Motivating for Performance

A Case Study of Project Team Motivation in relation to Project Model Usage in the Matrix Organisation

Master of Science Thesis in the Masters programme International Project Management

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Division of Construction Management
CHALMERS UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY
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"The secret of motivation is the Holy Grail that every business leader would dearly love to find"

(Whitmore, 2009, p. 106)

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Many thanks to you all!

Sandra Norberg

Göteborg, june 2010

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Preface

The author's previous studies have together formed an interest in combining project management soft skills with product development. The idea to write the dissertation within the area of motivation in projects was first developed during the early autumn 2009, after reading an article about how to organise for innovation in a product development project.

The general scope of the study was confirmed in an email conversation between the author and the Director of Project Management at SCA Global Hygiene Category, Svante Thurén. The conversation took place in November 2009. Thereupon, Karin Stübner who is an International Business Project Manager was assigned to be the author's supervisor at the company. After one introducing meeting and one telephone conversation between Karin Stübner and the author, in addition to a meeting with the author's academic supervisor in January 2010 some areas of improvement within the company were identified.

The purpose of this study is to explore motivation in the project context and investigate if it is possible to synchronise the view of internal stakeholders in order to make them strive for the same goal, instead of working in a political tensed climate with opposite agendas, and if so - how this could be done.

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to explore motivation in the project context and investigate if it is possible to synchronise the view of internal stakeholders in order to make them strive for the same goal, instead of working in a political tensed climate with opposite agendas, and if so - how this could be done. This is examined through following research questions: what factors influence the motivation of project team members; whose responsibility is it to create motivation in project teams within the matrix organisation, according to three main internal stakeholders; and how can a project model be used to facilitate motivation? The research methodology used to obtain answers to the questions was a case study with a qualitative approach, where the data was obtained through interviews. The results show that role perception, goals, autonomy, power to influence, feedback and recognition are factors with strong influence on project worker motivation. To conclude, team members, line and project managers are all accountable for motivation in the matrix organisation. Nevertheless project managers and the use of project models have an important role to play. By standardising certain procedures motivation can be facilitated, thus increase performance and lead to project success.

Keywords: Motivation; Project Management; Project Model; Matrix Organisation; Project Stakeholders; and Team Performance.

1. Introduction

In this introducing chapter, the background of the study will be presented. This is then followed by an illustration of the problem and the purpose statement as well as the delimitations to the study. Lastly the dissertation structure overview will be presented.

1.1 Background

In one of his presentations, Harvard (2009) emphasised how organisations need to innovate in order to remain competitive and profitable in a global economy. The conclusions drawn by Sundström and Zika-Viktorsson (2009, p. 752) in their article 'Organizing for innovation in a product development project: Combining innovative and result oriented ways of working – A case study' show that project team members need to be motivated in order to generate the creative environment that fosters innovation.

If project team members are satisfyingly motivated, the chances of creating an innovative environment will increase dramatically as illustrated above. Moreover, as stated by the Project Management Institute (PMI) (2008), project success depends upon the level of commitment of the team members and this, in turn, is directly related to their level of motivation. Thus motivated project team members would facilitate increased job performance in projects and, in the long-run, enable the company to stay competitive and profitable.

Motivation in project teams is thus a theme that could benefit from being further researched and more importantly how it can be created and enhanced through effective leadership, which is the aim of this study.

1.2 Problem & purpose statement

Motivation is a complex psychological phenomenon, researched by many. Studies of work motivation in project management, on the other hand, have been very limited (Dwivedula and Bredillet, 2010, p. 159). Project Managers, as expressed by Boddy (2002, p. 122), need a motivational theory that is easy to understand and to use in practice.

The purpose of this study is to explore motivation in the project context and investigate if it is possible to synchronise the view of three internal stakeholders in order to make them strive for the same goal, instead of working in a political tensed climate with opposite agendas, and if so - how this could be done.

The research questions that have guided the study are: (1) what factors influence the motivation of project team members; (2) whose responsibility is it to create motivation in project teams within the matrix organisation, according to three main internal stakeholders; and (3) how can a project model be used to facilitate motivation?

The research project will aim to accomplish a framework that can serve as a pilot study to develop a practical guide for project managers on how to motivate their team members, which could then be added to an existing project model.

The intellectual problem the research will address is how project models and other established procedures affect the way stakeholders act and think of their roles in creating high performance in projects. This study relates to the ongoing dialogue within SCA Hygiene Products AB concerning innovation, which is essential within Product Development, and Performance Management which is a popular management topic in many organisations. It contributes to the existing knowledge base by adding the project model context and focusing on the triangular stakeholder interaction in the matrix organisation as a moderator for motivation.

1.3 Parameters

Motivation is a wide research area; it is therefore noteworthy that it is the concept of work motivation within the project context that is being studied. Motivation is closely connected to communication where feedback is of especially great importance, why the study will be limited to this aspect of communication. Moreover, there are many theories of motivation available. For this research, *The Job Characteristics Theory* and *The Goal-setting Theory* were found to be most relevant, why the focus will be on these two. Finally, there are many stakeholders involved in projects. For this study it is the three internal stakeholders closest to the project that will be analysed, namely Project Managers, Line Managers and members of Project Teams.

1.4 Research method

This research is an empirical study, which means that the results are based on data that the author has collected. A qualitative research approach will be adopted during this research project which is designed as a Case study of a single case. An interview inquiry will be used to obtain the qualitative data.

1.5 Limitations

This study will only consider PRIME, the project model that SCA Global Hygiene Category uses. The parts of the model which will be studied are those which have implications for the research aim or, more precisely, those that concern project organisation, project roles and responsibilities, project goal-setting and effective teams. In addition, the study has been limited to contain the most common type of projects within the organisation, which are product development and launch projects. For practical reasons, only individuals situated in Gothenburg with surroundings will be included in the study. Finally, it is the motivation of the team members, not of the Managers, that will be taken into consideration.

1.6 Dissertation structure overview

The dissertation consists of seven chapters. In the first chapter the background to and purpose of the study is presented. The following two chapters form the theoretical framework of the study. Whilst the second chapter is a review of contemporary literature within the research field, the third is based upon unpublished material from SCA. In the fourth chapter the reader is briefly reminded of the purpose of the study together with the research questions and the methodological approach to the research. Chapter five presents the empirical results and in chapter six these are discussed and analysed out from the theoretical framework. The conclusions are then presented in chapter seven together with the author's recommendations and some suggestions for further research.

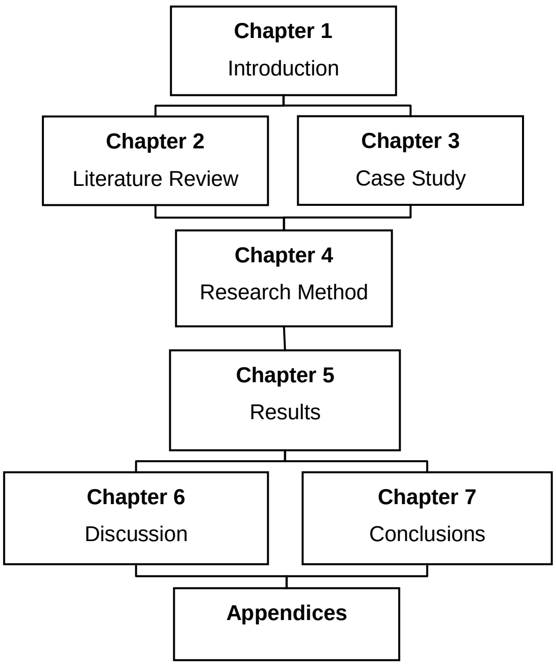

Figure 1-1. The dissertation structure

2. Literature Review

This chapter will first give a brief background to project models and their organisational context. Then a theoretical framework of work motivation in the project context will be developed - both from an individual and a team perspective.

2.1 Project Models

There is very limited research within the area of project models and this chapter will thus be highly influenced by the world of practice.

Wenell Management AB (2008a) attempt to define a project model by stating that it provides a structure of how an organisation might organise, manage and carry out work in projects.

Semcon[1] (2008) add to this definition by arguing that:

> *"A project model gives structure, business focus, a common language and clearly defined roles and processes."*

PMI (2008, p. 27) argues that an organisation's degree of project management maturity and its project management systems can influence projects but without a structured way of working in projects they will not be much of a help. Project models can provide this structure and are used by many project-based companies to make the project work efficient. In their paper *Is Standardisation Applicable to Project Managers of Multi-Project Companies?*, Gunnarsson, Linde and Loid (2000, p. 1) argue that it is one of the current standardisation trends in multi-project companies to structure their projects using a project model and furthermore that the purpose of this is to establish a platform that is common to all projects, a shared terminology and a standardised way of working.

2.1.1 Purpose and effects of using project models

The purpose of a project model is to form a base and increase understanding for how work in projects should be performed. It should also clarify how the interaction between the project and the line organization is supposed to work. The aim of the model is not to describe in detail how to manage a project, but more to be a general support (Semcon, 2008; Wenell Management AB, 2008a). This is supported by Gunnarsson, Linde and Lind (2000, pp. 1, 3), who state that project models are used as a standardisation to enable coordination of projects and

[1] Semcon is a highly project based company

strengthen senior managers tactical control in a climate where organisations become growingly decentralised and project managers act on their own authority.

According to Wenell Management AB (2008b; 2008c; 2008d; 2008e) a project model typically contains three main parts. These are described in more detail in Table 2-1. Or as expressed by Gunnarsson, Linde and Lind (2000, p. 3) project models issue rules, programs and schedules. A project model can include elements such as: project definitions, project organisation, general project phases and templates for vital project documents.

Table 2-1. Typical structure of Project models.

Part	*Description*	*Purpose*
Project life-cycle	Describes the project workflow and shows an overview of the project process with all its phases and decision points - from concept to utilisation. Each phase typically include some work steps to be executed.	By dividing the process into these logical steps the project gets a clear structure that ensures better quality.
Project roles	Specifies the roles involved in a project and describes their key tasks.	Ensures that involved people play their roles and work together in a dynamic way, like a sports team, which is an essential part in making the project successful.
Project documents	Provides a standardised information structure.	Secures that everybody has access to relevant information and can save hours of work.

Project models may have several effects on the organisation. Models that in detail regulate activities through checklists and standardised plans will result in standardisation of behaviour. Other models, with specific decisions and actions to be carried out at certain points in time, will rather standardise the outputs (Gunnarsson, Linde and Loid, 2000, p. 3).

2.1.2 Implementation problems of project models

As seen above, project models can assist in providing a structure that makes the project work efficient. But what happens if the model is implemented without being properly established and rooted within the organisation first?

The project model is, as the name indicates, just a model and is going to be interpreted and used by people working in the organisation. It is important to keep in mind that a project model will not give any tangible, lasting effects if the people involved in the project lack sufficient competence. Before trying to implement a project model, a strategy is needed where the expected long-term effects are evaluated. In order to secure that the intended benefits and long-term effects are reached, it is vitally important that the establishment of the model is supported by guidance to those who are going to use it. If project managers are not assisted on how to use the model in their individual project they might either have problems with using it or over-interpret it (Wenell Management AB, 2008b; 2008f).

2.2 Project management in the organisational context

The mother organisation and projects within it are mutually dependent. The organisational culture, style and structure are all factors that influence performance in projects. Project Management is therefore a task that is deeply influenced by the context in which the project is delivered (Boddy, 2002, p. 31; PMI, 2008, p. 27). In this chapter some of these contextual matters will be discussed.

2.2.1 Organisational structure – the Matrix Organisation

PMI (2008, p. 222) states that:

> *"It is important to recognize [sic] that different organisation structures have different individual response, individual performance, and personal relationship characteristics".*

Viewed from a project perspective, the structure of an organisation can affect the availability of resources and influence how projects are conducted (PMI, 2008, p. 28).

Work performed in organisations can be categorised as either project or operations work. The main difference between operations and projects are that operations are ongoing and produce repetitive products while projects are temporary with a definite start and end date and produce unique products or services (Dwivedula and Bredillet, 2010, p. 159; PMI, 2008, p. 22).

Traditional organisations are, according to Dwivedula and Bredillet (2010, p. 159), characterised by vertical communication channels and hierarchical structure. In this functional, hierarchical organisation each employee has one clear superior and each department will do its project work independent of other departments (PMI, 2008, p. 28).

The project-based organisation is the opposite of traditional organisations and is a structure that dominates in the construction industry but has some significant disadvantages which for many organisations would overcome the advantages. Matrix management is a mix of functional and project organisation characteristics and was invented as a way of achieving the benefits of project organisation without getting the disadvantages. In a matrix organisation it is common that project managers have little or no direct authority over the project team (Maylor, 2005, pp. 222-223; PMI, 2008, pp. 29, 240).

In a matrix organisation the operations work, also called the line, supports the environment where projects are executed which generally results in a large interaction between the operations department and the project team. The project and the functional organisation are mutually dependent on each other. One example of the interaction is when individuals from operations are assigned as project resources to work on the project team and assist with their operational expertise. The project cannot survive without resources from its mother organisation and in the long run the functional organisation relies on successfully executed projects that deliver resources back to the line. For some types of projects the product of the project will be integrated in the operations department future practices. A project that is too dependent on the resources of the functional organisation lacks autonomy and ability to act, while a project that is too autonomic can undermine the functional organisation (PMI, 2008, p. 23; Rapp Ricciardi, 2001, p. 212).

A matrix organisation can be either light-weight (weak), balanced or heavy-weight (strong), where the light-weight matrix is very similar to a functional organisation with limited power of the project managers and the heavy-weight is closely related to the project-based organisation with project managers working full time and with full control over the project budget. It is possible for different projects to have different matrix structures (Maylor, 2005, pp. 224-226; PMI, 2008, p. 28).

Maylor (2005, p. 224) argues that there are three factors vital for a matrix organisation to be successful: training - both of managers and team members; support systems – administrative, informational and career-wise; and the individual's personality – such as tolerance for role ambiguity and working in an uncertain environment with conflicting priorities.

2.2.2 Project Stakeholders

A definition of stakeholders, put forward by PMI (2008, p. 23), suggests that stakeholders might have very different agendas:

> *"Persons or organizations [sic] ... who are actively involved in the project or whose interests may be positively or negatively affected by the performance or completion of the project".*

Boddy (2002, p. 81-83) claims that the main stakeholders represent a primary focus for the Project Manager as he or she attempts to influence their behaviour in a way that helps the project. Cleland (2004) adds that stakeholders must be fully committed and support the project during all its phases, even though it might disrupt their own ongoing work. In the process of gaining their commitment it is important to start with a stakeholder analysis.

The first step in the analysis is to identify those who have an interest in the project tasks which, according to PMI (2008, p. 24) is a continuous process that can be difficult. One way of separating stakeholders are to distinguish between internal and external (PMI, 2008, p. 23). In his chapter *How to motivate all stakeholders to work together*, Cleland (2004) argues that from the perspective of the project manager, the most important stakeholder might be the project sponsor who owns the project or/and and is the client. He continues by identifying the other typical internal stakeholders in projects, who might not be as easy to spot (Table 2-2).

Table 2-2. Typical internal project stakeholders, inspired by Cleland (2004).

Internal project stakeholders:
• People recruited directly to work on the project team;
• People who normally work for other departments but are, full time or occasionally, involved in the project;
• Managers of those other departments who will be contributing human (or other) resources to the project;
• People who represent other departments because the project will affect those departments. May be the users or operators;
• Representatives from other remote-location divisions, subsidiary companies, or even overseas branches, who will be affected by the project or required to conform to it;
• Other project managers and their teams working on different projects within the organization but who may be competing for the same resources.

