineering department works directly in the cross-functional “two-boss” matrix organisation every day, and as such the engineering department fits well as a boundary. The informants were selected by the union representatives with the following specifications: A mix of gender, more than 1-year experience in the organisation, informants shall be chosen from several projects, informants shall not directly report to me in my current position.

When I chose the number of informants to be interviewed, I evaluated the size of the engineering department in a combination of the available time to perform the interviews. The respect towards the informant’s daily work for the organisation, and the time they must allocate to the interview in an already busy work environment was also evaluated. I needed enough informants to ensure rich data and decided, together with my guidance professor, that 10 informants were an appropriate number. The selection specifications provided a balanced range in the informant’s experience, and gave a diversity in the different reporting lines, since the informants have a range of different functional managers and project managers to report to (Yin, 2018). Informants from the reporting line above the engineering department, such as functional managers and project managers, were not selected as informants. The reason for this was that these positions does not have a distinct cross-functional reporting line, and as such they are not within the defined case study context.

Interviewing

The interviews took place in January 2022 and was performed either in a meeting room at Deep Ocean’s facility or digitally with the platform “Microsoft Teams”. The interviews were structured after an interview guide and lasted for approximately one hour. I endeavoured asking the questions as they were written in the semi-structured interview guide, keeping focus on the research questions and avoiding leading the informant in any way (Gioia, Corley & Hamilton, 2013). When conducting the interviews, I was open to digressions and other discussions outside the interview guide if this was within the topic of the study, and not threatening the reliability. The interview guide was written in Norwegian to accommodate for conducting the interviews in the informant’s native language. The interview guide was written based on theory and literature review with the aim to answer the research questions. Nevertheless, the interview guide did not include wordings or phrases from the literature that could lead the informant in

how they express themselves (Gioia et al., 2013). The interview guide was written in an easy and understandable way with open-ended questions on processes, work practice and experiences. The interview guide was the only script I had during the interviews and as such it was a central instrument to gain empirical data (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2018). I started on the interview guide early in the study, and it followed on through the theory review until it was reviewed by my guidance professor. The interview guide was also tested and adjusted after a pilot interview with a colleague in December 2021. The interview guide was approved by NSD before the interviews started and can be found as attachment to this document. The interview guide had an introduction and closure part and was built up in sections. The first section focused on the matrix structure with dual reporting lines, and how this affects relatedness. Further, it focused on how employees are challenged and know what tasks to perform in the project, and how these tasks are prioritised. The second section focused on goal-setting and feedback, and how this is perceived and practiced within the context of a matrix structure. The third section focused on problem solving in projects, how competence is accounted for and how feedback is given and perceived. The last part of the interview guide focused on more general questions around people's motivation. The interviews were conducted with a mindset of an open mind without any prejudice or biases. I tried to be thoughtful and accommodating, but also curious, and I focused on not being judgmental, but structured, flexible and professional (Rachlew, Løken & Bergestuen, 2020).

Each interview started with an introduction where I informed about the purpose of the interview, and around the setup and communication expectations. In the introduction, I explained that I was interested in the informants perceived experiences and meanings, and highlighted that there are no definite nor correct answers. This meta-communication is important when setting the stage for the interview, forming a safe setting which can contribute to better information quality (Rachlew et al., 2020). Doing research in my own organisation can be a threat to the validity, since the informants might not express themselves explicitly or detailed enough when they know that I am a colleague. They may assume that I already know how things work or that I understand what they mean. Another challenge in a qualitative case study can be the biases from the researcher (Yin, 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018). I was aware of these challenges, and mitigated them by listening actively and asking probing follow-up questions. Moreover, I explained to the informants that they needed to be clear and detailed in their answers and see me as an unknown researcher rather than a known colleague (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2018).

Transcribing

Transcribing means to change from one form to another (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2018). In this case the transcribing process was to transform the verbal interviews to written text. I did the transcriptions myself to avoid differences in interpretations. As a result, I came closer to the empirical data. This was an advantage when analysing the transcribed data. When conducting the interviews, I noted down some guidewords or categorisations which I used during the coding and analysis. However, I did not have high focus on making notes since the interviews were recorded. I focused more on being present and alert during the interviews, to be able to catch the implicit messages, and probe them out with further detailed follow-up questions (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2018; Kvale et al., 2015). With respect to the time bound in this study and with respect to the informant's time allocations, the transcriptions were not sent back to the informants for a read-through and approval. Information about this decision was communicated prior to the interview and the informant could request a read-through after transcription, however none of the informants requested this. NVivo was used as software when transcribing the interviews, and the interviews were listened to several times during transcription to ensure the validity (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2018; Kvale et al., 2015).

Analysing

NVivo was also used as software when analysing the empirical data. The method for analysing data was by use of the "Gioia method" (Gioia, 2021; Gioia et al., 2013). This method provides rigor and quality to the analysis and gives an insight and transparency to the analysis of the qualitative data (Gioia et al., 2013).

After the transcription of all the interviews, the data analyse started with finding codes while reading through the transcriptions. These codes were: key words, sentences, phrases, statements and meanings which made sense and seemed important. The codes were saved and sorted in NVivo. There was no threshold for number of codes to be made, and I ended up with 287 statements and phrases distributed in 88 codes. These codes are defined as 1st order categories by Gioia et al. (2013). The 1st order codes represent the informants voice and interpretations, not theory and literature (Gioia, 2021; Gioia et al., 2013). My own prejudices or confirmation biases was not to colour the narrative, however I compressed sentences into a relevant densification of meaning from the informants (Kvale et al., 2015). The next step in the data analyse was to merge the codes in the 1st order categories to relevant 2nd order themes, making them more manageable. In this phase I merged codes which had similarities and

relevance to each other, with or without guidance from the literature. It is in this phase the theory and literature are brought in to shed a light on the observed phenomena (Gioia, 2021; Gioia et al., 2013). Once the 1st order categories were merged into 2nd order themes the analyse continued in further collecting and distilling the 2nd order themes into 2nd order aggregated dimensions (Gioia et al., 2013). The aggregated dimensions are not a new step or a 3rd order, it is more a collection of the 2nd order themes in relevant groups (Gioia, 2021). The final step of the data analyse method was to build a data structure from 1st order categories to 2nd order themes, to 2nd order aggregated dimensions. The data structure visualises the analyse method and give transparency, demonstrating the rigor and quality in this qualitative study (Gioia et al., 2013).

Ethical considerations

My current position in the studied organisation is Project Manager. This position has a certain authority and power, and since I have been in the organisation for over 14 years, I know the organisation, and many of the employees well. I may possess an inherent power due to my position, and this can be a threat to the quality of the interviews as the power balance may influence the communication (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2018; Rachlew et al., 2020). The informant selection process, the interview guide and my awareness on these challenges while conducting the interviews mitigate this threat and contributed to a better quality of the data. This study is approved by “*Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig Datatjeneste*” (NSD) and the principles and guidelines from “*Nasjonale Forskningsetiske Komiteer*” was be adhered to throughout the study: Respect, Good consequences, Justice and Integrity. The study has full confidentiality, and the informants was thoroughly informed about the study purpose, and information around the study prior to inviting them to the interview. NSD’s template for information and consent was used when informing about the study and getting consent from the informants. The consent was digitally signed by the informants prior to the interviews. An “open ended” invitation was sent out for each interview, which meant that the informant could decline the interview without any reason. This could be done prior to or after the interview was performed, and the interview would then either not be conducted, or the interview data would be deleted and removed from the study. One informant exercised this right.

Verifying

Verifying the study and the interview inquiry was done through verifying the validity, reliability and generalisations of the study (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2018). This can also be

referred to as the quality of the study (Yin, 2018). The validity and reliability permeate this study and is ascertained in the design and method chosen, and are as such described implicitly throughout. The quality of this case study is valid through usage of multiple sources of information, and the informants was chosen from groups in the organisation where the matrix is at its most clear and distinct version. The validity can be divided in internal validity and external validity; the internal validity tests the data analysis while the external validity tests the research design (Yin, 2018).

Internal validity was in this case study tested through the rigorous inductive data analyses from the “Gioia method”. It is common to criticise qualitative studies for its grade of rigor (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Gioia, 2021; Gioia et al., 2013), this method will ascertain rigor and reliability. When paraphrasing and generalising the data, the biases and interpretive framework of the researcher is a challenge since this may influence the coding process. The Gioia method mitigate this, and I focused on the meaning and message in the generalisation to avoid losing the informants view and voice. Further to this, it should be noted that I have not performed qualitative research interviews and analysis previously, and I was alert towards my own experiences, and biases or prejudices I might have. However, the biases are often lurking in without noticing. To ensure the quality and validity of the study I used the “PEACE” method when preparing for and conducting the interviews. “PEACE” stands for: Preparation and Planning (P), Engage and Explain (E), Account probing and challenge (A), Closure (C), Evaluation (E). The “PEACE” method is a recognised ethical interview method based on research and knowledge from psychology, which also provided a high quality and trustworthy method for gathering data (Rachlew et al., 2020).

External validity in this case study was tested through a descriptive single case study, with a phenomenological view and with an abductive approach. The research questions were supported by reviewing theory, and the theory established empirical and theoretical propositions for the interview guide, testing the validity (Yin, 2018). The reliability of this case study was tested through the transparency of the design and methodology, and analysis of data. This case study is described in such detail that the study shall be possible to repeat and compare results. The empirical result in this study is compared to literature and theory to test the reliability and validity of the study (Yin, 2018).

4 RESULTS

The collected qualitative data were analysed according to the research method and design. After analysing the results, I ended up with the three aggregated dimensions which can be seen in Figure 4-1 below: autonomous collaboration, competence development and work motivation.

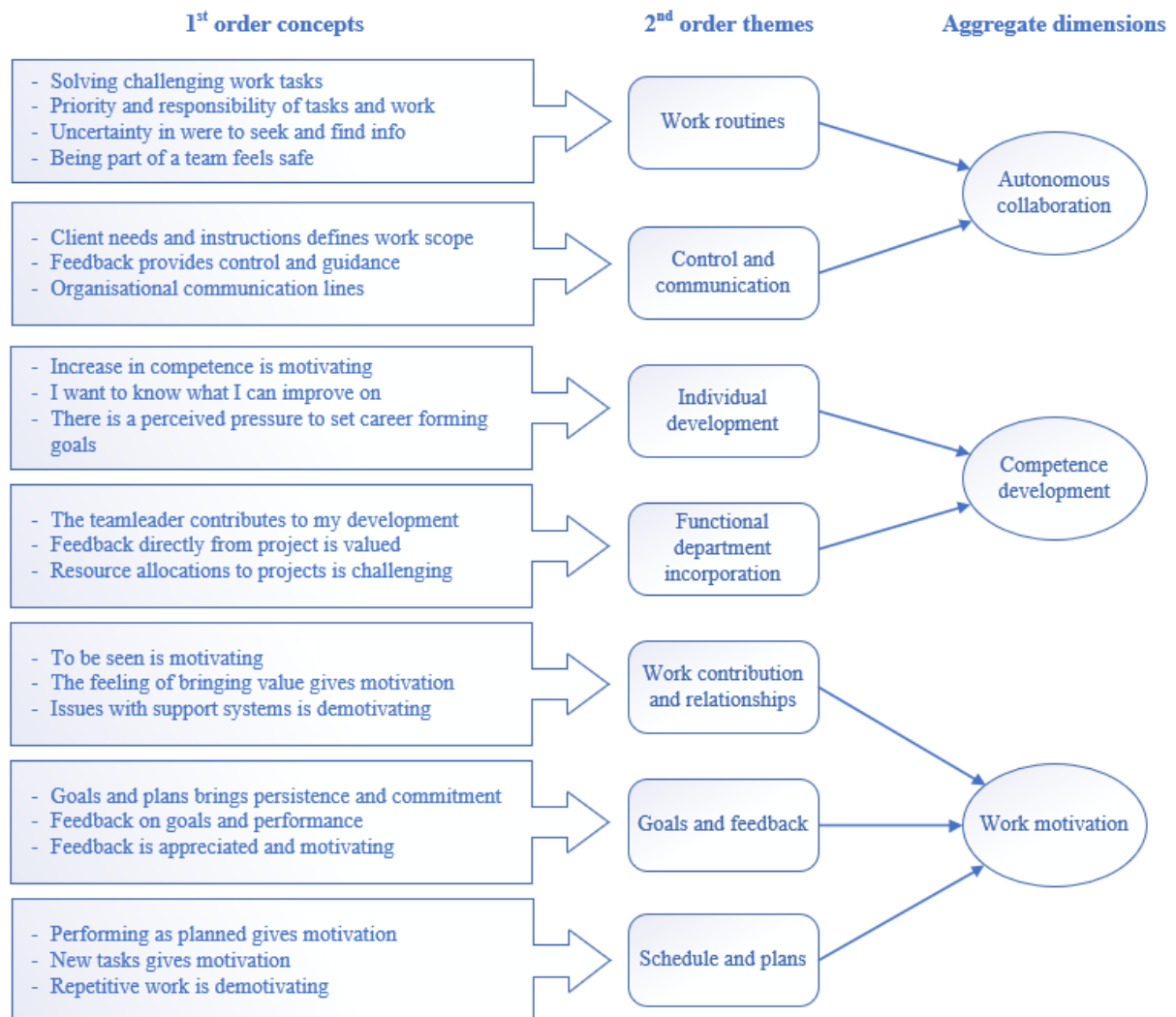


Figure 4-1 – study results from analysis

4.1 Autonomous collaboration

This section describes the experience of responsibility in the organisation and how tasks are prioritised. Further to this, informants describe their experience of being part of a team and project, and how they perceive instructions and communication in the organisation. These types of experiences and stories from the informants are sorted under the aggregated dimension *autonomous collaboration*.

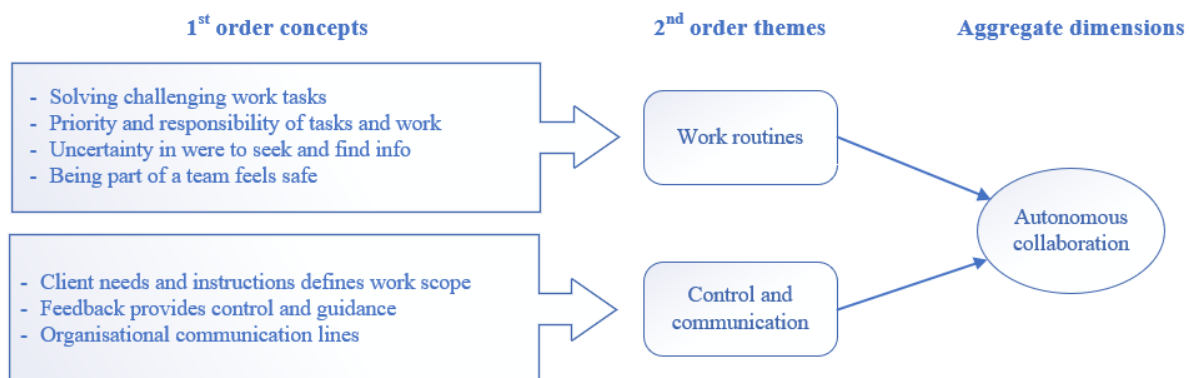


Figure 4-2 – Aggregated dimension: autonomous collaboration

The theme *work routines*, describe how informants experience work task responsibility and prioritisations, and how this is perceived in project teams. Challenging work tasks are a natural part of the work, and is described by one informant below:

“I get challenges all the time. When challenges arise, it is not someone from one notch higher than you who just comes and takes it and fix the problem and gives the job back to you. You need to fix the problems yourself and that is challenging.”

One informant perceives the given responsibility as follows:

“When you get a large job and maybe less follow-up from the project leaders, it means that you run mini-projects your own way, and that I am responsible for that package. Then you have more responsibility, and that is in a way what presents the challenges.”

The informants perceive the trust and responsibility in the organisation as described by an informant as:

“I am responsible for something, and I feel that in our organisation there is a great deal of confidence that you can do it, and then you use the channels you have for questions you cannot answer. So, in that sense, I feel consistently challenged.”

Further to this, solving the tasks assigned is described as:

“It does not feel like it is something authoritarian; do this and do that. You have quite a lot of leeway, but it’s my area of responsibility and I can take it up with the project leader when problems arise. The instructions are clear from the start: this is your area of responsibility, this is what you should do.”

The informants describe the experience of work tasks prioritisation as:

“Essentially, it is the engineer who prioritises his / her own tasks by virtue of him / her knowing what we are to deliver, and what steps we are going through. If it is a fresh engineer, he/she gets a little more support from the managers, but it is the engineers themselves who run the jobs.”

The prioritisation of tasks is described by one informant below:

“You have quite free leashes in relation to how you set up the path and plan. As long as you relate to what you are to achieve and deliver, then it is up to you how you set up the race. You are eventually assigned tasks from the manager, who becomes part of the job and the total package, for which you are responsible.”

The work routines can also be experienced as this informant describes it:

“It’s a little stressful in a way, you’re a little scared of having overlooked something, you do not know the scope of what you are working on when you work on it, the road becomes while you work. So, then you just must try to talk to those who have experience. I notice that the more I talk to people, the more things come up. Have we thought about this? shall we look at this? Etc. This can be a bit challenging when the structure is as it is.”

The experience of responsibility and routines is described as:

“It is my responsibility to find out who I can talk to and get info from. It's a slightly vulnerable system since I'm dependent on the people who did it last time, so it's a bit like I must call and discuss a lot with them, and it's not given that those people have time or capacity. In those cases, I feel that a lot falls on the individual engineer finding the way forward. Then there are the things you do not know you have to look at, and as long as you do not know that you should look at, then you do not look at it. So, you kind of have to be told by someone that you have to think about this, if you do not have thought about it yourself.”

“I feel that I am good at getting help from people who have experience and competence to cope with the challenges I get. It is something I have learned along the way, that you have to rely on people when you cannot do it yourself.”

The engineers in the matrix structure sometimes work on several projects at the same time, and this is experienced as described below:

“We are on the same team as the projects. But for example, I can start on a task and then this is put on hold by the project because they are waiting for something. Then I go to the teamleader and say that I am free and have free capacity, and I get assigned a new task. 2 weeks into the new task, the first project comes back and wants me to continue the task. Then suddenly two big projects need my help. Then I feel quite stupid, and I must apologize to the projects that I do not have enough time to deliver everything as originally promised. I do my best, but there will be a certain juggling of tasks that will affect one project or both projects' deadlines.”

This brings us over to how informants experience working in teams and projects, and how challenges and tasks are solved in teams. This is described by one informant as:

“Challenges that motivate me are the types of challenges about involving several people, and that you work as a group towards one goal. That you can involve people

around you and work together to solve bigger problems, that's what makes it fun. Working with people to get a team spirit and that you contribute to the team, and that people come together to solve things, that is what I find the most motivating.”

Working in team is described by one informant as:

“I am motivated by being included and getting a feeling that you are part of the team, instead of just doing the tasks you are assigned. The more team spirit I get the more motivated I become. It is not very motivating if you do not have someone to spar with or someone to work with. You get the feeling that everyone is pulling in the same direction to get the project started, that’s motivating.”

The experience of working in projects are described in statements below:

“We back each other up and motivate each other with 'come on, let’s make this happen' and that’s very motivating to be a part of.”

“I get a lot of motivation from people around me and from the team.”

Solving tasks in teams is described in these statements:

“If there are any challenges then you have a whole team around it, even if it is someone who has the main responsibility, you are in a way a team that works together to solve the challenges, and I think that is very motivating. that you are not alone but part of a united team.”

The informants experience the involvement in teams as:

“I feel that I am listened to and feel that I can freely express my opinions and priorities, and that it is listened to. I feel that I am heard, even though it is not me who makes the decisions, but I feel that I am heard in the project.”

The work instructions and the scope of work from the Clients defines what shall be done, but not how it shall be performed. How these instructions are perceived and handled is described

under the theme: *control and communication*. The below statement describes how the work starts and is controlled:

“I have good control over what area of responsibility I have in my job, that's pretty straightforward. First, I look through the contract and the Scope of Work. What conditions do we have? Where is our responsibility?”

Further to this, the statement below describes the work to be done:

“When I plan the way forward, I have received info from the customer and that is the information I follow and use to plan the job. Internally, I do not have much info and I have not heard anything from my managers about anything I have to follow.”

The perceived control and instruction of the work is described as follows:

“I follow what the customer requires, I must follow the contract. Also, when the customer asks for something, we have to follow it.”

“When the customer says something or wants something, we have to prioritise it.”

Further to this, performance feedback is used to control and communicate in the organisation, and feedback on the work performance is experienced as described by the informants below:

“Feedback is, for example in a review. If one document is not good enough, one does not get feedback directly, but one gets a lot of comments on the document through a review.”

“In the project, I have an action tracker that I go through internally with the project leaders, and one which I go through with the customer. So, during the week there are quite a few status meetings, not necessarily feedback, but status of how one is doing and what I must work with.”

Feedback in the projects is experienced as described in the statement below:

“In the project, it would have been nice to get feedback at least when you have done a large job. It would have been nice with feedback to know what the project thinks of the job I have done. This might not be necessary on smaller projects, but it would have been nice to get feedback on how I have worked.”

Experiences of corrective or negative feedback is described in the informant’s statements below:

“I would prefer that things are taken up relatively early if there’s something wrong or if the project is dissatisfied with something, then I would like them to take it up right away. Whether it's routines or something you do, it's just nice that it's brought up.”

“I would rather hear feedback from the project, also corrective. At the end or halfway through the project, we could have a chat about status and feedback.”

The informants describe their experiences in receiving feedback from project as:

“I really appreciate when I get feedback from the project, then it does not matter if it is a long time until the next development dialogue.”

“It is feedback from the project that is best, because it is more specific to what you have worked on. From the department, there is more generic feedback, but not the specific on exactly what you have done.”

Informants describe their experience of feedback from leaders in the project as follows:

“I think it would have been better if you had received direct feedback from those you work with daily, typically the leaders in the project. Then you can in a way have a follow-up and ask a few questions around the meaning of the feedback, it becomes more direct.”

4.2 Competence development

This section describes how informants experience their development in the organisation, and how they experience organisational support from teamleaders¹ and projects. These stories are collected in the aggregated dimension *competence development*.