2.3 Motivation at work

> *”The carrot and the stick are pervasive and persuasive motivators. But if you treat people like donkeys, they will perform like donkeys.”*
>
> (Whitmore, 2009, p. 106)

In this chapter, motivation will be explored from an organisational perspective. First a definition of work motivation will be presented, followed by an examination of the implications for companies and a brief historical overview of motivational theories.

2.3.1 A definition of work motivation

Most people probably intuitively know what motivation is but find it difficult to express in words. When motivation is defined by theoreticians, three words are frequently recurring: *Direction* (what people choose to do); *Effort*; and *Persistence* (Arnold and Schoonman, 2002, p. 162; Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy, 2009, p. 370; Latham and Ernst, 2006, p. 183). To put it simple: motivation is a short-term for choosing an activity to engage in, establishing a level of effort to put in it and determining the level of persistence over time (Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy, 2009, p. 370).

Pinder (1998, cited in Dwivedula and Bredillet, 2010, p. 158) defines *work* motivation as:

> *"a set of energetic forces that originate both from within and beyond the individual's being leading to work-related behavior [sic] in terms of determining the form, direction, and intensity of this behavior [sic]"*

This definition is very similar to the one provided by Latham and Ernst (2006, p. 181) which in addition emphasise that it is a psychological process that results from the interaction between the individual and the environment.

2.3.2 Motivation in the organisational context

Viewed from a historical perspective, motivation in organisations has changed focus from official residences and sports clubs, some decades ago, to promotion and prestige. In the modern society, many individuals are moving higher up in the need hierarchy (see chapter 2.3.3) towards the need of acquiring a high self-esteem. In times of financial crises, as cut-downs, insecure employments and minimal increases in salaries become more common, many employees withdraw from needs of self-esteem and self-actualisation to more basic needs, such as a roof over their heads and food on the table. This has led to a wider range of needs presented in the work-places (Whitmore, 2009, p.110).

Motivation in the organisation context has traditionally been related to issues such as: secured job, interesting job, ability to perform the job, recognition from others, adequate salary and feedback on performance (Dwivedula and Bredillet, 2010, p. 159). People are motivated if they feel they are valued in the organisation, as stated by PMI (2008, p. 234). This value is demonstrated by the rewards that are given to them. The changes in focus mentioned above are starting to be reflected in the methods of rewards used by companies (Whitmore, 2009, p.

110). Money has traditionally been, and is still generally, seen as a very concrete reward but there are other types of rewards that can be as, or even more, effective (PMI, 2008, p. 234).

Whitmore (2009, p. 110) claims that traditional managing methods are very poor adapted for fulfilling higher order needs and instead of increasing people’s self-esteem they tend to damage it. Latham and Ernst (2006, pp. 191-192) predict that motivation in the future will be a collective activity where all members of the organisation need to take responsibility for ensuring that the conditions necessary for high motivation exist.

In order for companies to keep up with their employees it is time for them to change focus. According to Whitmore (2009, p.111) young employees have different expectations than their predecessors and want to have a job that is meaningful to them. They are not looking for an employment that lasts the rest of their life and if their needs are not satisfied they will leave the organisation. Their needs are based on factors that reinforce self-esteem and lead to self-actualisation. To conclude, this calls for companies that have a well thought-through ethical policy along with core values that conforms to the interests of all employees and stakeholders as well as the society in whole.

2.3.3 A historical overview of motivational theories

The concept of work motivation origins from research on psychology but is one of the few areas of psychology that has always been driven by a positive approach, guided by a will to learn more about sound people and how they function (Erez and Eden, 2001, pp. 1-2).

Theories of work motivation have, except from personality theory and human needs, traditionally included both individual and situational characteristics (Erez and Eden, 2001, p. 2). Dwivedula and Bredillet (2010) divide work motivation into two other main threads - the content-based theories and the process-based theories. This separation is also acknowledged by Arnold and Schoonman (2002, pp. 160-161), who describe content-based theories as focused on *what* motivates people, while the process-based theories focus on *how* motivation operates. Figure 2-1 (p. 23) illustrates some of the leading motivational theorists within respective thread.

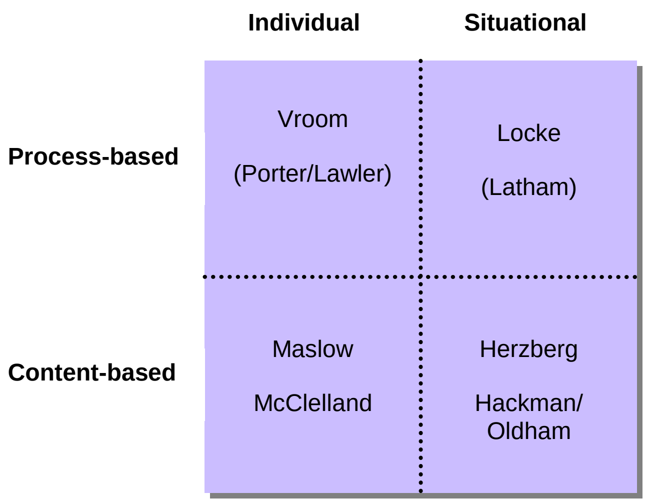

Figure 2-1. Mapping of some of the leading contributors to the field of work-related motivation.

One of the pioneers within the work motivation field was Taylor and his concept *Scientific Management* was the starting point of the content-based work motivation theories. The commonly quoted researchers within the content-based thread are: Maslow, well-known for his *Need Hierarchy Theory* put forward in 1943; Herzberg and his *The Motivation-Hygiene Theory* developed in the 1950s; and McClelland (Dwivedula and Bredillet, 2010, p. 159). The findings of Maslow and Herzberg have been thoroughly discussed in numerous papers and critique has been raised. For example, Adair (2006, p. 43) argues that it since then has been shown that humans are not only motivated by inner needs but also by external factors, such as task and the people that surrounds us. Miner (2005, pp. 72-73) criticises that *The Motivation-Hygiene Theory* has not been tested since 1971 and moreover, that later theories have been able to explain job enrichment more thoroughly than Herzberg did. The content-based theories gave rise to Hackman's and Oldham's *Job Characteristics Theory* (Dwivedula and Bredillet, 2010, p. 159). This is one of the two main theories used to guide this research and will be presented in more detail below.

The process-based theories gained status in the second half of the 1960's. They differ from the content-based theories in that they tend to have a cognitive orientation and view motivation as dynamic over time. The most prominent theorists within this thread are Vroom, Porter and Lawler, and Locke. The latter started develop *The Goal-setting Theory* in the 1960's with increasing support from Latham (Arnold and Schoonman, 2002, p. 161; Dwivedula and Bredillet, 2010, p. 159). This theory is the second main theory of this study and will be explored in more detail further down.

2.4 The Job Characteristics Theory

As stated by Miner (2005, pp. 75-77), the Job Characteristics Theory was originally developed by Rickard Hackman and Edward Lawler, but later further developed by Hackman and Greg Oldham who are more frequently associated with it. Latham and Ernst (2006, pp. 182-183) claim that the Job Characteristics theory is building upon the work of both Maslow and Herzberg in that it takes into account both human needs and motivating factors in the work environment, but instead of arguing that enriched jobs are for everyone, as Herzberg, Hackman and Oldham believed that job enrichment only motivates employees who have higher needs for autonomy, responsibility, task variety, feedback and recognition.

Boddy (2002, p. 125) calls this theory *The Job Enrichment Model* and argues that it added to the work of earlier motivation theorists by proposing that managers could change the design of the tasks to motivate employees and enhance job satisfaction. During the 1970s this theory came to replace *The Motivation-Hygiene Theory* and according to Miner (2005, p. 91) it remains the dominant position within the field of job enrichment up to this day. Although, as observed by Dviwedula and Bredillet (2010, p. 159), the theory is very dominant in explaining work motivation in traditional functional organisations, there has not been much research on the concept of job design in a project-based organisation.

Hackman and Oldham (1980) developed a model (see Figure 2-2) with five factors that they called the core job characteristics cited by many, for example Boddy (2002, p. 125) and Miner (2005, p. 78).

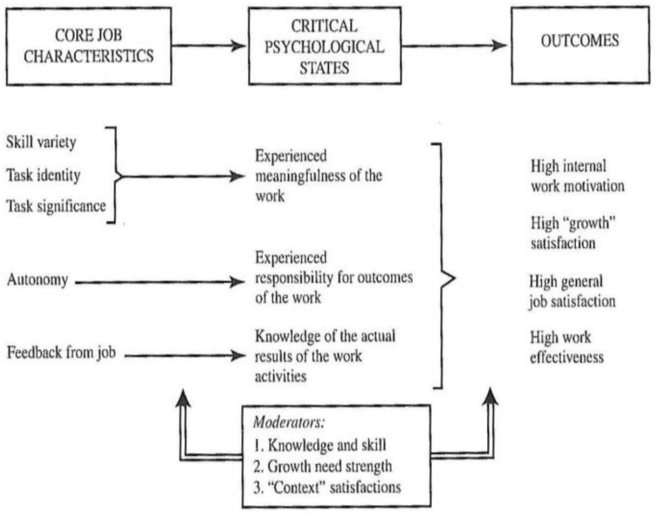

Figure 2-2. The complete Job Characteristics model. (Hackman and Oldham, 1980, cited in Miner, 2005, p. 78)

The five factors that contribute to the motivational potential of a job are: *Skill variety* – the extent to which a job makes use of a range of skills and experience; *Task identity* – whether a job involves a relatively complete operation; *Task significance* – how much the job matters to others; *Autonomy* – how much freedom a person has in deciding how to do their work; and *Feedback* – the extent to which a person receives feedback on performance (Boddy, 2002, p. 125). Noteworthy is that, as emphasised by Miner (2005, p. 77), it is the perception of these factors that matters.

Additionally, Hackman and Oldham (1980, cited in Miner, 2005, p. 80) present five *Implementing principles* which can be used to create core job characteristics. These are illustrated in Figure 2-3 (p. 25).

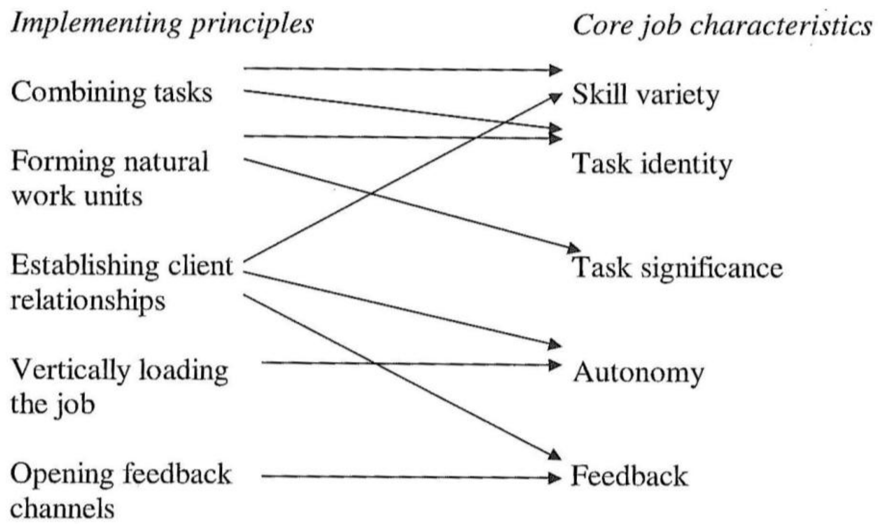

Figure 2-3. Links between the Implementing Principles and the Core Job Characteristics. (Hackman and Oldham, 1980, cited in Miner, 2005, p. 80)

The job characteristics theory was originally developed in the context of established, regular tasks but are according to Boddy (2002, p. 125), likely to be valid also in project work.

Table 2-3 shows some project management applications of the theory.

Table 2-3. The implementing principles and some practical applications to project work, adapted from Boddy (2002, p. 126).

Implementing Principle	*Practical example*
Combining tasks	The project task should not be divided into small pieces if it can be avoided. Instead, combine smaller tasks so that the employee gets to use more skills and complete a larger part on their own.
Forming natural work groups	Design project tasks so that team members need to cooperate and strong working rela-

	tionships between them are built.
Establishing customer relations	Make sure that team members really understand what the client wants. Encourage visits and direct communication and link team members to specific customers.
Vertical loading	Give the team more responsibilities and let them take part in tasks that are traditionally seen as supervisory, such as planning and scheduling.
Opening feedback channels	Pass information from customers, both positive and negative comments and invite team members to meetings with them. Encourage more internal review and performance evaluation.

The critique of this theory can be concluded into three main threads. Miner (2005, p. 82) criticises that (1) little research has been conducted on how the theory works at group level; it might be harder to facilitate job enrichment at a group level than at the individual level. Moreover, as stated by Miner (2005, pp. 89-90), (2) this theory fails to recognise the personality component and only looks at situational factors as a motivating force. This view is supported by Erez and Eden (2001, p. 2), who use the expression *context based*, which means focused on the situation rather than the individual. Finally, (3) *The Job Characteristics Theory* is what Dwivedula and Bredillet (2010, p. 159) call content based, which means that it regards motivation as static rather than a time-related process.

2.5 The Goal-setting Theory

The Goal-setting theory was first formulated in the 1960s and has roots in both psychology and in management. It has, in contrast to many other motivational theories, succeeded into the applied area (Miner, 2005, pp. 155, 159). Latham and Locke (2006, p. 340) spent their last 40 years developing the goal-setting theory and according to them it was recently ranked No. 1 in importance among 73 management theories. This is supported by Arnold and Schoonman (2002, p. 161) who argue that this theory is probably one of the most successful in increasing work performance.

According to Latham and Locke (2006, p. 332), the foundation of this theory is that goal-directed action is a vital part of human life, or as said by Arnold and Schoonman (2002, p. 161), that people’s behaviour is dictated by their goals and their intentions to achieve them.

Latham and Locke (2006, p. 334) define that:

> *“A goal is a regulatory mechanism for monitoring, evaluating, and adjusting our behavior [sic].”*

In an earlier publication, Locke (2001, pp. 14-15) states that personal goals and self-efficacy are the motivational factors that are closest in deciding our actions, where self-efficacy is a cognitive judgment which is an estimate of capacity for performance. Latham and Ernst (2006, p. 188) claim that goal-setting is such a powerful motivational technique that in regards to performance it overrides the effect of personality differences. This means that regardless of a person's goal orientation, setting a high, specific learning goal will be beneficial in discover specific procedures and methods for mastering a task.

According to Miner (2005, p. 162) goals consist of two major attributes – *content* and *intensity*. The content represents the end that is sought and the intensity how important it is. These two factors will decide a direction and how much effort that is spent on achieving the goal. Miner (2005, p. 164) also presents three factors that explain why goal-setting might work as a motivational force: (1) *Effort* - Goals energise performance; (2) *Persistence* - Goals motivate people to persist; and (3) *Direction* – Goals direct people's attention and provide focus. Or as stated by Latham and Locke (2006, p. 334):

> *'... a goal increases our effort, prolong persistence, and cues us to search for appropriate strategies to attain it'*

Moreover, Latham and Locke (2006, p. 333) argue that people use goals to appraise their performance. As a consequence, people do not experience success depending on their absolute level of performance, but in relation to their goals. Thus goals are related to motivation, because the greater success in achieving high goals seen as important, the greater the individuals subjective well-being, in terms of happiness, pleasure and satisfaction. Furthermore, when people perform well they do not only feel satisfied, they also let this feeling reflect upon the task and will thus like the task more than they did before. Finally, goal-setting can increase people's mental focus on a task and decrease boredom by providing purpose and meaning to an otherwise meaningless task. Purposefulness usually leads to a pleasurable feeling alone and by adding goal attainment people are given a sense of accomplishment. This, in turn, increases their sense of self-efficacy (task-specific self-confidence) which is a psychological need within all of us (Latham and Locke, 2006, p. 333-334).

In 1990 Locke and Latham wrote *A Theory of Goal Setting and Task Performance*, which took the Goal-setting theory to a new, more mature stage (see Figure 2-4). In this publication (p. 85, cited in Miner, 2005, p. 163) they stated that:

"Assigned goals facilitate performance because they influence both self-efficacy and personal goals. Self-efficacy affects goal choice, and both self-efficacy and personal goals affect performance."

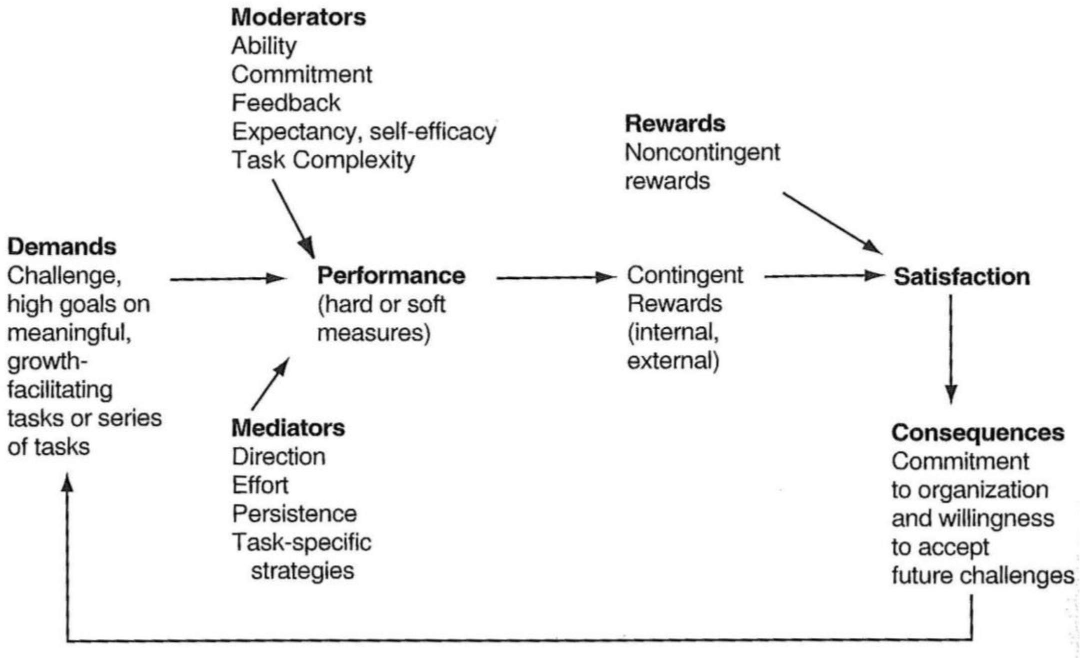

Figure 2-4. Model of High Performance Cycle (Locke and Latham, 1990, cited in Miner, 2005, p. 168).

2.5.1 Goal Specificity and Goal Difficulty

One of the first hypotheses within the goal-setting theory was made by Bryan and Locke (1967, cited in Miner 2005, p. 161) and it assumed that the interest in a task would be higher if working toward a specific goal than if there was only an abstract goal, such as *do your best*. This hypothesis of goal specificity later became one of the core aspects of goal-setting theory. Latham and Locke (2006, p. 332) argue that specific goals are preferable and lead to a higher level of performance than vague goals. This is because vague goals create uncertainty and give persons the possibility to question their performance.

Miner (2005, pp. 172-174) argues that important factors to take into consideration are, except from goal specificity, difficulty and acceptance of goals. A challenging goal should be difficult but attainable and in order for an assigned goal to increase performance, it is vital that the individual has accepted it. Research by Latham and Locke (2006, p. 332) has shown that as long as a person has the knowledge and skill needed, a high goal will lead to greater effort, focus and persistence than an easy one. Moreover, they (Latham and Locke, 2006, p. 333) state that challenging goals can help increasing an individual's personal effectiveness.

A study in Germany demonstrated that over a three-year period only the people who had set high goals reported increases in their positive emotions and job satisfaction. There was no evidence of high goals causing feeling of exhaustion (Latham and Locke, 2006, p. 333). As stated by Arnold and Schoonman (2002, p. 161):

> *"Difficult (but not impossible) and specific (as opposed to vague) goals are the best sort because they focus a person's attention and stimulate him or her to develop appropriate behavioural strategies."*

Moreover, they argue that it is more likely for a person to accept a goal and feel committed to it if he participates in setting it. Participative goal-setting will be discussed in more detail below.

2.5.2 Participative goal-setting

Goals can be assigned or set in a participative manner. Miner (2005, p. 172) states that assigned goals work better for individuals that are already intrinsically motivated, while participative goals can add motivation for those who lack it as long as they are comfortable with it. Assigned goals will affect performance through its effects on self-set goals and self-efficacy. Assigned goals affect the employee's own goals by providing a norm and even though these goals might differ if the employee does not commit to the assigned goals, they are still strongly correlated. If the assigned goals are quite high the individual might interpret this as confidence in his ability which will affect his self-efficacy (Locke, 2001, p. 16).

Conversely, employee participation is important as:

> *"…it leads to the discovery of effective task strategies and hence increases a person's self-efficacy that the goal is attainable."*
>
> (Latham and Locke, 2006, p. 333)

Latham (2000, cited in Miner, 2005, p. 173) states that:

> *"When used correctly, goal setting can be a highly effective motivating force for performance whether the goals are self-set, set participatively, or assigned."*

The key is to provide a logic or rationale. As long as a manager explains *why* a goal is set, assigned goals can be as effective as self-set goals (Latham and Locke, 2006, p. 332).

2.5.3 Feedback as a moderator

Feedback combined with goal-setting are the core of self-management (Latham and Locke, 2006, p. 334). A goal without feedback does not improve performance as feedback translates goals into action (Miner, 2005, pp. 165-166, 171). This view is supported by Arnold and Schoonman (2002, p. 167) who claim that:

> *"Feedback on performance level has frequently been found to be an important mediator of the impact of goal-setting."*

According to Latham and Ernst (2006, p. 188), research has shown that when sub-goals are set in addition to the main goal, on a complex task, both self-efficacy and performance increases, compared to people who are urged to do their best. In another article Latham, this time accompanied by Locke (2006, p. 336), provides a possible explanation why. In dynamic situations they claim that it is critical to actively search for and react upon feedback. If a goal is broken down into sub-goals errors are reduced. This is due to the increase in information feedback when sub-goals are set relative to pursuing a higher, more distant goal only.

Locke (2001, p. 17) argues that even though some feedback is necessary for goal-setting to be effective, it does not mean that your performance will be improved just because you know the results of your work.

2.5.4 Goal-setting as a mediator of performance

In 1991, Locke (cited in Miner, 2005, p. 170) designed a model (Figure 2-5, p. 31) that explained how motivation is connected to goal-setting and how it transforms into performance. In the model, volition represents the choice to think or not to think (Binswanger, 1991, cited in Locke, 2001, p. 15).

The basic concept of Locke's (2001, p. 14) 'Motivation Hub' concept is that self-set goals and self-efficacy, both task and situational-specific, will take into account other motivational effects in the context of the task.

> *'Despite being conceptually distinct, the two concepts [Self-set goals and Self-efficacy] represent two complimentary aspects of motivation: what individuals are trying to accomplish and the confidence that they can accomplish it'*
>
> (Locke, 2001, p. 16).

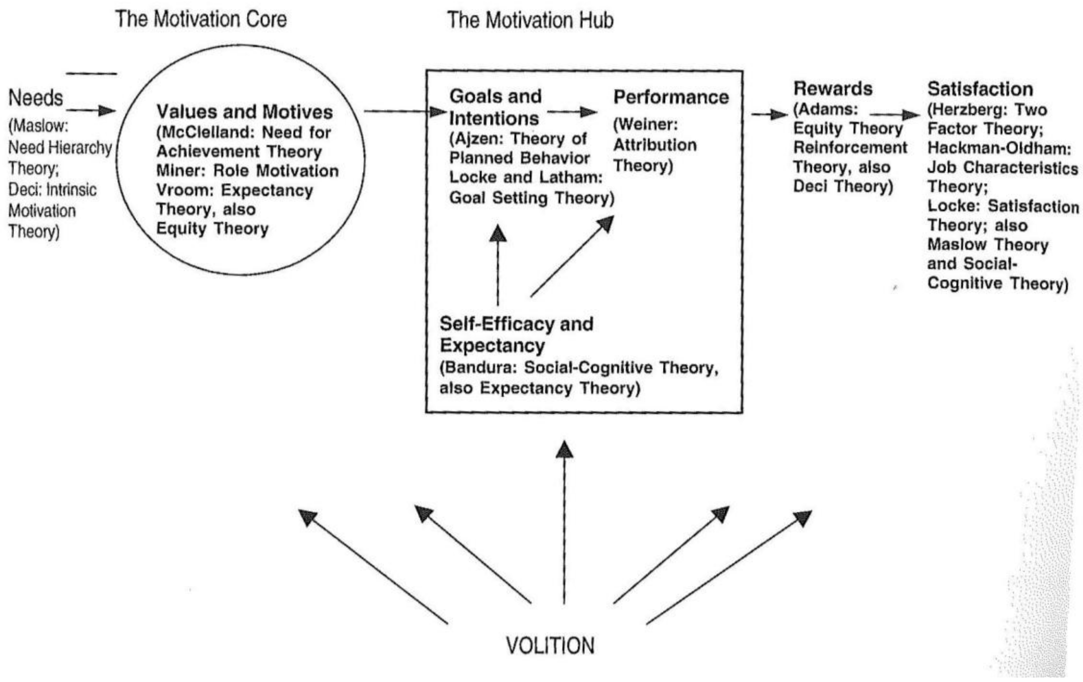

Figure 2-5. Model of the motivation sequence (Locke, 1991, p. 289 cited in Miner, 2005, p. 170).

Locke (1991, cited in Miner, 2005, p. 170) has already in his earlier publication hypothesised that *Self-set goals* and *Self-efficacy* are affected by the two motivational elements: *Needs* and *Values/Motives,* which is illustrated by his model of the motivation sequence. Both of these are internal factors. In a more recent publication, however, Locke (2001, p. 14) adds two elements to the model. These are Personality, which reflects as well values and motives as personal style, and Incentives, which are external factors such as assigned goals, feedback, participation, money, job design and leadership. His conclusion is that all these factors (Needs, Values, Motives, Personality and Incentives) will influence individuals' self-efficacy which in turn will affect their goals set and thus their performance. For incentives to be effective, it is important that they appeal to the individual's values (Locke, 2001, p. 15).

Studies have shown that commitment does not explain any variance in performance rate that is not already explained by self-set goals and self-efficacy. This is because people that are highly committed set higher goals and have higher self-efficacy than those who are not committed (Locke, 2001, p. 23). It should also be noted that even though the model does not include cognitive factors such as skills and knowledge, these factors are not neglected but are not seen as motivational factors. Furthermore, it is not yet set where unconscious motivation has its place in this model (Locke, 2001, p. 15).

2.5.5 Potential drawbacks of goal-setting and their possible solutions

Goal effectiveness is based on context factors and in their article 'Enhancing the Benefits and Overcoming the Pitfalls of Goal Setting', Latham and Locke (2006) presents ten potential shortcomings of their theory and suggests what might be done to overcome or prevent them. Table 2-4 illustrates those with largest implications for this study.

Table 2-4. Potential shortcomings of goal-setting and possible solutions (Latham and Locke, 2006, pp. 334-337)

Potential shortcoming:	*Solution:*
If people lack sufficient skills and knowledge, difficult goals may lead to poorer performance than telling them to do their best.	In such cases, assigning specific high learning goals (e.g. learn to master specific technique) often leads to the highest performance.
A goal can have a negative effect on a group's performance if there is a conflict among group members. Competition is likely to occur if two or more members view the attainment of goals as negatively related, i.e. that the attainment of one member's goal is viewed as decreasing the probability for the other members to attain their goals.	Goals may be presented as cooperatively or competitively related, or as independent. Set a goal that unites people by giving them a common cause to gather around and stress cooperative interdependence.
If people view a goal as threatening instead of as a challenge, performance will drop.	The solution is to frame the goal in a positive way when presenting it.
Goals might increase a person's level of stress, especially if they are challenging and/or too many.	Make sure that people are assigned a reasonable number or goals and that people are given necessary training and resources to be able to attain them.
Employees who reach, or even exceed, challenging goals may next time be assigned goals that are impossible to attain. This may, except from increased stress, result in people leaving the organisation.	By assigning progressively difficult goals to high performing teams or individuals they are in fact being punished. To prevent this pitfall, they should be allowed to set their own goals and the strategies to attain them.

2.6 Motivation in the project context

Previous chapters have presented some theories of individual motivation since understanding individual motivation is the basis for understanding team motivation, as put forward by Boddy (2002, p. 122). It is now time to shift focus from individuals to the constructs of team motivation and performance in the project context.

2.6.1 Are project team members different from other employees?

Dwivedula and Bredillet (2010, p. 160) argue that from an employee perspective, constructs of work motivation in functional organisations and in project-based organisations are not remarkably different. In both of these two contexts the employees have the same overall expectations of their job environment. Instead they state that it is the source of motivation that differs. According to PMI (2008, p. 234) most project workers are motivated by an opportunity to grow, accomplish and apply their professional skills to meet new challenges. Turner (2003, cited in Dwivedula and Bredillet) suggests that some important sources of work motivation for project workers are: goal clarity; feedback on performance; and communication between the project team members.

Boddy (2002, p. 121) puts emphasises on employment being a give-and-take relationship. The project team want to get something in reward for the work they perform in the project and it is the Project Manager's responsibility to give them a reward they value as balanced to their effort. This is supported by PMI (2008, p. 236) who state that it is the project manager's responsibility to provide team members with challenging tasks and give them recognition for good performance.

The ability to motivate others is a fundamental leadership skill (Hughes, Ginett and Curphy, 2009) which in the project environment involves:

> *"[C]reating an environment to <u>meet project objectives</u> while offering maximum self-satisfaction related to <u>what people value most</u>."*
>
> (PMI, 2008, p.418, my underlining)

In recent years, there has been a shift in theories of motivation from the individual perspective to the team perspective. Dwivedula and Bredillet (2010, p. 159) conclude that in the last two to three decades, work motivation has been defined with parameters such as: feedback on performance, enjoyable nature of work, task identity, task significance and job autonomy. In the last seven year, however, this has changed and work motivation is started to be analysed from a more social perspective where constructs such as shared identity, need for relatedness, communication and cohesiveness are identified. The social context of projects will be further discussed below.

2.6.2 The team perspective

In project management literature it is commonly stated that the project team is a determinant for project success (Rapp Ricciardi, 2001, p. 23). The project team is an organisation of individuals brought together from different areas of specialism, in accordance of what is needed to perform the project tasks (PMI, 2008, p. 26). As put forward by Dwivedula and Bredillet

(2010, p. 159) projects require cross-functional skills for successful execution. According to Maylor (2005, p. 220) the larger organisation the higher the degree of speciality in the team will be. As a heterogeneous team has work-related benefits, a project manager should try to overcome its negative internals, for example by arranging kick-offs and other team-building activities (Rapp Ricciardi, 2001, p. 226).