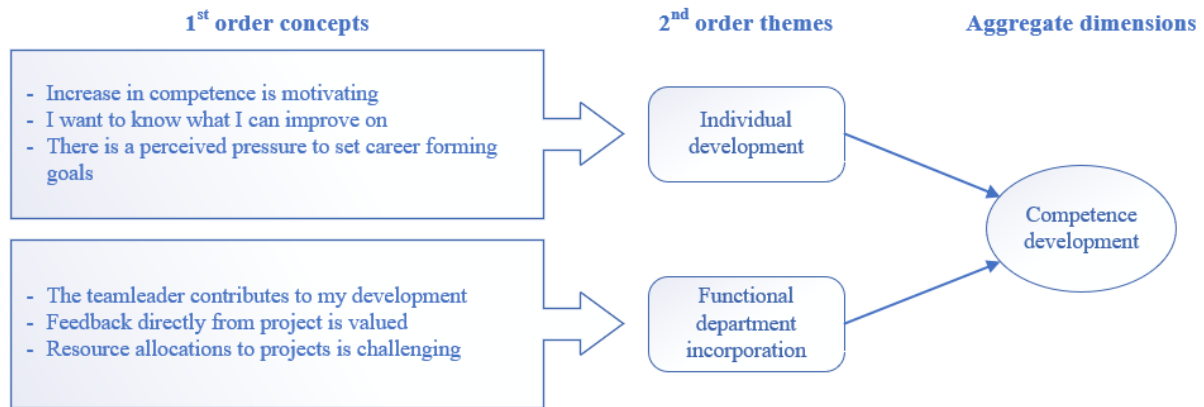


Figure 4-3 – Aggregated dimension: competence development

The informant's experiences on their development are described further in the theme *individual development*, where one informant describes the individual development as:

“It is motivating to be able to do something you want to work with, and that you work with something you like and enjoy. Not least, to work with something that gives you development and competence.”

Developing individually is described as:

“I have not been to many courses, but I am free to choose courses I want to take if I have the time. The problem is that we do not have time.”

¹ Teamleaders have personnel responsibility for groups in the departments and performs the development dialogues. Reference is made to Figure 3-2.

Further to this the individual development is experienced as described below:

“I have not yet been told what I can improve on after I started in the company. There is always something I master better than other things, and I think it would have been important to get info about that early, so that I can work on those things.”

An example of individual developing is the opportunity to travel offshore on vessels and fulfil a slightly different engineering role on a vessel. This task was described by informants as:

“I think it's motivating to travel offshore to find out what it's like to work there as an engineer and be safe there, it's motivating. it is challenging to be a project engineer there, because there are completely different routines and different ways of working than onshore.”

“Offshore, then you are... Not alone, but you may work a little alone on night shifts, for example. There you feel more of the responsibility, and it is motivating to feel that you get enough experience to master it and travel offshore and be confident there.”

One informant shares this experience regarding individual development:

“If you have achieved one level on the career ladder and thrive there, you still have to find 3 goals, and when you are measured afterwards on those goals, it has not always been a good experience. So, I have found typical goals that are simple, and not challenging. I feel that I set goals only because the company wants me to and think afterwards that it does not work anyway.”

How the individual career path is experienced is described by one informant as:

“We are asked to make goals, we have to come up with some goals. Then we are forced to come up with goals once a year. If you just wanted to work on exactly what you were doing, it kind of get a little weird, because you must have goals! I have struggled a bit with that because if you have one level in the career ladder and thrive there, I still have to find 3 goals.”

This is further described by another informant:

“It is difficult to come up with something specific and measurable. I think it's awful. It's almost like being encouraged to become a project manager within 5 years and things like that. One should always want something like that, but I am happy here I am. I think I have good enough challenges here and have no ambitions to become a leader, and then it is difficult to find goals.”

The process of making corporate goals to individual goals is experienced as described in statement below:

“The goals in the organisation flow down from the top and down to us, and then you must find some goals that suits. At group level those goals make sense and I agree with these, there are lots of good goals. But when it comes down to the individual level I struggle, it is difficult to quantify goals. I understand the way of thinking and I understand that we should be involved, but I struggle more with how I concretely measures and sets it up.”

The individual development is handled and facilitated through the functional department. This is described in the theme: *functional department incorporation*. It is the teamleader who have the formal personnel responsibility and who performs the development dialogues. One informant describes how the interaction with the teamleader is perceived:

“Last time I had a meeting with the teamleader, I announced that I was interested in working on a construction project and then a few months passed, and the wish was fulfilled. I have also wished to travel offshore and shortly afterwards I have been offered a trip. So, my experience with this is that my teamleader has taken my wishes further and it has given results.”

The teamleader have control of the personnel plans and the department have a certain power in what projects people end up in. This is experienced by the informants as stated below:

“I always feel like I can go to my department and say that; now I want to change projects or now I want a new experience.”

“If I have wishes for my development in the future, I take these with my teamleader and not with the project. Regarding wishes for the future and what projects I want to be involved in, and what type of workday I want to have, then I bring it up to the teamleader and not the project.”

One informant experiences the functional department dialogue with regards to project allocation as follows:

“In relation to wishes for the type of project I want to work on and that type of things, I feel listened to by the department. I think it is a very good thing, that you develop competence in the field you work in.”

The informants have an understanding regarding what questions or actions to assign or discuss with functional department and what to bring up in the project. The informants describe the understanding as:

“There are certain things you bring up with the teamleader, and certain things you bring up with the project.”

“Holidays and long-term development goals, go to the teamleaders.”

“I take personnel matters to the teamleader.”

Another informant experiences the split between project and functional department as described below:

“It's confusing to know who to relate to, but in the long run it feels relatively natural when you get used to the structure. That you are a resource that is leased to the project, and so day-to-day things are within the projects and larger questions are directed to the teamleader and to the department.”

The informants experience teamleaders time allocations as described through the following statements:

“I feel that the teamleader does not have time to understand my situation and help me.”

“It may have something to do with the teamleaders not having time, and they drown a bit when it's busy. It works better when I have a teamleader who is more dedicated to the teamleader position and has time for me.”

4.3 Work motivation

This section describes the informant’s experiences in contributing to the organisation, and how relationships in a matrix organisation is experienced. Further, the experience of goals and feedback and how schedules and plans affect motivation is described in this section. These stories and experiences are collected under the aggregated dimension *work motivation*.

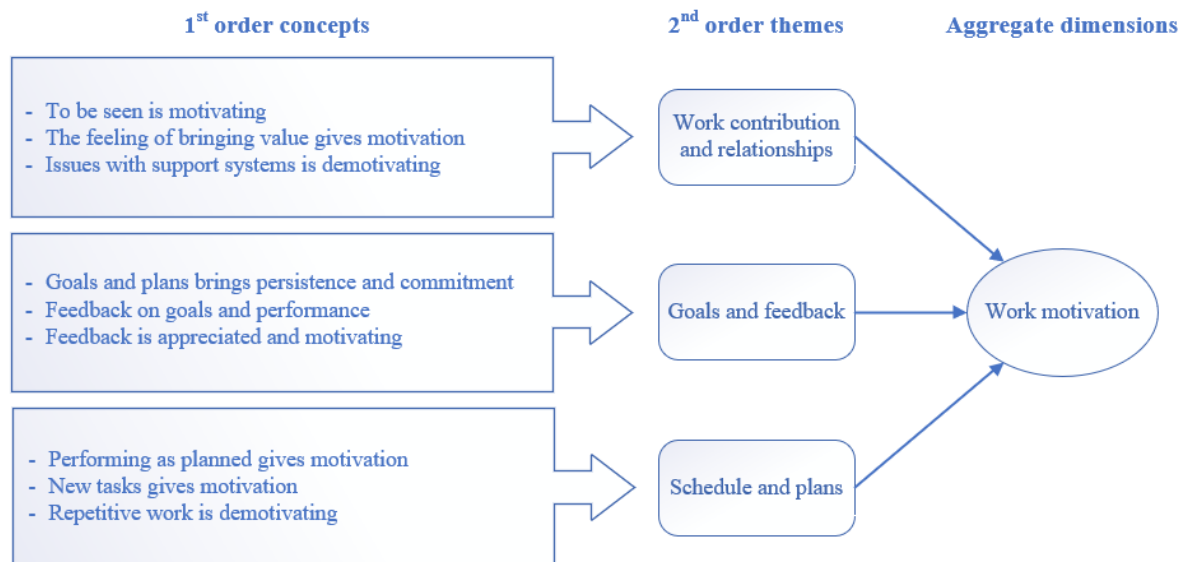


Figure 4-4 – Aggregated dimension: work motivation

The informant’s experiences of their value and contribution to the organisation and how work tasks and relations are experienced, is described in the theme *work contribution and relationships*. The experience of organisational contribution is described through this statement:

“My efforts affect what we achieve. If I had not come to work today and made a solid effort, we could have missed something in the project. I feel that what I do gives value, and that gives me motivation.”

Further to this, the informant's statement below shares how the feeling of contribution is:

"If it's a job where it does not matter if I'm here or not, then I would not have had any motivation for what I did, or at least I would have struggled more with it."

One informant shares this story regarding work contribution:

"If I feel that what I do has an effect on the end product, then it motivates. I want the line management a little more on that path, that they care about what you do. I see them very seldom, but maybe that's how it must be in a matrix organization?"

Being seen as a valuable resource in the organisation is experienced as follows:

"Being seen is motivating, and even more demotivating when one is not seen."

"The feedback is valuable because it recognizes that you master what you are doing, and that you are seen and valued, and then you feel like a valuable resource."

The experience of being part of projects which have good financial numbers is described by informants in the statements below:

"Finding good technical solutions that results in making money motivates."

"I am very proud to be in a project that contributes positively to the company's finances."

Elements which are not directly motivating when present, but demotivating when not present is experienced as described in statements below:

"IT and timekeeping systems are an integrated part of what we do, but it seems that the focus is only to save money on it. I have been sitting on the phone for hours, with IT support, with relatively simple problems and then in the end there is one living person in the company who comes in and fix it for me."

The experience of systems and IT in the organisation is described by the informants below:

“Things as trouble with IT and not streamlined processes. Such things as you feel are hanging and dragging you down in a way. I think such things are quite demotivating. You just want to stop working when the system works against you.”

“We hurry to finish things, but then it stops in the system for two days. These things are demotivating, even though they are not part of the job I do.”

The theme *goals and feedback*, describe the informant’s experiences of goals and goal-setting, and how feedback is perceived and experienced in the organisation. One informant describes how milestones become goals in the statement below:

“We have weekly meetings and technical meetings where we sit together and look at the next milestones. Looking into what we need to do towards the next milestones and set goals in relation to this.”

And further, how goals and deadlines are experienced is shared by one informant:

“If you do not have a deadline, for example, then you have nothing to relate to. Then it does not feel important, and it can be difficult to motivate yourself.”

Positive feedback is experienced as described in statement below:

“Leaders who give positive feedback are very motivating and strengthen what is good. I float on good feedback.”

While negative feedback is experienced as shared in statement below:

“Serious meetings with negative feedback are demotivating. My colleagues understand themselves when they have done a less good job, since I know them well.”