PMI (2008, p. 222) defines a role as:

> *"The label describing the portion of a project for which a person is accountable."*

A responsibility is defined as:

> *"The work that a project team member is expected to perform in order to complete the project's activities."*
>
> (PMI, 2008, p. 223)

The specific roles and responsibilities of the team members are often set by the management team, however, it is important to let the team members take part in decision-making and planning of the project, as this adds to their experience and enhances their commitment to the project (PMI, 2008, p. 215).

It is essential that the communication within the team as well as between the project manager and the team members is effective. An open communication is a key to teamwork and high performance as it improves relationships among team members and creates mutual trust (PMI, 2008, p. 419). Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996, cited in Locke, 2001, p. 15) state that leaders can motivate their followers by framing, which means that by communicating an inspiring vision that appeals to their follower's values and by expressing high confidence in them, they can make their followers understand the importance of high performance and feel confident in that they can achieve it.

According to Rapp Ricciardi (2001, p. 35) it is often claimed in both the school of project management and product development literature that project managers should pick 'the best' individuals to their project teams and, moreover, that they should fit into the already existing organisation. However, research (for example by Belbin, 1996, cited in Rapp Ricciardi, 2001, pp. 35-36) has shown that individuals in *elite teams* have a tendency of competing and rivalling instead of co-operating. Moreover, that they often hide their weaknesses and short-comings instead of exposing them so that other members can compensate for them.

To sum up, by understanding the team members concerns and be able to predict their behaviour the project manager can reduce psychological and social problems and increase cooperation. Tradtional and relatively simple methods such as team-building activities should not be under-estimated (Rapp Ricciardi, 2001, p. 226). For these tasks, the project manager needs to use interpersonal skills, such as empathy, influence and creativity (PMI, 2008, p. 232). Team performance and how to enhance it will be examined below.

2.6.3 Enhancing team performance

Kleinbeck, Wegge and Schmidt (2001) have conducted research on the relation between work motivation of group members and group effectiveness. They found that higher motivation of group members will result in higher productivity in groups, where productivity is defined as:

> *'[T]he extent to which a group uses its resources to reach its goals'*
>
> (Kleinbeck, Wegge and Schmidt, 2001, p. 182)

To illustrate the connection between work motivation and group effectiveness they have designed a model, which is presented below as Figure 2-6 (p. 36). The model describes four determinants of work motivation and group effectiveness: (1) Motives of group members, which are represented in their different personalities; (2) The motivating potential of a task, similar to the one put forward by Hackman and Oldham in their *Job Characteristics Theory*; (3) Contextual variables, such as compensations systems; and (4) Variables concerning the process through which motivation and goals are translated into action, either task related variable (such as feedback) or social variables (such as cooperation).

According to Kleinbeck, Wegge and Schmidt (2001, p. 189) motives of group members affect work motivation and group effectiveness in two ways. Together with the motivating potential of the task they decide how strong the motivation will be and, secondly, they moderate the process of translating motivational states into action. Therefore, achieving a good mix between the different motives of group members may play an important role in creating successful group work (Kleinbeck, Wegge and Schmidt, 2001, p. 182). In groups with mixed motives there might be conflicts (for example between cooperation and fear of social rejection) that hinder smooth group performance. Assigning a specific *group* goal might help to reduce these conflicts in three ways: because (1) goal-setting promotes higher self-efficacy (see chapter

2.5); (2) group goals focus attention on the group level and reduce individual consequences; and (3) group goals facilitate contribution to the group work and helps people overcome their fear of social rejection (Kleinbeck, Wegge and Schmidt, 2001, p. 192).

Not every goal is realised into action, this is where the process of translating goals into action and achievement becomes important (see Figure 2-6). The most important factor for assuring effectiveness in teams is feedback, which has been illustrated by many studies (Kleinbeck, Wegge and Schmidt, 2001, p. 186).

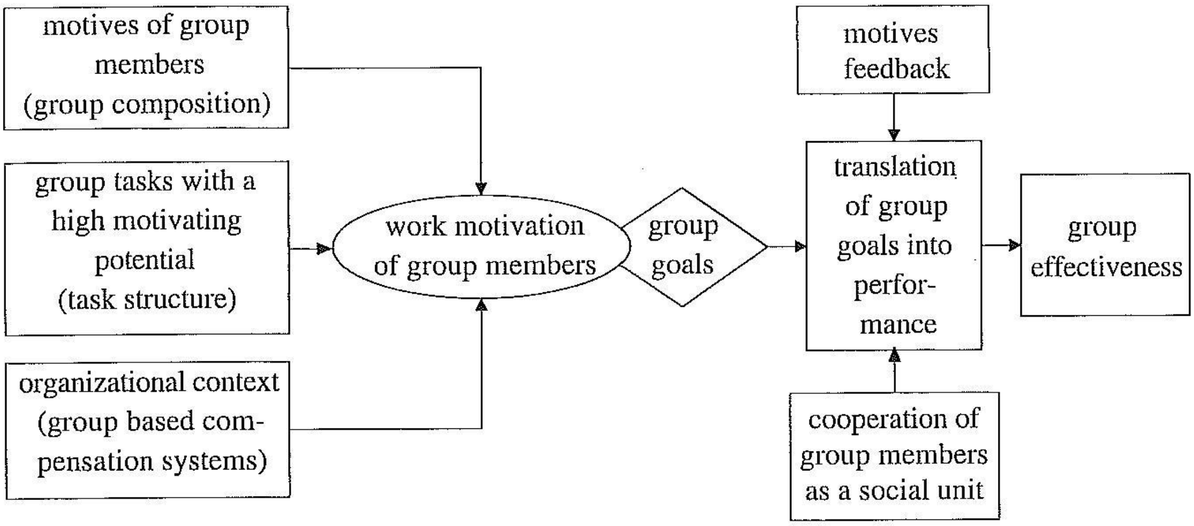

Figure 2-6. Determinants of work motivation and group effectiveness (Kleinbeck, Wegge and Schmidt, 2001, p. 183).

Consistent with the model by Kleinbeck, Wegge and Schmidt (2001), Boddy (2002, p. 120), based on Hackman (1990), presents three hurdles that teams must overcome in order to reach higher performance levels: *Effort*, *Skill* and *Processes*. Moreover, Hackman (1990, cited in Boddy, 2002, p. 132) supports Kleinbeck, Wegge and Schmidt (2001) in that he also claimed that the organisational context plays a role in enhancing team performance. Is a reward system in place and does it encourage people to work as a team, rather than rewarding individual performance? It is suggested that rewards should relate to what the team is achieving and support team performance. The skills of the team members will be affected by whether training and coaching systems are in place and information systems are needed to provide the information required to perform tasks and indicate how the team is doing (Table 2-5, p. 37). Boddy (2002, p. 132) highlights that even though the project manager might not be able to affect these organisational systems, it is good to be aware of them in order to influence senior management.

Table 2-5. Points of leverage for enhancing team performance, based on Hackman (1990, cited in Boddy, 2002, p. 121).

Requirements for effectiveness:	*Internal Conditions:*	*Organisational Context:*
Effort	Motivational structure of group tasks	Remedying coordination problems and building group commitment, e.g. rewards.
Skill	Group Composition	Available education and training, including coaching and guidance.
Processes	Norms that regulate behaviour and foster review and learning	Information system to support task and provide feedback on progress

Based on these theories it is now possible to conclude that in order to enhance team performance, project managers need to: consider the motivational potential of group tasks; consider the group composition with focus on motives of group members; ensure participative goal setting and enable systematic feedback. Furthermore, they need to consider the organisational context and ensure that performance is measured and compensated at team level.

To sum up, motivation is one of the factors that lead to performance in project teams. Motivation alone is not a guarantee for project team performance, since research has shown that performance also relies on other factors (Arnold and Schoonman, 2002, p. 162). Performance in groups without motivated group members, however, is hard, if not impossible, to achieve (Kleinbeck, Wegge and Schmidt, 2001).

3. Case Study

In this chapter SCA Global Hygiene Category (GHC) (Appendix A) will be presented, with focus on project management, in order for the reader to gain a basic understanding of the context of the research, followed by a brief description of PRIME, their model for project management, and a more detailed presentation of the parts of it that is of relevance for this dissertation.

3.1 Projects within SCA GHC

SCA GHC is a heavy-weight matrix organisation with both part-time and full-time committed project managers. These are responsible for global projects within two segments (Appendix B) and are all gathered in Gothenburg while their teams are spread over the globe (Bexell, 2010).

Projects are the way for the line organisation to execute tasks that: involve an element of risk or uncertainty; are complex; and have a need for a temporary, cross-functional organisation (SCA, 2005, p. 10).The most common types of projects within SCA GHC are Product Development Projects (PDP) and Product Launch Projects (PLP) (Stübner, 2010). These will be described in more detail below.

3.1.1 Product Development Projects and Product Launch Projects

A PDP aims to develop a product whilst a PLP take on after this and aims to launch products. Generally in these types of projects the teams involve same basic functions (Table 3-1, p.38). The main difference of the project teams is that a PLP is led by a full-time project manager whereas a PDP is led by a product developer. Hence, this person may at the same be a team member in a PLP (Stübner, 2010).

Table 3-1. The main functions in a product development and launch project team (Stübner, 2010).

Function	*Role description*	*Responsibilities*
Process management	Machine Project Leader	Knows how the machine(s) that are going to produce the product are functioning. Responsible for acquiring the right machine(s).
Production management	Factory Project Leader	Knowledge about the factory and the production of the project result. This person is typically situated at the production site.
Product development	Product Developer	Design and function of the product.
Marketing	Marketeer	Knowledge about the market in which the product is going to be launched.

3.2 PRIME – The SCA model for Project Management

PRIME is the SCA way of managing projects and it was introduced with the aim to support employees in their project work. The purpose of PRIME is to provide a common management structure and a common language, moreover, to facilitate work carried out in an international environment; and co-operation between functions, divisions and partners; and, finally, to enable rapid execution of projects (SCA, 2009c).

PRIME is based on *World-Class Project Management Principles*[2] that are proven to drive continual and rapid improvement and have been developed through external benchmarking, research and collected industrial learning. The basic form of PRIME is a generic reference applicable to all kinds of projects and educations in the PRIME model are given to project managers, line managers and team members (SCA, 2005, pp. 2, 3; 2009c; Stübner, 2010).

3.2.1 *PRIME phases and tollgates*

PRIME provides a project structure that divides the project into four phases with five tollgates which indicate where decisions about the project are supposed to take place (see Figure 3-1).

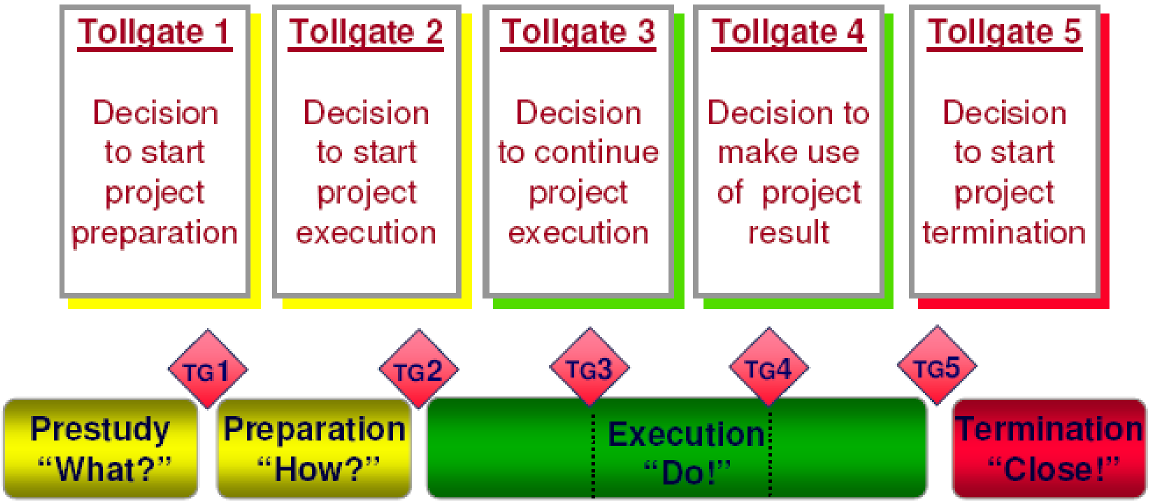

Figure 3-1. Tollgate decisions (SCA, 2008, p. 17)

[2] Breakthrough Expectations, Project Management Culture, Empowered Teams, Training and Development, Schedule/Criteria, Communication, Focused Resource Allocation, Proven Methodology/Technology, Concurrency.

3.2.2 Project organisation

The typical organisation that surrounds a project is illustrated by Figure 3-2.

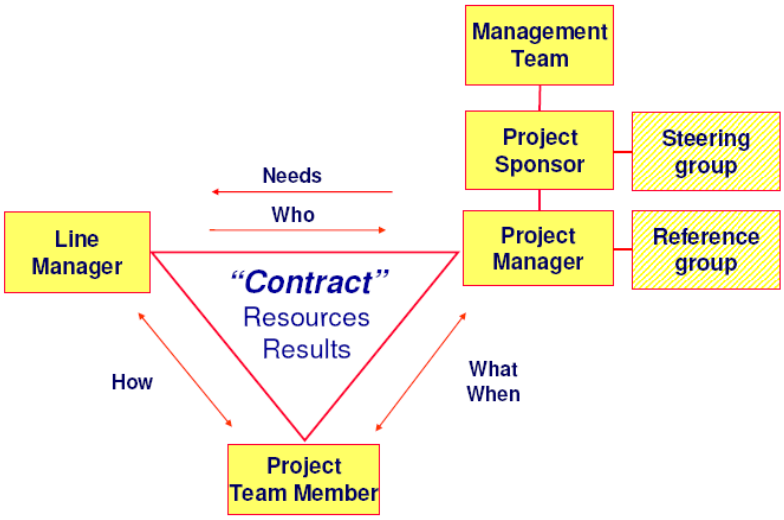

Figure 3-2. Project organisation (SCA, 2008, p. 50).

SCA's project organisation principles are as follows: All key resources/competencies brought together by one Project Manager; Total task approach; Empowerment within Freedom Box; and Team-based work methods (SCA, 2008, p. 49).The team-based work methods involve: Clear roles and responsibility; Trust and accountability; Effective communication; and Results orientation (SCA, 2005, p. 11). A total task approach means that even though every role has its responsibilities, all team members own the project together and are required to see the big picture and work together to reach the project goal instead of just focusing on their task.

SCA (2008, p. 47) define a project culture as:

> *'the set of shared attitudes, values and practices that characterizes [sic] a company's execution of projects'*

Moreover, they (SCA, 2008, p. 48) state that an effective project culture should involve both empowerment and integration between the line and the project.

3.2.3 Project roles and responsibilities

In *A guide to PRIME* (SCA, 2005, p. 19), a role is defined as:

> *"a defined assignment accompanied by clear responsibilities and expected behaviour"*

The roles closest to the project and their responsibilities are illustrated in Table 3-2 (p.41).

Table 3-2. The roles closest to the project and their responsibilities (SCA, 2005, p. 13; 2008, pp. 56-57).

Role:	*Responsibilities:*
Project manager	Is responsible for the project outcome versus the agreed goals and the authority to manage the project according to the project plan. The project manager's main responsibilities are to: take part in goal development; develop project schedule; manage project risks; analyse results; specify project requirements; coordinate team activities; prepare updates and reports; ensure responsive and effective communication; and manage by team-based principles.
Line manager	Is responsible for supplying a defined outcome, and/or competent resources as agreed on with the project manager. The line manager's main responsibilities are to: provide sufficient resources; follow and support own staff; maintain methodology; adhere to strategies and quality standards; manage staff's competence and development.
Project team member	Is responsible for the outcome as agreed upon with the project manager and the authority to manage his/her part of the project towards the goal as agreed with project manager and line manager. His/hers main responsibilities are to: manage specified activities; co-ordinate activities with other team members; provide project updates and reports; represent and co-ordinate with own line organisation; and participate in the project, based on a total task approach.

One of the major reasons that project teams fail is that they do not clearly define their roles and responsibilities in the beginning of the project. In order to achieve high levels of team performance, team members must know what their roles and responsibilities will be and feel supported in their undertaking. Unclear roles can lead to missed expectations and deadlines, unclear focus and frustration within the team. A written contract is suggested as one way of achieving clear roles and responsibilities. It will also secure commitment from both the team member and his/her line manager. If the team has clarity on their roles and expectations on them, they will be in a better position to meet goals and expectations (SCA, 2005, pp. 10, 19). Goal-setting with PRIME will be described below.

3.2.4 Goals and goal-setting

A goal is defined as 'the agreement between the organisation and the project team as to what is to be accomplished within the project' (SCA, 2005, p. 4).

Goal-setting is, according to PRIME (SCA, 2005, p. 4), an activity that requires careful consideration in order to: define the right measures; target the right ambition level; and create strong commitment and ownership.

Table 3-3 (p. 42) shows different types of goals and who is responsible for what. To reach the project goal both *hardware*, such as: objectives; skills; resources etc., and *software*, such as: empowerment; commitment; interest etc., is needed (SCA, 2008, p. 62).

As many other organisations, SCA has adopted the SMART[3] Goals technique, which they (SCA, 2005, p. 19) state is a technique for obtaining clear agreement on what is meant by a project's goals and objectives. The purpose of SMART is to improve the likelihood that a specific goal will be implemented to the satisfaction of all stakeholders.

A goal can be perceived in different ways by different stakeholders. SCA (2008, p. distinguishes between three different types of goal perceptions: *clear* goals, *unclear* goals, *moving* goals; and *unclear and moving* goals.

Table 3-3. Types of goals, their definition and stakeholder involved in setting them (SCA, 2005, pp. 4-5, 18).

Type of goal:	*Definition:*	*Responsible:*
Project goal	A result or condition to be attained at a given point in time.	Formulated by the project sponsor and the project manager, accepted by the team and finally approved by the sponsor.
Project objectives	Demands to be met in order to fulfil the project goal.	Prepared by the project team together with the project manager and approved by the sponsor.
Deliverable	The final result of an activity or a project, i. e. any measurable, tangible, or verifiable outcome that must be produced to complete a project or part of a project.	The deliverables is defined by the team together with the project manager.

3.2.5 Effective project teams

The project team is empowered and highly autonomous when executing the project plan, with clear decision making boundaries and a total task approach. The guiding principle when selecting persons to be on the project team, is that each individual should be representing a particular area of expertise and thus be strategically required for the team in order for them to fulfil the project goals (SCA, 2005, pp. 10, 29; 2008, p. 56).

Clear and honest communication may be the single most important success factor in team work. Apart from using the same terminology, as suggested by PRIME, the team members should also agree on how they will give and receive feedback. When given, feedback should be constructive and when received, the person receiving it should listen carefully and try to understand the cause for the feedback (SCA, 2005, pp. 30-31).

[3] SMART is an acronym for: **Specific** - Emphasise results (outcomes, not activities); **Measurable** - How much, how many, change in percentage, etc.; **Accepted** - Team accepting the goals as their own; **Realistic** - Common sense and "business fit"; **Time-Bound** - Sense of urgency and milestones to highlight progress.

3.3 Other practices - Performance management

Apart from PRIME there are other practices which affect employee behaviour within the organisation. These can be educations, models or procedures built into the organisational culture. The practice which has largest implications for this study is Performance Management, which will now be explained.

On their intranet, SCA (2010b) state that they strive for excellence and support individuals to reach their highest level of performance through: (1) clear goals that are aligned with the goals of the organisation, so that people can see the connection between what they do and what positive difference it makes to the organization; and (2) a continuous dialogue between manager and employee around performance, so that goal achievement can be tracked and steered throughout the year.

Moreover, they state that these elements are reflected and applied in their performance management system: the pfi[4] process, which is the core people management process in GHC.

The pfi-process starts with the base pfi in the beginning of each year. During this formal discussion, line manager and employee agree on goals and how to work together to achieve them. Throughout the year, employee and manager are involved in a continuous dialogue about performance and development. The employee as owner of the goals keeps his/her manager updated via informal, regular One on One Conversations. Formal appraisal discussions are initiated by the manager (Follow-up Meetings). An annual performance Evaluation Meeting closes the year.

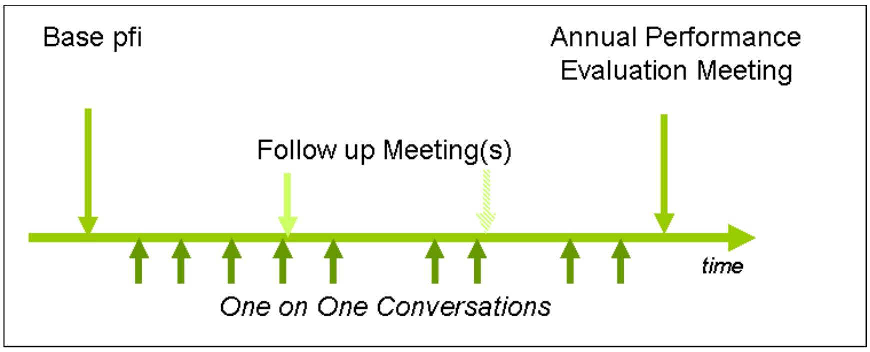

Figure 3-3. The pfi-process (SCA, 2010b)

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[4] pfi is an acronym for: **performance**; **feedback**; and **improvement**.

4. Research Methodology

The purpose of this chapter is to review how the research problem was investigated and the methods that were used to conduct the study in order to obtain high validity and reliability. As mentioned earlier, the purpose of this study was to explore motivation in the project context and investigate if it is possible to synchronise the view of internal stakeholders in order to make them strive for the same goal, instead of working in a political tensed climate with opposite agendas, and if so - how this could be done.

The outline of the chapter is that first the research questions will be displayed, then the sample will be presented, then the methods used for conducting the research, followed by the instruments adopted and finally the procedure will be described.

4.1 Research Questions

The following research questions have been guiding the research strategy and aiding the design of the research instruments:

- What factors influence the motivation of project team members;
- Whose responsibility is it to create motivation in project teams within the matrix organisation, according to three main internal stakeholders; and
- How can a project model be used to facilitate motivation?

4.2 Research sample

The representative from the department of Human Resources was chosen due to her involvement in Human Resources strategic work within the organisation and insight in leadership approaches and educational campaigns.

The sample consisted of project managers, line managers and project team members. All data were taken from SCA Global Hygiene Category (see Case Study). In order to reflect the distribution in the organisation, the sample contained twice as many team members (50 %) as Project Managers (25 %) and Line Managers (25 %). It was also the authors request that a mix of the four different functions/roles within the team was obtained. This was achieved by interviewing two machine project managers, two product developers, one of each of marketing and production. In total, twelve semi-structured interviews were conducted. Three project managers, three line managers and six team members. Of them, 7 were male and 5 female. The average age was 44 and average number of years in current position was 7,6.

4.3 Design

As the purpose of the study was to investigate if it is possible to synchronise the view of three main internal stakeholders, the research was designed to generate qualitative data concerning perceptions rather than generating quantification of data. The epistemological and ontological orientation of the study was Interpretivism, stress on understanding how individuals interpret their social world, and Constructionism, social phenomena are produced through interaction of social actors and is constantly shifting (Bryman, 2004, pp. 16-20, 266).

A qualitative approach was suitable as it is preferred over a quantitative one when little or no research has been conducted within an area, which is supported by Cresswell (2003, pp. 21-22). Moreover, as the researcher did not know which variables to examine, or had an apparent hypothesis, this approach was most appropriate. Finally, the objective of the study was to generate ideas rather than testing ideas, which is the typical purpose of a qualitative design (Bryman, 2004, p. 20).

The research design was a case study. The specific case was chosen, not because if was extreme or unusual, but because it provided a suitable context for the research area. It can be classified as what Bryman (2004, p. 51) calls exemplifying case. The strategy employed included both qualitative interviewing of a single case, which, according to Bryman (2004, p. 56), is the typical qualitative strategy for this type of design, and a mini questionnaire to summarise and to aid the validity of the study.

The study was designed to be inductive in its nature, which means that the aim of the research is to generate theory - rather than the research being guided by theory, as expressed by Bryman (2004, pp. 3, 9). Moreover, the study was designed in accordance with Kvale's (1997, p. 85) 'Seven Stages of an Interview Inquiry' and followed the logical structure: (1) Thematising; (2) Designing; (3) Interviewing; (4) Transcribing; (5) Analysing; (6) Verifying; and (7) Reporting (see chapter 4.5).

The data, in its qualitative nature, was analysed manually with guidance from the five methods for interview data analysis presented by Kvale (1997, pp. 172 – 185): Concentration; Categorisation; Narrative; Interpretation; Ad hoc.

As supported by Kvale (1997, p. 214) validity has been considered during all stages of the research. During the interviews the author strived to avoid biased questions.

4.4 Research Instruments

Three interview guides were used in order to conduct the interviews (Appendix C). The guides consisted of one introducing section where questions of gender, age and number of years within the current position, were posed. They were then divided into five main themes: Motivation; Roles and Responsibilities; Goal-setting; Feedback and Communication; and Education. All three guides were following the same logical structure but the questions were adjusted to fit the project managers, line managers and project team members respectively. A mini questionnaire was also used (Appendix D) and descriptive statistics were applied to present these results.

The interviews were semi-structured and the types of questions that were posed were a mix of what Kvale (1997, pp. 124-125) distinguishes as: Introductory questions; Follow-up questions; Probing Questions; Specifying Questions; Direct Questions; Indirect Questions; Structuring Questions; Silence; and Interpreting Questions. The interview guides were used as a support for the author in asking Introductory Questions, Direct Questions, Indirect Questions and Structuring Questions. The other types were posed "outside" the interview guide.

4.5 Procedure

The scope of the study was set by the author in agreement with her supervisor at the company and academic supervisor after a meeting with them and Svante Thurén. The meeting took place at the SCA Hygiene Products AB office in Gothenburg in the end of January 2010.

A bar chart of the detailed research design and the associated timeline was created (Appendix E). The timeline was revised at different stages of the research procedure which is supported by Wisker (2001, p. 48).

A literature review was undertaken to identify previous research within the area. The keywords used in the literature search were: *Motivation; Project Management; Project Model; Matrix Organisation; Project Stakeholders;* and *Team Performance.* Along with the literature review, a mind map was constructed and continuously revised to aid the establishment of a context to the topic and identify areas for further reading and research questions. Furthermore, the author attended to an internal education of the SCA model for project management – PRIME.

When the context of the research area had been established and an understanding started to emerge - an informal, unstructured interview was conducted with the HR Competence Development Manager in order to obtain a wider understanding of the area of motivation within the particular organization and to deeper explore the research questions. The research instruments were then designed - based on the literature review and inspired by the interview- and followed by a larger number of interviews, with Project Managers, Line Managers and members from Project Teams. The authors request was that the project team members should be twice as many as the project managers and the line managers respectively. The interviewees were then chosen after randomly suggestions by the author's supervisor at the company and, to some extent, depending on availability. The availability of resources was crucial for this research project. Therefore the timing of interviews needed to be thoroughly planned. For this task the researcher took help from senior management within the organisation.

Approximately one week before the interviews took place the interviewees were informed via email of the purpose of the study and a time for the interview was suggested facilitated by the internal booking system. Each interview was conducted face-to-face in the interviewee's office and set for one hour in agreement with the author's supervisors. The interviews were recorded on tape and after the interviews were conducted the data was transcribed. The data from the interviews was then analysed manually and categorised by the author.

4.5.1 Ethical considerations

Wisker (2001, p. 47) points out that in social studies there might be ethical issues to consider. One of them, that had implications in this research project, is to protect the identities of participants (Kvale, 1997, p. 109). Before the interviews started, the interviewees were informed that the data would be confidential and that their names would not be presented in the report. All the recorded interviews have been deleted. The author, however, possess a list over the interviewees. Another ethical guideline when conducting social research, as emphasised by Kvale (1997, pp. 104-105), is that the research should aim to improve the situation for the persons taking part in the study. The interviewees were therefore informed beforehand of the general purpose of the research study and that the interview was not compulsory, which is defined as *informed approval* by Kvale (1997, p. 107). Moreover, as an introduction to the interview, how the interview would be structured and how the obtained data would be handled afterwards. This was due to the beneficence principle – that the risk of an interview person being harmed should be minimised and clearly outweighed by the potential benefits (Kvale, 1997, p. 110).

5. Results

In this chapter, the most interesting findings from the interviews will be presented. The data is organised under six main themes. First some results about motivation and the organisational implications will be reviewed, then manager roles and responsibilities, followed by team member roles, goal-setting, autonomy and feedback.

From the empirical results it became clear that it is vital that the project is perceived as important with comprehendible benefits. Even though PRIME was not seen as a motivational tool, interviewees stated that it leads to more effective project work but claimed that it is not always used. Both project and line managers take actions to increase motivation, although they differ and are sometimes taken unconsciously. Team members request specific and challenging, but realistic, goals and power to influence. Moreover, it seems that the importance of both positive and negative feedback cannot be overemphasised.

5.1 Motivation and the organisational implications

The general concept of what motivation is does in essence not differ between the three groups of stakeholders. For most of the interviewees, motivation means to take delight in work, to have the will to achieve something and to feel that the achievement is meaningful.

Although project team members consider themselves motivated, they state that they in some of their recent projects have either felt extra highly motivated or experienced decreased/ lacked motivation. When team members were asked about what characterise motivating and demotivating projects, respectively, they came up with two different sets of factors (Table 5-1) which could be divided into two main categories: (1) Factors that relate to the project as such; and (2) factors that relate to the member and their role in the project.

Table 5-1. The four different sets of factors that characterise motivating and demotivating projects.

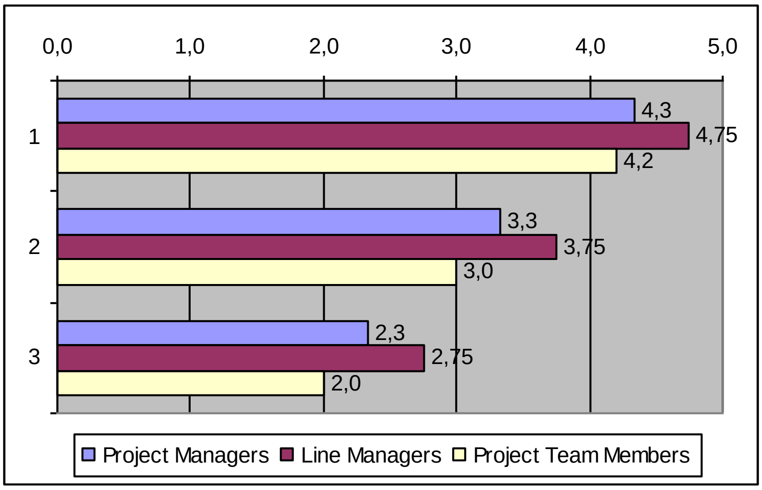
	Factors with positive influence	*Factors with negative influence*
Project related:	• Project is important for the company (A lot of money invested and/or <u>high focus</u> on the project outcome) • The outcome <u>affect many</u> and the benefits are easy to comprehend • Project offers <u>challenge</u> and <u>variation</u>	• Project has <u>low priority</u> • The project <u>benefits</u> are <u>not seen</u> • The <u>time plan is vague</u> • The project is <u>not proceeding</u> in a satisfying pace
Member related:	• My role is given a <u>large focus</u> and is important for the project outcome • I have a large but manageable <u>responsibility</u> • I am given <u>freedom</u> in my work practice • I feel that I have the power to <u>influence</u>	• I <u>do not feel</u> that I am <u>needed</u> • The <u>expectations</u> are <u>ambiguous</u> • The <u>team is not working</u> satisfyingly (lack a common understanding)

5.1.1 PRIME from a motivational perspective

All three line managers agree that PRIME is useful and leads to more effective work in projects. One line manager claims that if PRIME is followed the project gets an increased clarity, since there are tollgates to stick to and scope creep is prevented. Instead they argue that employees, for example due to lack of time, sometimes do not use PRIME to set up an effective project organisation with clear goals and responsibilities which, according to them, always cause trouble. Moreover, one line manager states that, upper management, especially project sponsors, do not always see the purpose of using PRIME which causes a lot of trouble.