The relations to colleagues and leaders are described by one informant as:

“What I have learned is that it is quite different from project to project, depending on who’s leading it. That’s where the biggest difference is, because there’s a difference in what the leaders do themselves, and what they expect me to do.”

Constructive feedback is experienced as described in the informant’s statements below:

“It is always nice to know what the potential for improvement can be, and what you do well and can continue with.”

“I like completely honest feedback, if something is not good enough then tell me, if there is something I need to get better at then say it to me, but not in plenum.”

Feedback on performance and goals is performed as described below:

“You always have something measurable you work towards, that is: a kick-off, a concept review, a design review, and then there are method reviews, risk assessments and document deadlines. So, from when this is established, it is very clear how the steps will continue until the end of the project.”

Feedback experience is described by informants through the statements below:

“You do not really know if you are doing what you are supposed to do, unless someone tells you to.”

“I think getting feedback is valuable, or else I do not know if what I am doing is correct and I will just continue in the same way.”

The perceived value of feedback is described by one informant below:

“It’s quite nice to know that what you’ve done is good, in a way. That managers and colleagues are satisfied with your effort. It is quite important to know if you are on the right track or if you have stopped up.”

Having an established plan for the coming period provides motivation and commitment. These experiences are collected in the theme *schedule and plans*. Moreover, performing the work as planned and foreseen is described by one informant as:

“It's incredibly motivating to see that what you thought 6 months ago fits with reality, and we did exactly what we said we were going to do and what we planned came about.”

Plans influence motivation as described by one informant below:

“When not having a plan and not knowing what to do the next months. Then you feel that there are no plans for me, or that you do not have something bigger to go to or bigger goals to work towards. That's what I am motivated by, that you have one goal and in 6 months' time you shall perform. But if you have nothing to work towards, I think it can be a bit difficult in the long run, if you do not know what to do in the horizon”

Further to this, one informant shares this statement:

“After working for a few years, you find out what you are good at, but what does the company want? not everything need to be personal goals but have a slightly longer perspective. Not the objective goals of the company, but that the company wants me to become better at something or something in a slightly longer perspective, I sometimes miss that, that I have a longer horizon to work towards.”

The experiences from a longer perspective and plan are described by an informant below, the lay-off situation which is described may be typical for this business with its ups and downs:

“The challenge was that it was boring, but I was glad that I was not laid off and that was the only thing that kept my motivation up, it was motivating to have a job and not be laid off. I 'survived' since I managed to look further ahead, we did what we were supposed to do and the documents were finished, and then came the spring and more work.”

Starting on new tasks and projects is experienced by informants as described below:

“It's always nice to start on something new. You start with blank sheets and do not know what you get.”

“I often think it's absolutely fantastic to start something new. New issues and something new.”

Getting new tasks assigned is described by one informant as:

“I just got a call about a new task that I have not done before. It is motivating to do something new when it is something I know I can pull of.”

On the other hand, working with the same tasks repeatedly is described as:

“It is demotivating to work alone with repetitive and not very technical things.”

One informant describes repetitive tasks in the statement below:

“Monotonous tasks are demotivating. You will be good at it then, but you will not be able to sit down and think, and you will not develop much further. You sort of reach a level where you've been through most things, you do not learn anything new and do not move on.”

Busy periods come from time to time, and one informant describes the busy periods in conjunction with plans and schedule as the following:

“It's okay when it's hectic for a few weeks, but when you do not see the end of it then I am demotivated.”

5 DISCUSSION

This qualitative case study verifies motivation theory and confirms many of the challenges and opportunities a matrix structure provides (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019). The engineering department in DeepOcean, which has been the case for this study, is found to have a balanced matrix (Dunn, 2001) and the engineers in DeepOcean have a very high task autonomy, where they are given large responsibilities and prioritize the tasks themselves. Goals and feedback are incorporated in many of the project planning and steering tools, and are important for the projects to ensure quality and progress on the tasks, and to be able to follow-up and guide the engineers when necessary. The projects solve this in an adequate way through teamwork and close relationships. Goals, objectives and milestones in the project are observed to be important in many ways: (1) they describe what to do and when to do it, (2) they can be used as a guidance for the work, (3) they are used as a control and feedback function when performance is measured towards the goals and plans.

The engineer's competence development in DeepOcean comes through "on the job training." Engineers are positive to competence development through courses and training, but there is a gap between the desires, and the time available. In the matrix structure, the engineers have all their time allocated to projects, while the functional department controls resource allocations.

5.1 Autonomous collaboration

The informants experience their work in the projects as autonomous oriented (Ryan & Deci, 2017). They prioritise tasks within their responsibility, and when challenging tasks arrives or are assigned, there is a common understanding that they are the responsible person for solving the challenge.

The tasks in DeepOcean are assigned by a leader or manager. This shows that the project has a span of control. The assignment of tasks is done on such a high level that the engineers does not describe the task assignments as diminishing for the autonomy. Tasks are divided into packages and distributed internally in the project and the engineers are assigned responsibility within each package. Challenges within these packages, like solving technical issues or designing a tool which can solve a task, are experienced as motivating. The autonomy in the task assignments, and the relatedness towards the team and colleagues, might be the reason for accepting challenging tasks as motivating. This is described in the theme, *work routines*, and

corresponds with the self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2017) where autonomy is important for motivation and intrinsic drive, and the relatedness and the feeling of being part of a team and be supported, is of great importance in maintaining the motivation. This study finds that the high amount of autonomy can be stressful if the process of finding a solution is not known or does not exist. This is described as an anxiousness to miss or forget something, since it is difficult to know what to check and what to do, if you have never done it before. As such the competence and knowledge in the team and in the organisation is of importance, to ensure that the employees learn and do not perform the same mistakes all over again. This is further described by the engineers as a feeling of coincidence, that they get to know things by pure luck. This feeling is described as stressful and anxious, since they start to think of what other things they have not investigated, which they should have checked out. In these situations, the matrix structure contributes to stress, since the knowledge may be in the functional department and with other colleagues, not necessarily in the project, and it may therefore be difficult to get hold of the knowledge. If the functional department is not aware of the situation, and the engineers are not asking questions, no one will know that there is a problem to be solved.

The projects in DeepOcean heavily relies on the knowledge and experience of the engineers. Engineers move from project to project, and it is not certain that the engineer with the required competence and knowledge is available when needed. Meetings and conversations between engineers can be a good solution for experience and knowledge transfer, but the process is experienced as vulnerable, and dependent on individual capacities and personality. Persons who are high in openness, extraversion and agreeableness have better abilities to cope with these situations and source the knowledge they need from the organisation (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003). The organisational structure and organisational processes can be constructed to help and guide employees. But the engineers in this study does not experience that the matrix structure supports them in this area, this may be because a matrix structure depends on the employees' skills and attributes to function well (Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019).

This study shows that the informants normally have control of whom to contact when they need help. Many of the informants have groups of colleagues they know well and can go to for guidance, when they have technical issues and challenges. Even though the organisation exists of several functional department teams with technical competence and expertise, the informants seek communication directly with colleagues, whom they have good relations with

and use that channel to solve issues and challenges. This shows how valued and practical relatedness is. There may be colleagues in the functional department teams which have the competence to contribute, but it feels safer to check-in with someone you have a good relationship with. As a result, the engineer who is asked to help feels appreciated and significant among others. This further develops the relationship inside the organisation and between engineers (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Furthermore, the help and support the engineers receive, will build competence through the feeling of mastery. This unformal and direct type of communication practice is pragmatic and goes directly across projects and department teams, and is found to be an important practice for the motivation of employees, since it builds relatedness and competence from autonomous tasks.

The matrix structure in DeepOcean facilitates for the engineers to work in several projects at the same time. This is experienced as quite stressful since there are several demands and deadlines to cope with simultaneously. The decisions in what to prioritize, can be a challenge since the engineers know that other projects will suffer from their choices. In these cases, the teamleader guides the engineer and make decisions in what tasks to prioritize, and can assign tasks to other engineers, or talk directly to the projects to understand the deadlines and agree upon postponements. The teamleader must maintain good relationship and communication with the engineers to know when these issues arise and solve them before they become a problem for the engineer and the projects.

In DeepOcean, work routines provide a safe ground which makes it easier to accept the responsibility of challenging tasks. When the challenging task is solved, then the mastery and satisfaction is achieved, providing motivation to new challenging tasks and goals (Latham, 2012). This contributes to a high-performing organisation. The engineers express high motivation from teamwork and from being part of a team. Challenges are often solved through teamwork even though the responsibility for solving the task is given to one person. The feeling of being backed up, and not being left alone with demanding and challenging tasks, is experienced as an important factor for motivation. The engineer's motivation is further strengthened from the experience of being heard and listened to. The engineers are listened to even though decisions are taken by the project leaders and managers. This process is important for the motivation since it directly affect the feeling of justice, and the understanding of decisions (Colquitt et al., 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2001). The tasks and responsibility will be easier to internalise, thus increasing intrinsic motivation, when the engineers have been a part

in the decisions (Figure 2-3 Ryan & Deci, 2006). Involving the engineers in decisions before handing over the task, is an important aspect for the motivation to perform well on the task, making DeepOcean a high performer.

The project instructions come from the clients and are written in the contracts. In the theme *control and communication*, the informants describe the contract and the client's requirements as the main control tool for the work. The engineers in the project have an understanding that if the client asks for something, a service or something to be made, the project will do its utmost to deliver. This study finds that informants do not follow internal procedures and manuals if they can follow client contracts and needs. The contracts and external standards prevail and governs the projects. However, the contracts do not explain engineers how to perform the job, knowing how to perform the job is provided through feedback. Feedback is received through various channels. It can be implicit in internal reviews on documents, where engineers get comments and guidance on the reports and documents they write. It can also be provided as guidance in meetings where actions are tracked, in these meetings engineers will get feedback on performance through previously assigned actions and tasks. This type of feedback is made towards tasks and self-development and is therefore experienced as valuable and useful (Van-Dijk & Kluger, 2004). The feedback frequency is experienced as very variable from project to project, this will have an effect on the projects performance since low feedback frequency gives lower performance (Murder, 2013).

Engineers want more direct and immediate feedback on their performance from the projects. They want corrective, as well as positive feedback, immediately and verbally. This study shows that continuous and immediate feedback in the project controls behaviour and performance. When feedback comes from the project it can be explained in a more thorough way making the engineers understand the feedback better, and the reason for the feedback. The engineers describe feedback from the project as more valuable and appreciated than the formal feedback provided in the development dialogue, however the feedback provided in the development dialog is still appreciated by the engineers. The development dialogue is performed by the teamleaders in the functional department. The teamleaders learns about the engineer's performances through reports given by others. In addition, the feedback in the development dialogue can come months after the episodes the feedback refers to. How the role of the functional department and the teamleader is experienced in this matrix structure will be described in more detail in the next chapter.

5.2 Competence development

In the theme *individual development*, informant's experience tasks which are perceived to enhance development and competence as motivating. This finding can be linked to self-actualisation needs (Maslow, 1943; Jacobsen & Thorsvik, 2019). The engineers' basic safety and physical needs are satisfied in the organisation, and the need for self-esteem and self-actualisation is then further sought to be satisfied, thus giving motivation when the opportunity is provided (Boxall & Purcell, 2011).

The allocation of time to perform courses and training is, however, experienced as challenging. The engineers describe that they do not have the mandate to decide and allocate time to courses or external training themselves. In addition, the projects will not allocate the time if it is not beneficial for the project itself, and the engineers are fully utilised by projects which needs the resources. This requires the functional department to control the time allocation for the engineers, for them to be able to attend training sessions and courses. Another task which is experienced as educating and motivating, is the offshore travels. The offshore travels provide competence development and contribute to a higher self-efficacy for the engineers after the mastery of an offshore trip (Latham, 2012; Bandura, 2001).

Turning corporate goals into individual goals is experienced as a difficult exercise, and the value of this exercise is questioned by the informants. This is described in the theme, *individual development*. It is also quite evident from the informant's stories, that they have not been taught how to establish goals. The usage and awareness of learning goals versus development goals (Latham, 2012) are not observed in DeepOcean, but the engineers express that they would like the organisation to help and guide them in what type of goals they should establish. They experience a lack of feedback on goal performance, and on how they can develop further. The individual goals-setting is experienced as very narrow, with focus on setting career goals or goals that can result in a promotion. Engineers express motivation for competence development however, they experience this development to be solely linked towards a promotion or new position in the organisation. The engineers experience the goal-setting as difficult and they do not experience much guidance from their teamleader and functional department, in setting personal development goals. This study finds that the perceived difficultness in finding goals which give value and meaning, can result in low self-efficacy (Bandura, 2001). Engineers with low self-efficacy set low goals which they know they can achieve without much effort, since

they then can state that they reached their goals. These types of low goals do not foster for motivation nor high-performance and work satisfaction (Locke & Latham, 2002).

The teamleaders holds the positions in the functional departments which have personnel responsibility and are the ones that performs the development dialogues. The teamleaders can facilitate competence development and they have power in deciding what type of projects the engineers shall work on, and what types of educational courses and training that shall be approved. The theme, *functional department incorporation*, shows that the informants get feedback on their wishes through their experience. If an engineer wishes to travel offshore, he/she gets feedback on that particular wish, when the offshore trip becomes a reality. It is an important task for the teamleader to follow-up the employees in the organisation on their goals and wishes, explaining the reasons behind the decisions, on both positive and negative outcomes. This can contribute to a perceived justice, when the engineers know the processes behind the decisions (Colquitt et al., 2001). This type of feedback is not experienced by the engineers.

The theme, *functional department incorporation*, describes how informants' experience the split between departments and projects. This split can be challenging in a matrix organisation, since there might be uncertainties in what to bring up where. Where do you go and whom do you talk to? And what kind of issues or challenges will you address where? Having a place to relate to and knowing what groups or teams to relate to depending on the issue or situation, gives relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Observations show that personal tasks, issues, plans, development and competence goals are all addressed to the teamleader. This study finds that the engineer's are confused in who to relate to, but it is also found that this issue is solved and settled after a while, when the engineers get to know the structure and get used to the way of working and communicating. Engineers experience the teamleaders as very busy and with little or no time to understand situations and to help, coach and guide the engineers. Observations show that the teamleaders are working in projects in addition to be teamleaders.

5.3 Work motivation

The theme, *work contribution and relationship*, shows that the informants are motivated for the work and tasks when they feel valuable, and when they experience a need for their work and competence. It is motivating to know that you contribute to something and that others are

counting on your deliverance and competence. This provides self-esteem and brings motivation through relatedness with others, and use of competence (Ryan & Deci, 2017; Deci & Ryan, 2000). The engineers describe that being seen in the organisation is highly valued and is mainly experienced through feedback from leaders. The feedback confirms that you are seen and cared for, and it can also assist engineers in developing intrinsic motivation for their tasks (Gagnè & Deci, 2005).

This study finds that the IT systems has a significant impact on the informant's work motivation. The engineers are reliant on systems and IT infrastructure to perform their work. If this is not functioning as intended, or is cumbersome, it has an immediate and direct effect on the engineer's work and performance. Engineers expect the IT systems to always function as intended, and there is also an expectation that the support and service function shall resolve any issues immediately. The IT systems can be categorized as a hygiene factor (Herzberg et al., 1993) where there is little or no additional motivation when it functions as expected, but severe demotivation when it does not function as expected.

Progressing on the work and knowing that you are on the right track is an important element for motivation and is described in the theme, *goals and feedback*. The projects in DeepOcean consist of several milestone dates and goals. These are used as guidance on what to work towards and what to prioritise. The engineers work performance and progress are measured up against these milestones and goals, and forms the basis for feedback. The goals and deadlines are experienced as motivating to work towards, since the goals can bring commitment and satisfaction when the feedback is given as experienced by the informants in this study (Latham, 2012Figure 2-4).

The relationships between engineers have an effect on how the feedback is given and perceived (Herzberg et al., 1993). This is confirmed when the engineers experience feedback differently from project to project. The need for feedback is individual and is determined by personality and feedback orientation (Dahling et al., 2012). However, this study finds that the engineers experience positive feedback as a boost on the work motivation, and as such, there is low risk in providing and giving positive feedback. Corrective feedback is by many informants expressed as appreciated, since they can turn this type of feedback into something constructive and further develop as individuals. However, this perception of feedback is dependant on the engineer's feedback orientation, and the relation between the provider of the feedback and the

receiver (Smither et al., 2005). Feedback is experienced by the engineers as an important communication tool which provides confidence in performing the work correct, and as a necessary guidance to working processes. The feedback frequency is important to control and guide the engineers, and to be able to achieve satisfied employees, and a high-performing organisation (Gabriel et al., 2014).

Reaching goals and performing as planned, is experienced by the informants as motivating (Latham, 2012Figure 2-4). Observations made in this study shows that a project makes objectives and goals from the client contracts in combination with the organisation's objectives. The plans and schedules in the project are used as a tool to reach these objectives and goals. This is described in the theme, *schedule and plans*. Individual long-term plans, established in the functional department, are the engineers experience of the future at work. This future can be a measure for job safety and will therefore contribute to motivation, when the engineers know that there is a new job waiting for them further down the road. The engineers express the need for a plan and schedule as a basic and fundamental need (Maslow, 1943). If there are uncertainties in the organisation with regards to lay-offs, engineers experience a planned future as very motivating and secure. This study finds that when the plan and schedule is settled, and the engineers know that there are new projects or tasks in the future, the task at hand is performed with a higher motivation. This can be understood as a type of internalisation of the task, making the task more intrinsically motivating and requiring less extrinsic motivation to perform the task well (Ryan & Deci, 2006). The functional department contributes in setting plans and schedules, which can affect the projects performances, since the engineers are immediately motivated by bright futures and known schedules.

The workload in the engineering department is observed to be very dynamic. Engineers describe busy and hectic times as motivating when they work together as a team. However, if there is not a deadline or goal to be reached, the busy period is experienced as demotivating. Furthermore, the engineers experience repetitive tasks as boring and demotivating, and new tasks and challenges are perceived as exiting and motivating. This experience can come from the engineer's perceived self-efficacy and expected mastery of the tasks (Vroom, 1995; Bandura, 2001). The engineers describe an expectancy in mastery of new challenging tasks, this shows a high level of confidence which is present due to the perceived job safety and knowledge of organisational support, guidance, and help. Repetitive tasks are experienced as demotivating since they are often performed alone, and do not contribute to competence

development. These factors can contribute to the experience that new tasks and challenges are perceived as motivating and something the engineers want to be part of (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

5.4 Conclusion

This study finds that the knowledge, which is embedded in projects, is not necessarily transferred to other projects. The functional department should facilitate the experience and knowledge transfer between projects and teams, this can be done through meetings or e-mails. Another suggestion is to establish guidance notes containing important information for future projects. Such notes can consist of checklists and items to be aware of, as well as who to contact for experiences and knowledge. These actions can contribute to reduce the anxiousness and uncertainty which is found to exist in the engineering department due to high autonomy, but it will not diminish motivation since the experienced relatedness and competence is not affected.

Individual goals are set in the functional department through a development dialogue between the engineer and the teamleader. However, the goals are experienced as difficult to set, and are not experienced as valuable and meaningful. The goals can contribute to a high commitment and satisfaction (Latham, 2012). Therefore, the teamleaders should be trained in how to set valuable and meaningful goals. The teamleaders should also be trained in when to set a development goal, and when to set a learning goal, and guide the engineers in how to set clear and challenging goals. This study finds that the teamleaders do not have the time to properly follow-up and guide the engineers on goals and goal-setting. The teamleaders have two positions in the engineering matrix structure, they are teamleaders and project engineers. DeepOcean should evaluate the teamleader's time allocations between these positions. Allocating more time to the teamleaders for coaching and feedback on goals and goal-setting, can give the engineers a stronger feeling of being seen and appreciated by DeepOcean, and contribute to more valuable and meaningful goals. In the short term, this allocation can show a decrease in internal income in the department, since the teamleaders have larger internal percentage workload, however in the long-term, it can result in satisfied engineers which have a higher work motivation, providing higher project performance.

The goals established in the projects give a direction to steer towards and helps the project focus. The project goals are therefore important to establish early in the project, and the feedback on these goals will exist as a guiding tool for the project personnel, to know how to

work and what to do. Feedback on project goals and milestones are established in DeepOcean, however there is an experienced lack of feedback on individual tasks and performances. The projects should take more responsibility with regards to feedback. The functional department have the formal responsibility for the performance feedback, but the performance feedback should be given directly by the projects. This study finds that feedback is highly appreciated by engineers, and all types of feedback are experienced as valuable. Lack of feedback in a project can be catastrophic, since the probability of human mistakes increase, the projects may not achieve its objectives, and the engineers are less motivated to perform their work tasks. Thus, project feedback in all sorts of types and ways, has an impact on DeepOcean's performances. These findings are summarized in Figure 5-1 below, illustrating this study's findings on how the frequency of feedback, and the degree of autonomy, impacts performance in a matrix structure. When the autonomy is high, the feedback frequency needs to be high to ensure communication, quality, and organisational support, thus providing high-performance. If the autonomy is low, and feedback frequency is high, the motivation for performing tasks decrease since the intrinsic motivation is diminished by high control and low autonomy. If the autonomy is high, but the feedback frequency is low, anxiousness increases and confidence in mastery of task decreases, thus performance decrease.