One line manager puts forward that PRIME today is just "hardware" and does not include motivational aspects at all. This view is shared by project managers and to an even greater extent by team members (see Figure 5-1). Ten out of twelve interviewees are agreed that PRIME mainly offers structure and clarity of the project process, for example what happen when you pass a tollgate and what activities need to be done when.

One project manager argues that as long as PRIME is used the right way it does not cause conflicts. Instead problems arise when some employees see PRIME as a truth that should be interpreted black on white, rather than as a tool.



On a scale from 1-5…

1: How do you like PRIME?
1: Vad tycker du om PRIME?

2: How well is PRIME used, according to you?
2: Hur bra tycker du att PRIME används?

3: How well does PRIME reflect softer aspects of projects, according to you?
3: Hur bra tycker du att PRIME tar upp de mjuka värdena i ett projekt?

Figure 5-1. Interviewees perception of PRIME

5.1.2 Influencing motivation

Project managers, line managers and team members all believe that motivation can be influenced. Table 5-2 (p. 50) illustrates the similarities and the differences between the variables mentioned by project managers and those mentioned by line managers.

Table 5-2. What motivates team members according to project managers and line managers?

Mentioned by both Project Managers and Line managers:	*Mentioned by Project Managers only:*	*Mentioned by Line Managers only:*
• Social factors (such as relations and team feeling) • Meaningful and requested project outcome • Involves prestige/ high focus on project • Tasks that offers variation • Specific and clear goals	• Well defined roles and responsibilities • Realistic goals • A perception of being important for the project outcome	• Large responsibilities • Freedom to be innovative and creative

When team members were asked how their motivation could be influenced, they gave several examples of what they want project managers and line managers to take into consideration (see Table 5-3). Most members stated that is important for them to feel needed and to have a role that is meaningful. In addition many team members emphasised the importance of having power to influence.

Table 5-3. How team members want their managers to facilitate motivation.

Ways to facilitate motivation:
• Explain why a member is important for the project
• Let members have the power to influence
• Clarify roles and what is expected from team members
• Clarify goals and make sure that everyone has the same understanding of them
• Make the goals measurable so that members know what is good performance
• Engage in feedback and ensure effective communication
• Facilitate good and healthy relations in the project team

Finally, team members mentioned some variables that could be improved and which would then facilitate even higher levels of motivation. These are illustrated in Table 5-4.

Table 5-4. Team members' suggestions of variables that could be improved.

Areas of improvement:
• Increased Responsibility
• Enhanced Communication with the project manager (possibility to discuss and being heard)
• More (constructive) Feedback
• Improved Business Understanding (why are we doing the projects and to what purpose)
• More/New Challenges
• Quicker Decision Making in the organisation (ability to trust gut feeling)
• Appropriate Project Termination (as opposed to projects that just fizzle out)

5.2 Manager Roles & Responsibilities

Line managers are agreed that they are responsible for the project team member's career, competence and performance, but that they except from this should not interfere with projects. This view is shared by project managers as well as team members. Several team members state that the line manager has a responsibility to do follow-ups on how they perform in projects but they do not want them to intervene if they are not asked to do so. Overall, the team members are agreed that the line manager is responsible for them when they work with line activities and the project manager when they work in projects. If you split your time between many smaller projects the line manager is given a larger responsibility for you as a resource and vice versa. One line manager says that project managers can tell members what needs to be done and when, while line managers can be a support in how to do it. Table 5-5 illustrates how the perception of manager responsibilities differ between team members, line and project managers.

Table 5-5. Manager responsibilities according to the three main internal stakeholders.

	Project manager responsibilities:	*Line manager responsibilities:*
According to project managers	• Plan and acquire resources to the project • Clarify roles and responsibilities together with the project team • Make sure that project team members perform according to expectations • Communicate with the line manager	• Procedures & methods • Competence of project team members • Individual follow-ups
According to line managers	• Deliver according to project goal(s)	• Project team members' performance • Competence of project team members • Career development
According to project Team members	• Project team members' performance	• Competence of project team members • Individual follow-ups

5.2.1 Managerial perspectives on team member motivation

When line managers and project managers were asked whether working with motivational issues is supported by the organisation, the answers were diverse. While all line managers felt supported, both in terms of possibilities and structures, the project managers gave no unified answer. When line managers were asked if they work with motivation they all answered that they do. They emphasise, however, that the individual also has to have an inner motivation in order for them to be successful. Two of the line managers associate motivating to meet personnel and talk, either through spontaneous talks or in formalised performance related one-on-ones. Project managers all claim that they do things to motivate and that it is many times on a rather subconscious level:

> *"I don't think I've ever looked at it objectively and tried to analyse what I do to motivate, it's something that just happens."*

In this group, however, ways of dealing with it are very different and includes everything from calling the line managers attention to a non motivated person and then letting it go, to actively take actions that are thought to increase motivation (see Table 5-6).

Table 5-6. Actions to increase motivation, taken by project managers and line managers.

Project Managers:	*Line Managers:*
• create a good and accepted project plan • create high-quality teams with a respectful climate • ensure effective communication • set realistic goals • facilitate participation	• encourage • inspire • set goals • explain why a task is important

5.2.2 The creation of high performing project teams

Neither project managers nor line managers give a unified answer of whose responsibility it is to compose an effective project team. One line manager states that it is the responsibility of the project manager to make sure that a member fits into the team and that the team as a whole is the best possible. Another line manager thinks that it is a shared responsibility that requests a dialogue. Two of the project managers are confident that they can influence which persons they have in their team, the third disagree:

> *" I have to accept the resources that I'm given. ... You say that you want a resource and then you get what you get. If then there's a situation with that person it's not my problem, it's the line manager's problem."*

When it comes to who is responsible for creating *motivated* project teams the project managers are not agreed. While one emphasises that it is the line manager's duty, two of them argue that it is a shared responsibility (see

Table 5-7, p. 53). They claim that the line manager is focused on the individual level whereas only a project manager can look to the whole team and is responsible for motivating the team to reach the project goals. According to them, line managers should not engage in projects this way and one of the line managers agree:

> *"When it comes to creating a motivated project team I think that the project manager has a great responsibility. I can't really influence that since I normally just appoint one, sometimes two, resources to a project."*

Nevertheless, project managers claim that they too need to be able to motivate at the individual level, for example by coaching someone that is inexperienced or interfering if someone is being harassed. They get support from the same line manager who argues that project managers need to become better at seeing the individual's needs instead of expecting the line manager to take on all of that responsibility.

All project managers state that they have not seen written who is responsible for motivating team members, instead they act intuitively.

Table 5-7. Project manager citations that illustrate their respective views regarding whose responsibility it is to motivate project team members.

Shared responsibility:	**The line manager's responsibility:**
"It's a shared responsibility - to ensure that the business works. However, I think that my chances to make the project team work, regarding motivation, are much larger than the line manager's. ... But the line manager can definitely affect the situation in different ways - with support, interest, well you know, coaching, caring, checking out what's up, things like that, show clearly that the he or she is involved and cares about the outcome of the project and how the individual is doing." *"I have a responsibility to make sure that we deliver according to the goals we've set and the project plan we've made. I have to take the responsibility to motivate team members in order to achieve this. Above this, the line manager has a responsibility too, to do follow-ups and try to coach their personnel to the extent that it is needed. … We are much more for coaching and motivating in the daily operative work while I think line managers take a more overall responsibility."*	*"It's the line manager's responsibility to motivate his or her personnel but it's the project that gets hurt if there's a lack of motivation, so somehow it's still the project manager's problem if it doesn't work. But the responsibility is very clear – it's a line manager's duty to make sure that employees are doing what they should and perform as well as possible."*

When team members were asked who is responsible for making them motivated they were not sure, neither could they present which is the view of the company in this matter. Several of them state that they take a big responsibility themselves for their motivation and some put forward that the line manager try to help creating motivation in the long-run but that they cannot do much about the motivation in the projects running right now. One team member claims that the project manager takes a responsibility to create motivation.

What they did say however, is how they *would like* it to be. All team members argue that creating motivation in projects should be a shared responsibility between yourself and the project manager. It is your own duty to do your best and to try and find out what is expected from you. The project manager, on the other hand, has a large responsibility in effective communicating which is your role and what it is you are supposed to contribute with. One of the team members adds that in a project team everyone is responsible for trying to encourage someone that experiences decreased motivation.

5.3 Team member roles and perception of expectations

One line manager states that it doesn't affect team members that much if a project is very demanding, as long as the expectations are clear. Unfortunately this is not always the case according to the interviewee. Sometimes this is the project manager's fault, but more commonly it is the result of a sponsor and steering group that have not followed PRIME. One team member agrees that as long as PRIME is followed and role descriptions are being made it is easy to understand what is expected from you. The person experiences, however, that many project managers skip the role descriptions and take it for granted that team members know their roles anyway. Another team member perceives role descriptions as being made just because it is written in PRIME that they are suppose to be done but claims that there is never any follow-up of them. The team member suggests that they should be treated more as risk management plans that you return to and evaluate during the project. According to one project manager, specific role descriptions are not included in PRIME. These are instead retrieved from previous similar projects.

Team members describe that often when they are recruited to a new project both the line manager and the project manager describe why they are chosen for the project and what their roles are. There is a possibility for project managers and resource owners to make a contract but, according to project managers, it is an opportunity that is seldom used. Moreover, several team members state that during the project, and especially within the project team, roles and expectations are rarely explicitly expressed or discussed. One team member states that it is not necessary to discuss roles during the project, given that the members have worked together before and feel confident about each other. However, if someone is new in the organisation, or if you haven't worked in the same team before, it is much more important to be clear and specific about expectations. According to the team member, this doesn't always happen which can cause trouble.

> *"I often get to know what I'm supposed to do from my line colleagues instead of from the project manager. You discuss something together and then one of them says 'You haven't done that? Well, you should have!' … As it is right now there are many expectations that we don't discuss and if you're new it's very difficult to know which they are. I mean, the risk of misunderstandings is quite obvious."*

Most of the team members agree that it is the project manager's responsibility to make sure that the expectations of the team members are known and understood and, thus, if it works or not depends on who is project manager. They also agree that the solution is effective communication, for example through written role descriptions. The project manager needs to ensure that these are available for everyone and that they are being revised several times during the project if they need to be changed.

Project managers all agree that unclear expectations create frustration. Two of them state that it is their responsibility to make them clear, while the third claims that clear expectations are created in the pfi discussions. Those who work with making them clear state that they do so by discussing goals, roles and which expectations members including the project manager have on each other. One project manager states that it is difficult to be very specific without telling team members in detail what they should do. The project manager argues that it differs from person to person how detailed instructions they need and therefore it is important to get to know each other and feel which level of detail is appropriate.

> *”I’ve learnt that even senior individuals sometimes want you to be very clear on expectations and that’s something you can overlook sometimes as a project manager.”*

5.4 Goals and goal-setting

Line managers and project managers share the same general view of goals - they all think of it as a state or result that should be achieved or delivered. Although some team members mentioned tangible aspects they tended to relate goals to more implicit values such as: to finish something; a positive feeling; a victory that you should celebrate.

5.4.1 Goal-setting in practice

There is a difference in how project managers and line managers work with goal-setting in their professions. While project managers only work with project related goals and on a team-basis, line managers have an individual approach and use appraisal discussions as forums for goal-setting with a mixture between project specific deliveries and personal development goals. The project goals are broken down into what the team member is suppose to deliver and one line manager states that goals are formulated explicitly or more generally depending on the individual’s needs.

When it comes to goals in projects the project manager, in agreement with the sponsor, sets the overall goal structure, based on the business case. Project managers emphasise two factors when it comes to goal-setting – clarity and repetition. They claim that they put much effort in the beginning of a project and together with the project team they question the goal formulation, the time aspect, and what is included versus excluded from the project. The team members are not able to set the overall goal but they have the possibility to modify it, according to the project managers. The deliverables, on the other hand, are their responsibility and with support from their sub-groups they make propositions that they bring back to discuss in the core project team (see Table 3-3, p.42).

5.4.2 Goal related problems

The majority of the line managers find it difficult to decide if an employee has reached their goals, since a distinct boundary between the individual's goals and the project's goals is commonly lacking. The following citation illustrates other goal-setting difficulties experienced by line managers:

> *"To set goals is something that is not easy. I'm not very good at it myself, I find it hard and I think that we are quite bad at it. It is difficult to be specific and concrete."*

Both project managers and project team members emphasised that goals should be measurable. Two of the twelve interviewees associated goals to the SMART formulation, one project manager and one team member. In addition, team members stated that they wanted goals to be realistic, but challenging, and specific preferably already in the beginning of a project. However, when team members were asked how they perceive the goals in their recent projects many of them stated that they have often been quite vague. Some of the members have experienced a difference between different types of projects and according to them product launch projects have more specific goals than development projects, especially early development projects. One member expresses that goals can be too demanding sometimes and emphasises that goals need to be possible to achieve. The same interviewee also suggested that it would be good to decide already in the beginning of a project what happens if you are not able to reach the goal and what level of tolerance there should be.

Table 5-8 (p.57) displays some of their comments.

All line managers state that they believe that team members do not always see the connection between the project goal and the organisational goals and strategies, nor understand why they are doing their projects. This is seen as a problem as line managers are afraid that it creates frustration amongst the employees. One line manager has the perception that not all employees are interested in understanding the business, even though they need it.

Table 5-8. Team members' comments regarding goal-related issues.

Additional comments:

"In some projects I see them as very fussy, they have plenty of room for own interpretations. For example ... implicit technical goals that aren't always being clearly stated and it seems like they don't WANT to state them clearly. From time to time, this is something I find very frustrating. I prefer clear goals." *"What we base our goals on are the test results and when it shows that you would have made it if you had tested on that place but not on this place ... You can't exclude tests either since that's how we measure our performance, but if we could just trust our own judgement too."* *"As a PDT-member it's also up to yourself to make sure that you have the right goals. … It's hard. It's very rare that I have a good insight in the overall project goals. You're very focused on your own sub-goals."* *"They are often quite specific I think, since it's very concrete that we should launch this product, that week and with these changes. If we know what we are supposed to deliver and when, the preceding activities are automatically set. So I see the goals of a launch project as rather clear. When you're in a development project it's likely that it's a bit fussier."*

The same question splits the project team members in two. Half of them state that they have had problems seeing the connection in one or more of their recent projects (see Table 5-9). Two of them claim that the business cases have not been the best, often there is a lack of detail surrounding the goals and they are not very specific in terms of what purpose the project has in the overall strategy. However, one of the members feels that this has improved in recent years.