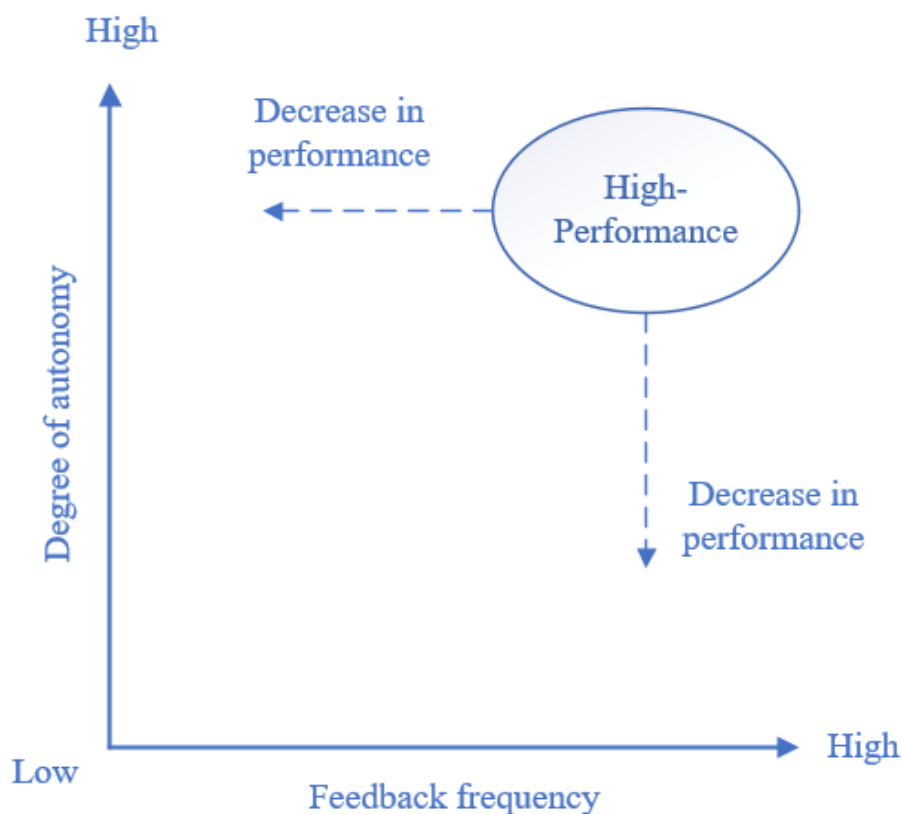


Figure 5-1 – Autonomy and feedback impacting performance in a matrix structure

6 REFERENCES

- Adams, J. (1963). Towards an understanding of inequity. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 67(5), 422-436.
- Appelbaum, E., Bailey, T., Berg, P., Kalleberg, A. L., & Bailey, T. A. (2000). *Manufacturing advantage: Why high-performance work systems pay off*. Cornell University Press.
- Ashford, S., & Tsui, A. (1991). Self-regulation for Managerial Effectiveness: The Role of Active Feedback Seeking. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34(2), 251-280.
- Ashford, S., Blatt, R., & Walle, D. (2003). Reflections on the looking glass: A review of research on feedback-seeking behavior in organization. *Journal of Management*, 29(6), 773.
- Baker, A., Perreault, D., Reid, A., & Blanchard, C. (2013). Feedback and Organizations: Feedback is Good, Feedback-Friendly Culture is Better. *Canadian Psychology*, 54(4), 260-268.
- Baker, N. (2010). Employee feedback technologies in the human performance system. *Human Resource Development International*, 13(4), 477-485.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory* (Prentice hall series in social learning theory). Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall.
- Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52(1), 1-26.
- Boxall, P., & Macky, K. (2007). High-performance work systems and organisational performance: Bridging theory and practice. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 45(3), 261-270.
- Boxall, P., & Purcell, J. (2011). *Strategy and human resource management*. (3. ed.). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Brinkmann, S., & Kvale, S. (2018). *Doing interviews*. (2. ed.). London: Sage publications.
- Busch, T. (2013). *Akademisk skrivning for bachelor- og masterstudenter*. Bergen: Fagbokforl.
- Clark, A. (2005). Your Money or Your Life: Changing Job Quality in OECD Countries. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 43(3), 377-400.
- Colquitt, J., Conlon, D., Wesson, M., Porter, C., & Yee Ng, K. (2001). Justice at the Millennium. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3), 425-445.
- Creswell, J., & Poth, C. (2018). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: Choosing among five approaches* (4. ed.). Los Angeles, Calif.: Sage Publications.
- Cropanzano, R., Byrne, Z. S., Bobocel, D. R., & Rupp, D. E. (2001). Moral Virtues, Fairness Heuristics, Social Entities, and Other Denizens of Organizational Justice. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 58, 164-209.
- Cropanzano, R., Massaro, S., & Becker, W. (2017). Deontic Justice and Organizational Neuroscience. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 144(4), 733-754.
- Dahling, J., Chau, S., & O'Malley, A. (2012). Correlates and Consequences of Feedback Orientation in Organizations. *Journal of Management*, 38(2), 531-546.
- Davis, S., & Lawrence, P. (1978). Problems of Matrix Organizations. *Harvard Business Review*, 56(3), 131.
- Deci, E. (1975). *Intrinsic motivation* (Vol. 1, Perspectives in social psychology). New York: Plenum Press.
- Deci, E., & Ryan, R. (2000). The "What" and "Why" of Goal Pursuits: Human Needs and the Self-Determination of Behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(4), 227-268.
- Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (2018). *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research* (5. ed.). Los Angeles, Calif: Sage Publications.

Dunn, S. (2001). Motivation by Project and Functional Managers in Matrix Organizations. *Engineering Management Journal*, 13(2), 3-10.

Dunne, E., Stahl, M., & Melhart, L. (1978). Influence Sources of Project and Functional Managers in Matrix Organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 21(1), 135-140.

Dysvik, A., & Kuvaas, B. (2011). Intrinsic motivation as a moderator on the relationship between perceived job autonomy and work performance. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 20(3), 367-387.

Flick, U. (2015). *Introducing research methodology : A beginner's guide to doing a research project* (2. ed.). Los Angeles, Calif: Sage Publications.

Folger, R., Cropanzano, R., & Goldman, B. (2005) What is the Relationship between Justice and Morality? p.215-245 In J. Colquitt & J. Greenberg (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational justice*. (1. ed., p. 589-614). Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Ford, R., & Randolph, W. (1992). Cross-Functional Structures: A Review and Integration of Matrix Organization and Project Management. *Journal of Management*, 18(2), 267-294.

Gabriel, A., Frantz, N., Levy, P., & Hilliard, A. (2014). The supervisor feedback environment is empowering, but not all the time: Feedback orientation as a critical moderator. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 87(3), 487-506.

Gagné, M., & Deci, E. (2005). Self-determination theory and work motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(4), 331-362.

Galbraith, J. (1971). Matrix Organization Designs. *Business Horizons*, 14(1), 29.

Gioia, D. (2021). A Systematic Methodology for Doing Qualitative Research. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 57(1), 20-29.

Gioia, D., Corley, K., & Hamilton, A. (2013). Seeking Qualitative Rigor in Inductive Research. *Organizational Research Methods*, 16(1), 15-31.

Goldhaber, G. (1993). *Organizational communication* (6. ed.). Madison, Wis: W.C. Brown & Benchmark.

Hammernes, C. (2021, 24.Oct.). Formelen for teamsuksess. *Ledernytt*.
<https://www.ledernytt.no/formelen-for-teamsuksess.6346517-112537.html>

Herzberg, F. (1966). *Work and the nature of man*. Cleveland: World Publ.

Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. (1993). *The motivation to work*. New Brunswick, N.J: Transaction.

Hewett, R., & Conway, N. (2016). The undermining effect revisited: The salience of everyday verbal rewards and self-determined motivation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 37(3), 436-455.

Ilgén, D., Fisher, C., & Taylor, M. (1979). Consequences of individual feedback on behavior in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 64(4), 349-371.

Jacobsen, D., & Thorsvik, J. (2019). *Hvordan organisasjoner fungerer* (5. ed.). Bergen: Fagbokforlaget.

Jones, G. (2013). *Organizational theory, design, and change* (7. ed.). Boston: Pearson.

Judge, T., & Colquitt, J. (2004). Organizational Justice and Stress. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(3), 395-404.

Kahneman, D. (2011). *Thinking, fast and slow*. New York: Farrar, Straus and Giroux.

Kluger, A., & DeNisi, A. (1996). The Effects of Feedback Interventions on Performance. *Psychological Bulletin*, 119(2), 254-284.

Kvale, S., Brinkmann, S., Anderssen, T., & Rygge, J. (2015). *Det kvalitative forskningsintervju* (3. ed.). Oslo: Gyldendal akademisk.

Larson, E., & Gobeli, D. (1987). Matrix Management: Contradictions and Insights. *California Management Review*, 29(4), 126-138.

Latham, G. (2012). *Work motivation: History, theory, research, and practice* (2. ed.). Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.

Latham, G., & Kinne, S. (1974). Improving job performance through training in goal setting. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 59(2), 187-191.

Latham, G., & Locke, E. (1991). Self-regulation through goal setting. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 212-247.

Latham, G., & Locke, E. (2007). New Developments in and Directions for Goal-Setting Research. *European Psychologist*, 12(4), 290-300.

Latham, G., & Pinder, C. (2005). Work motivation theory and research at the Dawn of the twenty-first century. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 56(1), 485-516.

Locke, E. (1975). Personnel Attitudes and Motivation. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 26(1), 457-480.

Locke, E. (2000). Motivation, Cognition, and Action: An Analysis of Studies of Task Goals and Knowledge. *Applied Psychology*, 49(3), 408-429.

Locke, E., & Latham, G. (1990). Work Motivation and Satisfaction: Light at the End of the Tunnel. *Psychological Science*, 1(4), 240-246.

Locke, E., & Latham, G. (2002). Building a Practically Useful Theory of Goal Setting and Task Motivation. *The American Psychologist*, 57(9), 705-717.

London, M., & Smither, J. (2002). Feedback orientation, feedback culture, and the longitudinal performance management process. *Human Resource Management Review*, 12(1), 81-100.

Mahoney, T., & Deckop, J. (1986). Evolution of Concept and Practice in Personnel Administration/Human Resource Management (PA/HRM). *Journal of Management*, 12(2), 223-241.

Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review*, 50(4), 370–396.

McCrae, R., & Costa, P. (1997). Personality Trait Structure as a Human Universal. *The American Psychologist*, 52(5), 509-516.

McGregor, D. (1960). *The human side of enterprise*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Mikkelsen, A. (2016). Finnes en beste praksis innenfor HRM? in Mikkelsen, A. & T. Laudal (Ed.), *Strategisk HRM 1: Ledelse, organisasjon, strategi og regulering* (2. ed., Vol. 1, p.101-136). Oslo: Cappelen Damm akademisk.

Mikkelsen, A. (2016). Hva bør ledere og HR-medarbeidere vite om motivasjon? in Mikkelsen, A. & T. Laudal (Ed.), *Strategisk HRM 2: HMS, etikk og internasjonale perspektiver* (2. ed., Vol. 2, p. 33-67). Oslo: Cappelen Damm akademisk.

Mikkelsen, A. (2016). Organisasjonsstruktur og organisasjonsdesign in Mikkelsen, A. & T. Laudal (Ed.), *Strategisk HRM 2: HMS, etikk og internasjonale perspektiver* (2. ed., Vol. 2, p. 104-131). Oslo: Cappelen Damm akademisk.

Mikkelsen, A., & Laudal, T. (2016). Hva er strategisk human resource management? in Mikkelsen, A., & T. Laudal (Ed.), *Strategisk HRM 1: Ledelse, organisasjon, strategi og regulering* (2. ed., Vol. 1, p.29-63). Oslo: Cappelen Damm akademisk.

Mintzberg, H. (1983). *Power in and around organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J: Prentice-Hall.

Mintzberg, H. (1989). *Mintzberg on management: Inside our strange world of organizations*. New York: Simon and Schuster Inc.

Moodley, D., Pretorius, P., & Sutherland, M. (2016). Comparing the power and influence of functional managers with that of project managers in matrix organisations: The challenge in duality of command. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, 19(1), 103-117.

Mulder, R. (2013). Exploring feedback incidents, their characteristics and the informal learning activities that emanate from them. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 37(1), 49-71.

Obeidat, S., Mitchell, R., & Bray, M. (2016). The link between high performance work practices and organizational performance Empirically validating the conceptualization of HPWP according to the AMO model. *Employee Relations*, 38(4), 578-595.

Oldham, G., & Hackman, J. (2010). Not what it was and not what it will be: The future of job design research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31(2-3), 463-479.

Rachlew, A., Løken, G., & Bergestuen, S. (2020). *Den profesjonelle samtalen : En forskningsbasert intervjuetodikk for alle som stiller spørsmål*. Oslo: Universitetsforlaget.

Rose, M. (2003). Good deal, bad deal? job satisfaction in *occupations*. *Work, Employment and Society*, 17(3), 503-530.

Rosengren, K. (2000). *Communication: An introduction*. London: Sage Publication.

Rothmann, S., & Coetzer, E. (2003). The big five personality dimensions and job performance. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 29(1), 68-74.

Ryan, R., & Deci, E. (2006). Self-Regulation and the Problem of Human Autonomy: Does Psychology Need Choice, Self-Determination, and Will? *Journal of Personality*, 74(6), 1557-1586.

Ryan, R., & Deci, E. (2017). *Self-determination theory: Basic psychological needs in motivation, development, and wellness*. New York: Guilford Press.

Sackett, P., & Walmsley, P. (2014). Which Personality Attributes Are Most Important in the Workplace? *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 9(5), 538-551.

Schnetler, R., Steyn, H., & Van Staden, P. (2015). Characteristics of matrix structures, and their effects on project success. *South African Journal of Industrial Engineering*, 26(1), 11-26.

Smith, B. (1973). On self-actualization: A transambivalent examination of a focal theme in Maslow's psychology. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology*, 13(2), 17-33.

Smither, J., London, M., & Reilly, R. (2005). Does performance improve following multisource feedback? A theoretical model, meta-analysis, and review of empirical findings. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(1), 33-66.

Sy, T., & Cote, S. (2004). Emotional intelligence. *The Journal of Management Development*, 23(5), 437-455.

Tjora, A. (2021). *Kvalitative forskningsmetoder i praksis* (4. ed.). Oslo: Gyldendal.

Van-Dijk, D., & Kluger, A. (2004). Feedback Sign Effect on Motivation: Is it Moderated by Regulatory Focus? *Applied Psychology*, 53(1), 113-135.

Vroom, V. (1995). *Work and motivation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Walton, R.E (1985). From control to commitment in the workplace, *Harvard Business Review* 63(2): 77-84.

Yin, R. (2011). *Qualitative research from start to finish*. New York: Guilford Press.

Yin, R. (2018). *Case study research and applications: Design and methods* (6. ed.). Los Angeles, California: Sage Publications.

APPENDIX 1 – INTERVIEW GUIDE

The interview starts by reviewing the consent form and providing information about the study and the purpose of this interview. Information is provided on how the informant was selected, about anonymity and that the interview is intended for me to listen to the informant's experiences and history.

1. Introduction and background

The interview is scheduled for approx. 60-70 minutes, and it is your experience and understanding I am searching for. There are no definitive answers, and you will not be held responsible for any of your answers, try to talk as freely as possible. I will listen as much as possible and be quiet after I have asked the questions so that you have time to think. Take the time you need to answer as detailed as possible.

- a. Before we begin the interview; Do you have any questions about the study and the purpose of the study in general?
- b. How long have you worked in the company?
- c. Do you work in several projects and under several project managers?

2. Matrix organisation, autonomy, relatedness and competence

- a. In a matrix organisation such as we have in this company, you have two or more managers; one or more project managers, and a department manager. Can you explain in detail in your own words how this is practiced?
 - How do you relate to the department manager and project manager? Can you give some examples?
 - What type of cases are handled in the department and what are dealt with in the project? Is there any overlap?
- b. Can you describe what it is like to work both in project (s) and at the same time be part of a department?
 - What relatedness do you feel to the project and what relatedness do you feel to the department?

- c. Can you please describe how you are challenged in your job?
 - What type of challenges motivate you and what demotivates you?

- d. How do the project (s) you are involved in contribute to the company's results and success?

- e. Can you describe in detail how you know what to do in a project?
 - How does the work in the project start?
 - How are the tasks defined and distributed in the project?
 - What instructions (messages / tasks) do you get from managers, colleagues or customers?

- f. How are the various tasks in the project prioritised?
 - What influence do you and your leaders have on this?

- g. How are internal procedures and manuals followed in the project?
 - How is it handled if you need to deviate from the procedures and manuals?

3. Goals and feedback

- a. Can you explain to me how goals are set for you, and for the project?
 - Who influences and / or sets the goals?
 - Can you give examples of project related goals and personal goals in the project you are working on now?
 - How are the goals linked to the company's goals and / or the customer's goals?

- b. Can you describe exactly how you get feedback on goals, both personal goals and project goals?
 - Who gives this feedback?
 - How is the feedback given? Is it continuously, informal or formal? Do you have examples?
 - How valuable is feedback to you?

4. Motivation, feedback, competence and autonomy

- a. Can you explain how you know you are doing what is expected of you in the project?
 - How do you get feedback on performance, goals and on specific work (documents, drawings, etc.)?
 - Who gives the feedback?
 - In what way do you like to get feedback?

- b. How do you proceed if you have a problem that you cannot solve in the project?
 - Who do you go to for help?
 - Can you give an example of such a situation and how it was resolved?

- c. How are your wishes in relation to competence development taken care of?
 - How is feedback given on your wishes and opinions?

- d. How is feedback given on the work you have done in the project?
 - In what form is this feedback given?
 - How would you like this feedback to be?

- e. Can you explain exactly how you are motivated to start a new project?

- f. How do you experience the feedback culture in the company?
 - How do you experience the frequency of feedback?
 - Who do you want to get feedback from?

- g. How is your motivation to do a good job affected?
 - What specific things can motivate or demotivate you? Do you have any examples from the project you are in now?

5. Closing

Then we are at the end of this interview. Thank you so much for taking the time to do this! This interview will be part of the data collection for the master thesis to be delivered in June, and you will get the opportunity to read the thesis when it is made available.

- a. Within motivation, feedback and goals in the organisation; Is there anything else which might be worth mentioning?

- b. Do you have any questions about the way forward and what happens to this interview?

APPENDIX 2 – INTERVIEW GUIDE (NORWEGIAN)

Intervjuet starter med å gå igjennom samtykkeerklæringen og gi info om studien og formålet med intervjuet. Det informeres om hvordan denne personen er valgt ut, om anonymitet og at intervjuet er ment for at jeg skal få høre informantens opplevelser og historie.

1. Introduksjon og bakgrunn

Intervjuet er planlagt til ca. 60-70 minutter og det er din opplevelse og forståelse jeg er ute etter. Det finnes ikke noe fasit svar og du vil ikke bli stilt til ansvar for noen av svarene dine, prøv å prate så fritt som mulig fra spørsmålene. Jeg skal lytte mest mulig og være stille etter jeg har spurt spørsmålene slik at du får tid til å tenke. Ta den tiden du trenger for å svare så detaljert og fritt som mulig.

- a. Før vi begynner intervjuet; har du noen spørsmål til studien og formålet med studien generelt?
- b. Hvor lenge har du jobbet i bedriften?
- c. Jobber du i flere prosjekter og under flere prosjektledere?

2. Matrise organisasjon, autonomi, tilhørighet og kompetanse

- a. I en matriseorganisasjon slik som vi har i denne bedriften så har du to eller flere ledere; en eller flere prosjektledere, og en avdelingsleder. Kan du forklare i detalj med dine ord hvordan dette fungerer i praksis?
 - Hvordan forholder du deg til avdelingsleder og prosjektleder? Kan du gi noen eksempler?
 - Hvilke saker behandles i avdelingen og hvilke i prosjektet? Er det overlapp?
- b. Kan du beskrive hvordan det er å jobbe både i prosjekt(er) og samtidig være tilknyttet en avdeling?
 - Hvilken tilhørighet føler du til prosjektet og hvilken tilhørighet føler du til avdelingen?

- c. Kan du fortelle hvordan du utfordres i jobben din?
 - Hvilke utfordringer motiverer deg, og hvilke utfordringer demotiverer deg?

- d. Hvordan bidrar prosjekt(ene) som du er med i til bedriftens resultater og suksess?

- e. Kan du beskrive i detalj hvordan du vet hva du skal jobbe med i ett prosjekt?
 - Hvordan begynner arbeidet i prosjektet?
 - Hvordan defineres og fordeles oppgavene i prosjektet?
 - Hvilke instruksjoner(beskjeder/oppgaver) får du fra ledere, kolleger eller kunde?

- f. Hvordan prioriteres de ulike oppgavene i prosjektet?
 - Hvilken innflytelse har du og lederne på dette?

- g. Hvordan følges interne prosedyrer og manualer i prosjektet?
 - Hvordan håndteres det om du har behov for å gjøre avvik fra prosedyrene?

3. Mål og tilbakemelding

- a. Kan du forklare meg hvordan mål settes for deg og for prosjektet?
 - Hvem påvirker og/eller setter målene?
 - Kan du gi eksempler på prosjektrelatert mål og personlige mål i det prosjektet du jobber i nå?
 - Hvordan er målene knyttet opp mot bedriftens mål og/eller kundens mål?

- b. Kan du beskrive nøyaktig hvordan du får tilbakemelding på målene, både personlige mål og prosjekt mål?
 - Hvem gir denne tilbakemeldingen?
 - Hvordan gis denne tilbakemeldingen? Er den løpende og uformell eller formell? Kan du gi eksempler?
 - Hvor verdifulle er tilbakemeldinger

4. Motivasjon, tilbakemelding, kompetanse og autonomi

- a. Kan du forklare hvordan du vet at du gjør det som forventes av deg i prosjektet?
 - Hvordan får du tilbakemeldinger på prestasjoner, mål og på konkret arbeid (dokumenter, tegninger o.l.)?
 - Hvem gir tilbakemeldingene?
 - Hvordan liker du best å få tilbakemeldinger?

- b. Hvordan går du frem om du har ett problem du ikke får løst i prosjektet?
 - Hvem vil du gå til for å få hjelp?
 - Kan du gi ett eksempel på en slik situasjon og hvordan det løste seg?

- c. Hvordan blir dine ønsker i forhold til kompetanse ivaretatt og behandlet?
 - Hvordan gis tilbakemelding på dine ønsker og meninger?

- d. Hvordan gis tilbakemeldinger til deg på jobben du har gjort i prosjektet?
 - I hvilken form gis denne tilbakemeldingen?
 - Hvordan vil du helst ha denne tilbakemeldingen?

- e. Kan du forklare nøyaktig hvordan du blir motivert til å starte på ett nytt prosjekt?

- f. Hvordan opplever du tilbakemeldingskulturen i bedriften?
 - Hvordan opplever du frekvensen av tilbakemeldinger?
 - Hvem ønsker du å få tilbakemeldinger fra?