Table 5-9. Team members' comments about the rationale for doing projects.

Illustrating comments:
"I think that it [the connection] is very poorly defined. … I would like to see this company's goal and vision and then I would like to see how these are broken down to our department where I am, to see that chain - and I have never seen it. So it's very fussy this whole area." *"Most of the time you can see the connection but there are some times when you don't see it too, when you have a hard time seeing the line of reasoning. Actually, it's probably related to how motivated you are - because if you can see a direct line down to why you're doing what you're doing it's obvious that it is a way of making yourself act."*

5.5 Autonomy and power to influence

All project team members agree that they have quite much power to influence how they share their time between projects and line activities which is seen as very positive. On the other hand, they feel that line activities have a low priority and are supposed to be done when there is time left over, which rarely happens. Although all of them regard projects as more engaging than line activities, many of them state that they take pleasure in the combination of the two.

When it comes to the power of influencing *which* projects you undertake the project members have varied experiences, some of which are demonstrated in Table 5-10 (p.58). What can be observed is that generally there is a possibility to influence although it is not used by everyone. It is easier to influence which types of projects you undertake, for example early development projects or product launch projects, than which specific project. Right timing is the key issue.

Table 5-10. Team members' comments regarding possibilities to influence which projects to undertake

Positive comments:	Negative comments:
"I tend to be able to influence together with my manager. We both agree that I possess a somewhat unique competence and therefore I find it quite easy to decide which projects I undertake." *"If you get a project that you really don't want to have, you can say so. I mean it's not motivating with a person that doesn't want to. That's not going to work out well. … I think we have quite high power of influence, at least by saying **Yes** or **No** and I think it's the same for everyone, both PDT-members and members of sub-groups. Or I hope so, I mean it's awful if you are forced to do something you don't want to when there's a possibility to choose."*	*"Normally, it's quite difficult I would say. Often it's time-related – 'now I'm finished with this project, which projects are ready to start?' and in that moment there might be one or two to choose from. Then after half a year there's one again, that I would have preferred, but then I already started in the first one so then you're stuck there. What you can do is that, generally, you can ask for a specific **type** of project that you prefer. That's something you can influence."*

When team members are asked whether they feel that they have the power to influence goals in projects, their answers differ. Some of them feel that they are involved in the discussion of the overall project goal and others state that they have no power at all to influence it. One interviewee says that you have to be the type of person that dares to say what you think and another state that you have to be at the right place at the right time. In general, it can be noted that members feel that they can influence objectives and deliverables to a greater extent than the project goal, which is often already set. Regarding the time plan all members state that they are more or less involved in the planning process, although the machine delivery is often crucial for the project timeline which gives the machine project manager larger power. There is also a tendency which can be observed of team members having more power to influence in a development project than in a launch project. In a launch project the timing is everything and members feel that this is very hard to affect.

5.6 Feedback and recognition

Team members argue that even the most experienced employee thrives from getting feedback on good performance. They emphasise, however, that they want to get **both** positive and negative feedback (see Table 5-11, p. 59). Also line managers emphasise that you need to know, not only what you are good at, but where you can improve and argue that feedback is the root to make people develop.

> *"I've never met anyone, during all my years as a line manager, that doesn't like getting feedback. If it's negative doesn't make any difference."*

During the interviews team members accentuated the everyday feedback. All three project managers state that they use feedback in their daily work. Of the line managers, on the other hand, two out of three strongly relate feedback to formalised appraisal discussions rather than an everyday event.

Table 5-11. Team members' comments about feedback.

Illustrating comments:
"Even if you have worked for a long time, everyone get a boost from a pat on the shoulder. All the way from vice presidents, they also enjoy hearing 'I thought you did well today'. You're just human, regardless of your position, or your experience, you enjoy hearing that."   *"Since I started out here I felt that everyone is generally very good at commenting what is good – 'this went very well', 'what a pleasant meeting' or 'what a good procurement' and so on. But when things aren't as good, you never hear anything and there has to be those situations as well, right? In every appraisal discussion I had since I started here there has only been positive comments so I wonder. I mean, sometime I've surely done something wrong, but those things you never get to hear about. That's something I miss sometimes – constructive feedback."*

5.6.1 Feedback within projects

Several of the team members mention that the most important feedback is the one they get in their project team, either verbally or by body language. They perceive, however, that feedback varies a lot between different projects, depending on the project manager and the team constellation. They argue that it is to a great extent up to the project manager to promote and encourage feedback and that team member constellation matters since feedback requires mutual trust.

If something is not working out properly, team members are agreed that they want to know it right away, rather than waiting to hear it in an appraisal discussion (see Table 5-12, p. 60). Moreover, they emphasise that it is crucial that the project manager creates a project climate that supports giving and receiving feedback and where people do not have to be afraid of saying what they think. All project managers agree to this, although two of them argue that if a situation is infected it might be better to wait a few days until things calm down.

> *"The worst case scenario is when things aren't working out as they should, or have even gone totally wrong, and you don't find out about it first-hand. Instead you hear it second- or even third-hand in the corridor, which if it happens is a shame I think. For me it's therefore very important that we have such an open climate in the project that you can handle these issues."*

Table 5-12.Team members' comments about direct feedback

Illustrating comments:
"You might as well speak out. As soon as you notice something we should get it acted out. Rather discuss a small thing one time too much than wait for something to collapse. That's something I find important." *"Feedback for me is when someone tells you what you've done well and bad. … It shouldn't have to be a formal meeting for someone to tell you this. And, similarly, if something is not working, that you handle it right away instead of waiting to that appraisal discussion in two months, when it's maybe not even relevant anymore. I think you should, more or less right away, face it and say 'this wasn't that good, let's try doing it another way next time."*

5.6.2 Appraisal discussions and second-hand feedback to team members

All team members state that the communication between line managers and project managers is vague and moreover, that it is nearly nonexistent as soon as a resource is allocated to a project. Project managers confirm this and add that after tollgate two, line managers are almost only contacted if there are any problems. One line manager argues that it is important that there is a dialogue also after the resource allocation. Moreover, the interviewee argues that line managers have a responsibility to find out how the project is proceeding and project managers have a responsibility to give feedback to line managers about the performance of their resource. If communication exists it is passing through the project team member and one of them claims that there is only a dialogue if the line manager asks for it. The latter is also recognised by a line manager:

> *"I'm the one who has to get the information, it doesn't come to me. Actually, I have very little communication with the project manager and it's because I'm not a sponsor. ... My only direct contact with the project manager is in connection with the resource allocation, if there are any problems with the resources and when I ask for feedback. Except from that, we don't talk to each other at all."*

Project managers all state that before pfi discussions they don't contact line managers, they wait to be contacted. However, they claim that they only get contacted less than five times out of ten. One project manager argues that there is a difference between different groups of line managers – within R&D almost everyone contacts the project manager but line managers from the production sites or from marketing almost never. Another adds that it should be evaluated whether line managers have contacted the project manager or not.

Some team members state that line managers ask them who they have worked with and then contact them to collect feedback. Others feel that the line manager rarely or never contacts their colleagues to collect feedback. In those cases team members have to contact them by own initiative. One line manager states that *officially* they contact project managers before a pfi discussion but admits that it is not always true. At the same time the interviewee states that it is a problem that as a resource owner one does not know how the resource is doing in the project.

5.6.3 Feedback related problems

When line managers are asked how they think that feedback to employees could be improved they state that the three main problems are: (1) that it is given too infrequently and (2) when it happens - during too short time, and moreover, that (3) it is often not given directly. According to them it is quite common that employees inform their line managers and ask them to tell the person that it concerns, instead of talking directly to that person. One line manager argues that a change in this pattern has to take place. The interviewee is convinced that the only right thing to do is that employees themselves contact the project managers to get feedback, perhaps with some questions proposed by their line managers. All line managers are agreed that it would be good to emphasise direct feedback, although they acknowledge that it can be quite difficult (see Table 5-13). Another line manager adds that if employees don't give direct feedback it is crucial that they answer in a satisfying way if they are asked to give feedback. The interviewee claims, however, that it is common that the feedback is not very well thought-through. Some people are afraid of hurting someone and as a consequence they avoid giving constructive and/or negative feedback. According to the interviewee, the latter is also true for project managers.

Table 5-13. Line managers' comments about feedback related problems.

Comments:
"I mean, it's a bit miserable that it only happens two to three times a year and if you then have a line manager that is not collecting feedback you live in some sort of vacuum." *"It's not in our nature to pat someone on the shoulder and say 'you're so damn good'. You just don't do it."* *"It's really tricky! It sounds so easy, I mean it's just to give feedback, and I imagine that maybe younger people are better at it. I don't know if you get to practice it in schools and universities nowadays, at least you are maybe more used to say what you think. In that sense, maybe you're not as sensitive to criticism."*

This is acknowledged by project managers themselves who state that when they give feedback they tend to focus on positive feedback. One project manager argues that it is funnier to give than negative feedback. There is also a belief amongst them that positive feedback creates more positive effects than negative feedback. Another project manager acknowledges that positive feedback is rarely constructive (you are told that it was good, but not why), except from when it is given to someone that has previously performed poor.

"The negative feedback is often more constructive because it demands it in order to be accepted. I also think that it's inherent in our culture, to some extent, that we are a bit poor at receiving positive feedback."

One team member puts forward two self-experienced problems regarding feedback: (1) that you rarely get any constructive feedback; and (2) that you don't get feedback if you don't ask for it. Four out of six team members state that feedback is something that needs to be put on the agenda. The other two claim that it is working quite well but stress that it is important that there is a feedback session after the project termination to discuss what you have done well and suggest where things could be improved to next time. The formalisation of feedback is also discussed by project managers. They agree that formalisation to some extent is good but one of them stress that you need to make sure that it is given when the situation calls for it rather than due to necessitation.

Project managers argue that the most important factor for improving feedback to team members is that they realise its importance and encourage it. One project manager states that he always in beginning of meetings discusses expectations together with the team and afterwards asks for feedback about the meeting. This is a method also mentioned by one of the team members who claims that it is a good way of formalising feedback and that although it might feel awkward the first time, it is something you quickly get used to. Table 5-14 summarises improvement possibilities mentioned by interviewees.

Table 5-14. Factors for improving feedback mentioned by interviewees

	Project managers	*Line managers*	*Team members*
Constructive and tangible feedback, both positive and negative	x	x	x
Direct feedback, in the situation where it happens and to the person that it involves	x	x	x
Feedback seen as a help rather than critique		x	x
Open project climate where members trust each other	x		x
Project managers realising the importance of feedback and encouraging it in projects	x		x
Put feedback on the agenda/ formalisation of it	x		x

5.6.4 Recognition and Rewards

When employees reach their personal development goals they get praise and in the long run it can lead to a raise in salary, according to line managers. Moreover, they state that project goals are celebrated in the project teams.

This is not a view shared by team members. All team members state that they find the organisation poor at celebrating and rewarding good performance (see Table 5-15). They agree that when milestones are passed or big sub-goals reached it is seldom acknowledged. If it is acknowledged, they claim that it is rather in the line than in the project team, and what you get is a pat on your shoulder. When a project is closed, normally nothing particular happens. Many of the team members feel that good project terminations do not have high priority. One team member claims that the organisation was better at celebrating back in the time and that the budget for these types of things has decreased in recent years.

Project managers acknowledge that they seldom celebrate the passing of a tollgate. Instead they focus on communicating it. One project manager claim that projects that have durations of 7 months or more have some kind of social activity in the end.

> *"Well, sometimes we celebrate when we have passed a tollgate. We try to do it but we are sloppy with it."*

Table 5-15. Team members' comments about recognition.

Comments:
"In general, we're quite poor at celebrating at this place… We are better at starting than stopping. Of course it's somewhat inherent in the nature of a project since it takes some time before you receive a receipt on a campaign. In reality it can take half a year after you have passed tollgate five, so that's a bit of a problem since when you work in a project the team is dissolved when the work is done but the result comes darting later."
"Normally, not that much happens. It's very rare that you make any note of it at all, instead it just continues. Afterwards there is some kind of levelling. 'Anything we missed?' 'No.' 'Then we have reached all the goals I guess.' There is rarely any reflection of the fact that we have passed a milestone."
"When the project is coming to an end everyone loses their spirit and the top priority becomes to close the cost centre. By that time everyone is entering new projects and don't give a damn about the old one. … You can have termination 'kick-downs', but I haven't really experienced that many times either. … It demands from the project manager to raise the issue … but I've never experienced that because they are also heading into new projects and those are much funnier."

6. Discussion

The purpose of this study was to explore motivation in the project context and investigate if it is possible to synchronise the view of three internal stakeholders in order to make them strive for the same goal, instead of working in a political tensed climate with opposite agendas, and if so - how this could be done. In this chapter the empirical results are analysed and discussed in relation to the theoretical framework. The chapter follows the same structure as previous and ends with a presentation of the delimitations to the study.

6.1 Motivation and the organisational implications

Some factors mentioned in Table 5-1 (p. 48) could be standardised into a project model. This could then be added to the present performance management system in the organisation. Interestingly, it seems that it would be easier to eliminate the factors with negative influence, by for example standardising certain procedures, than implementing the factors with positive influence – which appear more related to individuals and/or situational bound.

Communicating why the project is important, which are the benefits and why team members are needed to fulfil the project goal could be a requirement for every project manager before undertaking a project. Moreover, the cooperation between project and line managers regarding recruitment to projects could benefit from becoming standardised (Semcon, 2008), thus avoid that some members do not feel needed by getting recruited to the “wrong” project. Specific goals are already mentioned in PRIME but it seems that it needs to be a greater emphasise on specificity regarding time plans as well. Moreover, expectations on members should be clearly stated in role descriptions for all projects. Team building activities could be a requirement to pass a tollgate to create a common understanding and a team feeling (Rapp Ricciardi, 2001, p. 226), if not for all projects, due to time limitations, at least for larger ones. In this case the organisation needs to decide what a “larger” project is.

In Figure 5-1 (p. 49) it could be noted that although interviewees like PRIME, there is a possibility to improve how it is used and especially how it reflects softer aspects of project. Interestingly, line managers gave an overall higher rating than project managers and team members. It seems that they feel more comfortable working with PRIME which is strange since it is a project management tool. Why are the project managers not as fond of it? Could it be that line managers like it because they are *not* working with it?

Nonetheless, the main issue regarding PRIME seems to be that it is not always used, or not used the right way. This is an implementation problem as discussed by Wenell Management AB (2008b; 2008g) It is of utter importance that the benefits of a project model is seen and emphasised by upper management in order for employees to use it. If project sponsors do not see why PRIME should be used, why should project managers and team members?

6.2 Manager roles and responsibilities

As could be seen in the empirical result section, all team members argued that creating motivation in projects should be a shared responsibility between them and the project manager. The line managers also highlighted that motivation at some extent should be considered to be the responsibility of the individuals themselves, which might be suitable as some of the motivational theories have encompassed individual characteristics (Erez and Eden, 2001) and increased responsibility was seen by team members as a motivational factor. However, there is a risk that individuals will not take on this responsibility by own initiative, at least not without guidance and support. One way of overcoming this hurdle, might be coaching interventions. On the other hand, by letting individuals take on *too much* of the responsibility, the creation of motivated project teams will be dependent solely on the members and difficult for the organisation to influence.

Neither the project managers nor the line managers were agreed on whose responsibility it is to create motivated project teams. There was large variance on the individual interviewee level and, as could be seen in Table 5-6 (p.52), there is no plain division between the two managerial roles. PRIME provides information of what is needed to create high performance in projects but it is not explicitly stated *whose* responsibility it is to take these actions. This might explain why the interviewees are not agreed. The dominating view amongst the managers, however, was that it is a shared responsibility where project managers are focused on the team level and the line managers on the individuals. This is in accordance with what is described in PRIME (see Table 3-2, p.41).