- g. Hvordan påvirkes din motivasjon til å gjøre en god jobb?
 - Hvilke spesifikke ting kan motivere eller demotivere deg? Har du noen eksempler fra prosjektet du er i nå?

5. Avslutning

Da er vi straks ferdig med intervjuet. Tusen takk for at du tok deg tid til dette. Dette intervjuet kommer til å bli en del av datainnsamlingen til masterstudiet som skal leveres i juni, og du vil selvsagt få mulighet til å lese masteroppgaven når sensur foreligger.

- a. Innenfor motivasjon, tilbakemeldinger og mål i organisasjonen; Er det noe annet du tenker kan være relevant å snakke om for denne studien?

- b. Har du noen spørsmål til veien videre og hva som skjer med dette intervjuet?

APPENDIX 3 – INFORMATION AND CONSENT

Vil du delta i forskningsprosjektet

«Mål, tilbakemelding og motivasjon i matrise organisasjoner»?

Dette er et spørsmål til deg om å delta i et forskningsprosjekt hvor formålet er å undersøke hvordan mål, tilbakemelding og motivasjon fungerer i en matriseorganisasjon. I dette skrivet gir vi deg informasjon om målene for prosjektet og hva deltakelse vil innebære for deg.

Formål

Formålet med prosjektet er å forstå mer rundt hvordan mål, tilbakemeldinger og motivasjon brukes og oppleves i matriseorganisasjoner. Prosjektet vil bidra som grunnlag til data i masteroppgaven til Geir Åge Nesse som er student ved Handelshøyskolen, Universitetet i Stavanger.

Prosjektet har følgende forskningsspørsmål:

- Hvordan utøves og oppleves tilbakemeldinger i en matriseorganisasjon?
- Hvordan utøves og oppleves mål i en matriseorganisasjon?
- Hvordan oppfattes autonomi, kompetanse og tilhørighet i en matriseorganisasjon?

Hvem er ansvarlig for forskningsprosjektet?

Aslaug Mikkelsen professor ved Universitetet i Stavanger er veileder og ansvarlig for prosjektet. Geir Åge Nesse er mastergrad student og utfører prosjektet.

Hvorfor får du spørsmål om å delta?

Prosjektet skal utføre intervjuer av 10 personer som jobber i matriseorganisasjon og som har flere rapporteringslinjer å forholde seg til. Du får spørsmål om å delta siden du tilhører både ett eller flere prosjekt samtidig som du tilhører en avdeling.

Det er tillitsvalgte i foreningene til bedriften (NITO og TEKNA) som har valgt ut hvem som skal delta i intervjuene.

Hva innebærer det for deg å delta?

Hvis du takker ja til å delta så innebærer det at det utføres ett intervju med deg. Intervjuet vil inneholde noen åpne spørsmål om hvordan du opplever din hverdag på jobb. Opplysninger fra intervjuene er anonyme og vil bli tatt opp på kryptert lydopptaker. Intervjuet er planlagt å ta 60-70 minutter.

Det er frivillig å delta

Det er frivillig å delta i prosjektet. Hvis du velger å delta, kan du når som helst trekke samtykket tilbake uten å oppgi noen grunn. Alle dine personopplysninger vil da bli slettet. Det vil ikke ha noen negative konsekvenser for deg hvis du ikke vil delta eller senere velger å trekke deg.

Ditt personvern – hvordan vi oppbevarer og bruker dine opplysninger

Jeg vil bare bruke opplysningene om deg til formålene vi har fortalt om i dette skrivet. Jeg behandler opplysningene konfidensielt og i samsvar med personvernregelverket. Intervjuet vil bli tatt opp på kryptert lydopptaker og deretter transkribert (transkribering er å skrive ned hva som blir sagt i

intervjuet). Det er kun jeg som student som har tilgang til opptakene og som vil lytte på opptakene når jeg transkriberer. Navn og kontaktopplysninger vil ikke fremkomme av transkriberingen eller intervjuet, om slik informasjon likevel skulle bli benyttet under transkriberingen vil jeg bruke en kode som lagres på en egen separat navneliste. Opptakene og transkriberingen vil lagres på servere med topunkts identifikasjons sikkerhet. Du kan få kopi av transkriberingen om du ønsker dette.

Du vil ikke kunne bli gjenkjent i publikasjonen av oppgaven. Publikasjonen vil ikke inneholde navn og det vil ikke fremgå hvilken stilling du har. Uttalelser som kan avsløre din identifikasjon vil ikke bli publisert. Opplysninger som kan bli publisert i oppgaven er sitater, setninger eller uttalelser som viser hvordan tilbakemeldinger, mål og motivasjon oppleves i bedriften.

Hva skjer med opplysningene dine når vi avslutter forskningsprosjektet?

Opplysningene anonymiseres når prosjektet avsluttes/oppgaven er godkjent, noe som etter planen er 03.06.2022.

Hva gir oss rett til å behandle personopplysninger om deg?

Vi behandler opplysninger om deg basert på ditt samtykke.

På oppdrag fra Handelshøyskolen ved Universitetet i Stavanger har NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS vurdert at behandlingen av personopplysninger i dette prosjektet er i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

Dine rettigheter

Så lenge du kan identifiseres i datamaterialet, har du rett til:

- innsyn i hvilke opplysninger vi behandler om deg, og å få utlevert en kopi av opplysningene
- å få rettet opplysninger om deg som er feil eller misvisende
- å få slettet personopplysninger om deg
- å sende klage til Datatilsynet om behandlingen av dine personopplysninger

Hvis du har spørsmål til studien, eller ønsker å vite mer om eller benytte deg av dine rettigheter, ta kontakt med:

- Universitetet i Stavanger ved prof. Aslaug Mikkelsen, epost: aslaug.mikkelsen@uis.no, tel: 51 83 37 70
- Student Geir Åge Nesse, epost: gnesse@deepoceangroup.com, tel. 452 19 312
- Vårt personvernombud: Kjetil Dalseth, epost: personvernombud@uis.no

Hvis du har spørsmål knyttet til NSD sin vurdering av prosjektet, kan du ta kontakt med:

- NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS på epost (personverntjenester@nsd.no) eller på telefon: 53 21 15 00.

Med vennlig hilsen

Aslaug Mikkelsen

Geir Åge Nesse

Prosjektansvarlig
(Forsker/veileder)

student

Samtykkeerklæring

Samtykke gis ved å godkjenne invitasjonen til intervjuet elektronisk, alternativt så kan du signere under.

Jeg har mottatt og forstått informasjon om prosjektet mål, tilbakemeldinger og motivasjon i matriseorganisasjon, og har fått anledning til å stille spørsmål. Jeg samtykker til:

å delta i intervju

Jeg samtykker til at mine opplysninger behandles frem til prosjektet er avsluttet

(Signert av prosjektdeltaker, dato)

APPENDIX 4 – NSD APPROVAL ASSESSMENT

NSD NORSK SENTER FOR FORSKNINGSDATA

Vurdering

Referansenummer

186036

Prosjekttittel

Goals, feedback and motivation in a matrix organisation

Behandlingsansvarlig institusjon

Universitetet i Stavanger / Handelshøgskolen ved UiS

Prosjektansvarlig (vitenskapelig ansatt/veileder eller stipendiat)

Aslaug Mikkelsen, aslaug.mikkelsen@uis.no, tlf: 51833770

Type prosjekt

Studentprosjekt, masterstudium

Kontaktinformasjon, student

Geir Åge Nesse, gnesse@hotmail.com, tlf: 45219312

Prosjektperiode

17.01.2022 - 01.06.2022

Vurdering (1)

10.12.2021 - Vurdert

Det er vår vurdering at behandlingen av personopplysninger i prosjektet vil være i samsvar med personvernlovgivningen så fremt den gjennomføres i tråd med det som er dokumentert i meldeskjemaet med vedlegg den 10.12.2021. Behandlingen kan starte.

TYPE OPPLYSNINGER OG VARIGHET

Prosjektet vil behandle alminnelige kategorier av personopplysninger frem til 03.06.2022.

LOVLIG GRUNNLAG

Prosjektet vil innhente samtykke fra de registrerte til behandlingen av personopplysninger. Vår vurdering er at prosjektet legger opp til et samtykke i samsvar med kravene i art. 4 og 7, ved at det er en frivillig, spesifikk, informert og utvetydig bekreftelse som kan dokumenteres, og som den registrerte kan trekke tilbake. Lovlig grunnlag for behandlingen vil dermed være den registrertes samtykke, jf. personvernforordningen art. 6 nr. 1 bokstav a.

PERSONVERNPRINSIPPER

NSD vurderer at den planlagte behandlingen av personopplysninger vil følge prinsippene i personvernforordningen om:

- lovlighet, rettferdighet og åpenhet (art. 5.1 a), ved at de registrerte får tilfredsstillende informasjon om og samtykker til behandlingen
- formålsbegrensning (art. 5.1 b), ved at personopplysninger samles inn for spesifikke, uttrykkelig angitte og berettigede formål, og ikke viderebehandles til nye uforenlige formål
- dataminimering (art. 5.1 c), ved at det kun behandles opplysninger som er adekvate, relevante og nødvendige for formålet med prosjektet
- lagringsbegrensning (art. 5.1 e), ved at personopplysningene ikke lagres lengre enn nødvendig for å oppfylle formålet

DE REGISTRERTES RETTIGHETER

NSD vurderer at informasjonen om behandlingen som de registrerte vil motta oppfyller lovens krav til form og innhold, jf. art. 12.1 og art. 13.

Så lenge de registrerte kan identifiseres i datamaterialet vil de ha følgende rettigheter: innsyn (art. 15), retting (art. 16), sletting (art. 17), begrensning (art. 18) og dataportabilitet (art. 20).

Vi minner om at hvis en registrert tar kontakt om sine rettigheter, har behandlingsansvarlig institusjon plikt til å svare innen en måned.

FØLG DIN INSTITUSJONS RETNINGSLINJER

NSD legger til grunn at behandlingen oppfyller kravene i personvernforordningen om riktighet (art. 5.1 d), integritet og konfidensialitet (art. 5.1. f) og sikkerhet (art. 32).

Nettskjema er databehandler i prosjektet. NSD legger til grunn at behandlingen oppfyller kravene til bruk av databehandler, jf. art 28 og 29.

For å forsikre dere om at kravene oppfylles, må dere følge interne retningslinjer og eventuelt rådføre dere med behandlingsansvarlig institusjon.

MELD VESENTLIGE ENDRINGER

Dersom det skjer vesentlige endringer i behandlingen av personopplysninger, kan det være nødvendig å melde dette til NSD ved å oppdatere meldeskjemaet. Før du melder inn en endring, oppfordrer vi deg til å lese om hvilke type endringer det er nødvendig å melde: <https://www.nsd.no/personverntjenester/fylle-ut-meldeskjema-for-personopplysninger/melde-endringer-i-meldeskjema> Du må vente på svar fra NSD før endringen gjennomføres.

OPPFØLGING AV PROSJEKTET

NSD vil følge opp ved planlagt avslutning for å avklare om behandlingen av personopplysningene er avsluttet.

Kontaktperson hos NSD: Henning Levold
Lykke til med prosjektet!