In projects much of the work is team-based and the motivation is thus to a great extent created at the team level, which means that the project manager has a large responsibility. Especially in setting group goals and enable feedback, as supported by Kleinbeck, Wegge and Schmidt (2001). Still, the line managers have a possibility to follow individuals during a longer time period and, as responsible for competence and career development, might be better suited to increase self-efficacy which is a strong motivational factor (Latham and Locke, 2006; Locke, 2001). Interestingly, only one out of twelve stated that team members also have the responsibility to motivate each other. Yet more interesting, it is not discussed by the theoreticians in the framework earlier presented.

In a dream scenario all internal stakeholders would work together to facilitate and enhance motivation in projects, as supported by Latham and Ernst (2006). The project manager and the line manager would respect each other's competencies and have a dialogue to create effective project teams. The dilemma is that projects often have a tight schedule and recruitment through dialogue demands time. On the other hand, project teams with healthy relations and motivated team members can both increase the performance and shorten the time needed to meet the project goals (Kleinbeck, Wegge and Schmidt, 2001).

6.3 Team member roles and perception of expectations

As could be seen in the empirical results section, one factor with negative influence on team member motivation is that they do not know what is expected from them (see Table 5-1, p.48). Responsibility and expectations are closely connected (PMI, 2008, p. 223). In PRIME (SCA, 2005), a role is described as: *defined*; *clear responsibilities*; and *expected behaviour*. Clear roles and responsibility are also mentioned as part of the *team-based work methods*. Moreover, it is stated that undefined/unclear roles and responsibilities is one of the major reasons why projects fail and that clearly communicated roles and responsibilities is crucial in achieving high levels of performance. Nonetheless, it is not stated *who* is responsible for making them clear. Since establishing roles and responsibilities is a project management task (PMI, 2008, p. 215) and this view was shared by most of the team members and the majority of the project managers, it seems that there is a gap between the present situation and a desired one.

According to the team members it is common that project managers either do not take the initiative to write role descriptions or write them in the beginning of a project but never come back to them. It could be questioned to what extent role descriptions aids the members if they are not being properly used once they are written. How come project managers act carelessly with this when the importance of clear roles is explicitly emphasised in PRIME? Moreover, why is not stated in PRIME that it is their responsibility?

Effective communication is a key skill in order to keep motivation high which may lead to well functioning teams and excellent performance (Dwivedula and Bredillet, 2010; PMI 2008). In PRIME (SCA, 2005, pp. 10, 19) it is explicitly suggested that project managers should establish a written contract when recruiting team members as one way of achieving clear roles and responsibilities. As could been seen in the results the project managers confessed that this was seldom done since there was an assumption that team members should know their roles anyway. This assumption can lead to decreased motivation as team members might not feel needed, do not understand what they are expected to achieve (see Table 5-1, p. 48), or do not see an opportunity to grow by undertaking the project (PMI, 2008). On the other hand, some of the project managers claim that they *do* work with this in their projects. Could it be that the focus is too much on the beginning of the project and is more or less forgotten later on?

6.4 Goals and goal-setting

Although the SMART formulation is a highly emphasised in PRIME, only two of the twelve interviewees mentioned SMART. This implies that the notion of SMART goals is not sufficiently established within the organisation.

As mentioned in the Case study, SCA (2010b) state that they support individuals to reach their highest performance level through clear goals that are aligned with the goals of the organization, so that people can see the connection between what they do and what positive difference it makes to the organisation. Latham and Locke (2006, p. 332) also highlight that a manager need to explain *why* a goal is set and Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996, cited in Locke, 2001, p. 15) argue that leaders should motivate their followers by framing (communicating an inspiring vision), to make them understand why they should perform their best. However, as emphasised by all line managers and many of the team members, the connection between the project goal(s) and the organisational strategies is often not seen by team members. The three team members who found the connection visible were those with a stronger customer focus or a closer relation to upper management. Working close to the customers provides a sense of why the project is needed and what greater purpose it is supposed to fulfil, which is important as individuals increasingly want to have a meaningful job (Whitmore, 2009, p. 111). The establishment of customer relations can also be used to create core job characteristics (Boddy, 2002, p. 125; Hackman and Oldham, 1980, cited in Miner, 2005, p. 80). A closer relation to upper management might imply taking part in developing the strategies, thus vertically loading the job and create job autonomy (Hackman and Oldham, 1980, cited in Miner, 2005), or at least an increase in communication which Dwivedula and Bredillet (2010, p. 159) argued is important for project worker motivation.

Although goals were mentioned several times during the interviews no-one mentioned goals as a way to improve their motivation (see Table 5-4, p. 50). It seems that the project and line managers acknowledge clear and specific goals as important for employee motivation (see Table 5-2, p. 50) and, moreover, that they work with goal-setting to increase motivation (see Table 5-6, p. 52). On the other hand, many of the team members stated that goals in their recent projects have often been vague, which is not desirable since vague goals create uncertainty and give persons the possibility to question their performance (Latham and Locke, 2006). Apparently there are still improvement possibilities within the area of goal-setting.

Team members mentioned *challenge* as a factor with positive influence on motivation and *vague time plan* as a factor with negative influence (see Table 5-1, p.48), which are both connected to goal-setting. This demonstrates that specific and challenging goals are important for motivation, as supported by Latham and Locke (2006), Arnold and Schoonman (2002), and Kleinbeck, Wegge and Schmidt (2001). Noteworthy is that it seems that while challenging goals increase motivation, specific goals do not lead to increased motivation but decreases motivation if not existing. To use the terminology of Herzberg's *Motivation-Hygiene Theory* - challenge is a motivator while specificity is a hygiene factor. This phenomenon, however, is not discussed in *The Goal-setting Theory*.

To conclude, project managers should set group goals that are specific (as opposed to vague) and explain the rationale behind the goals. A specific group goal can according to Kleinbeck, Wegge and Schmidt (2001) reduce conflicts induced by group members different motives. Moreover, the goals should be challenging but attainable (Latham and Locke, 2006). This, however, might be difficult on the team level where individuals have varied knowledge, experience and self-efficacy.

6.5 Autonomy and power to influence

Both *freedom* (autonomy) and *power to influence* are mentioned by team members as factors that have characterised projects where they have felt extra highly motivated (see Table 5-1, p.48). This phenomenon is supported and explained by many theorists. Leaders can motivate their followers by making them feel more confident in their own abilities (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1996, cited in Locke, 2001, p. 15) and one way to increase self-efficacy is to offer challenging and growth-facilitating tasks which, in turn, increases performance (Locke and Latham, 1990; 2006). Moreover, letting team members take part in decision-making and planning of the project adds to their experience and enhances their commitment to the project

(PMI, 2008, p. 215). Autonomy is mentioned as one of the core job characteristics (Hackman and Oldham, 1980, cited in Boddy, 2002, p. 125) and vertical loading is suggested as a way to increase the autonomy of a task (Hackman and Oldham, 1980, cited in Miner, 2005, p. 80).

PRIME (SCA, 2005; 2008) emphasises that the project team should be empowered and highly autonomous when executing the project plan, with clear decision making boundaries and a total task approach. Many team members feel that they have the power to influence the scheduling and the detail planning of the project. The overall project goal, on the other hand, is often already set. However, some of the team members state that they are involved in the discussion of the project goal and even though they might not have any real power to change the goal, their comments imply that they feel that they are being listened to. This was also one of the factors that were suggested as areas of improvement (see Table 5-4, p.50). Miner (2005, p. 77), supports that it is the *perception* of power to influence that matters, which calls for project managers that, if not let team members take decisions, at least let them be a part in the process by discussing goals. This discussion encompasses a dilemma: how much autonomy and power do team members want; and do all team members have the same need? Interestingly, neither project managers nor line managers mentioned possibility to discuss and being heard when asked what motivates employees (see Table 5-2, p.50).

PDP team members have more power to influence but the goals are often vaguer. PLP team members experience the opposite situation - they have specific goals but are unable to take part in the planning of the project. As could be noted in the results some team members preferred working in PDP while others preferred PLP, which implies that for some it is more important to have specific goals while others care more for their power to influence, by for example participating in goal-setting. That team members' motives and their different personalities affect work motivation is supported by Kleinbeck, Wegge and Schmidt (2001). Miner (2005, p. 172) discuss participative goal-setting and argues that assigned goals work better for individuals that are already intrinsically motivated than for those less motivated.

6.6 Feedback and recognition

Team members state that in order for them to be motivated they want their managers to engage in feedback (see Table 5-3, p.50), which is in accordance with *The Job Characteristics Theory* (Hackman and Oldham, 1980, cited in Boddy, 2002). Moreover, the importance of feedback is emphasised by numerous theorists as it: translates goals into action; improves performance; and ensures effectiveness in teams (Arnold and Schoonman, 2002; Kleinbeck, Wegge and Schmidt, 2001; Latham and Locke, 2006; Miner, 2005). Interestingly, neither project managers nor line managers brought up feedback when they were asked about motivation.

As could be seen in the empirical results (see Table 5-4, p. 50), team members mentioned that they wanted more feedback, with emphasis on *constructive* feedback - explanations why something is good and suggestions of what can be improved. This is supported by Boddy (2002) who claims that feedback should include both positive and negative comments.

Team members dwelled on the everyday feedback that takes place in projects and emphasised the importance of continuous and direct feedback inside the projects instead of in yearly appraisal discussions. In this, they get support from both project managers and line managers. Neither *The Goal-setting Theory* nor *The Job Characteristics Theory* discuss direct feedback but Latham and Locke (2006, p. 336), claims that it is critical to actively search for and react upon feedback when working in dynamic situations, which projects could be argued to be. This supports that it is important that the feedback is constant and systematic.

Feedback is not discussed in PRIME but on their intranet, SCA (2010b) state that they strive for a continuous performance *dialogue* between manager and employee. In order for it to be a dialogue, feedback needs to be encouraged in the other direction too – employee to manager. Both project and line managers state that they need feedback as well, in order to improve. This seems to be a delicate issue as the empirical results show that direct feedback is difficult and it is most likely not easier in relationships with unequal power distribution. Furthermore, SCA do not state that the dialogue should apply only for *line* managers and not for *project* managers. Perhaps it is implied within the company that it is the line manager's responsibility because there are both project managers and line managers who seem to think that it is a line manager task. On the other hand, should it not be a shared responsibility to develop people in the organisation?

Many interviewees, regardless of position, mention the Swedish culture as an explanation why they do not give feedback. Is it possible that it is not in the culture and that this is merely used as an excuse? If it is inherent in the Swedish culture that we do not like giving and receiving feedback, is it not then even more important for the company to facilitate and encourage feedback within the organisational culture, for example by standardise it.

Project termination was another factor that team members argued could be improved to enhance their motivation (see Table 5-4, p.50). Interestingly, the last tollgate in PRIME (see Figure 3-1, p.39) only states that termination should start and a sixth tollgate, which should not be passed until the project is properly terminated, is lacking. Instead of projects just fizzling out, team members want to get an appropriate termination and some recognition for the work they have performed (see Table 5-15, p.63). This need seems related to *Task significance* - one of Hackman's and Oldham's (1980) core job characteristics. By acknowledging that a project goal has been reached, for example informing, celebrating or provide other types of recognition, managers can demonstrate that the job is important and matters. The organisational context plays a role in enhancing team performance (Hackman, 1990, cited in Boddy, 2002, p. 132; Kleinbeck, Wegge and Schmidt, 2001), for incentives to be effective however, it is important that they appeal to the individual's values (Locke, 2001, p. 15). This calls for a reward system that relates to team achievement and at the same time appeals to the individuals in the team.

6.7 Delimitations

As mentioned earlier, the research available on project models is very limited. The author was therefore necessitated to review mostly information gathered by the companies that develop and/or use these models in practice. This may have had implications for the study. Due to time limitations and practical reasons the author chose to interview only persons situated in Gothenburg with close surroundings. The interviewees were not randomly selected but selected with help from the author's mentor at the company, which might have led to certain types of persons being chosen. Moreover, it is not certain that the results obtain from the interviews would be the same for another sample with the same characteristics and a larger sample might have provided wider and deeper results. All interviewees knew before-hand that the research area was motivation. This may have affected their answers and it could have been desirably to have uninformed interviewees. A problem that the author faced during interviews was getting respondents to distance themselves to their working environment and answer on a more general level. This made their answers too specific sometimes and the difference between their personal view and the view of the organisation could not be explicitly stated. Moreover, one of the main problems with qualitative research is replicability (Bryman, 2004, p. 284), which is also true for this study. Finally, as the study was a case study, it is noteworthy that it is not possible to generalise and use it as a representation for all matrix organisations or all projects, as supported by Kvale (1997, p. 209).

7. Conclusions

The research questions were: (1) what factors influence the motivation of project team members; (2) whose responsibility is it to create motivation in project teams within the matrix organisation, according to three main internal stakeholders; and (3) how can a project model be used to facilitate motivation? This chapter forms the conclusions of the study by providing answers to these questions.

Role perception, goals, autonomy, power to influence, feedback and recognition are all factors that influence the motivation of project team members. If team members don't know what is expected from them they will be hard to keep motivated. Unclear roles will affect the team negatively and can create confusion and conflict. Team members request specific and challenging goals but while challenge is a motivator, specificity is merely a hygiene factor. It seems that autonomy and power to influence, on the other hand, are both motivators. Even though it might not be possible to let team members have full power to influence, it is their possibility to discuss and being heard that matters. Moreover, team members desire direct and constructive feedback, both within the team and between the team and the project manager. Finally, proper project terminations in combination with some sort of recognition for the work performed are the key to motivated project workers.

So, whose responsibility is it to create motivation in project teams within matrix organisations? There is no simple answer to this question. It seems that team members, line and project managers are all accountable for motivation in a matrix organisation. However, project managers might have the most important role to play from a project team perspective. By making sure that hygiene factors exist, project managers can ensure that project team members are not unmotivated. In order for them to become highly motivated, however, project managers need to look into another range of factors. By effectively envisioning the projects importance for the mother organisation, project managers can demonstrate why the individuals and their work matters - thus increase motivation. Moreover, it is up to the project manager to: establish feedback routines within the project; emphasise appropriate project terminations; and provide recognition along with team-based rewards. In order for managers to work with *soft* aspects such as motivation, however, it is crucial that upper management emphasise the importance of motivated project workers and support managers in their quest to increase motivation.

Finally, there is a possibility to improve how PRIME is used regarding softer aspects of project. PRIME could further standardise managerial interaction and responsibilities, regulate how to set and communicate goals, and emphasise written role specifications. Moreover, PRIME could require that project managers before undertaking a project should communicate why it is important, which are the benefits and why team members are needed to fulfil the project goal. Feedback formalisation and standardised team building activities are other possibilities. Finally, a sixth tollgate could be implemented to ensure that the project has been terminated and the associated activities carried out, such as evaluation, recognition and rewarding. By standardising the above mentioned procedures, motivation can be facilitated which, in turn, will increase performance and lead to project success. In this work the implementation of the project model will be vital and it is of absolute importance that the benefits of the project model are seen and emphasised by upper management in order for employees to use it.

7.1 Recommendations

Based on the above conclusions it is the author's recommendations that:

- **The link between business strategy and project goal is made visible.**
  If the project team do not understand why they are doing the project they will surely not be motivated to high performance. Projects that do not have an obvious link to the business strategy should not even be started.

- **The feedback culture within the company is improved.**
  Project Managers should make sure that they give direct and constructive feedback continuously within the projects and Line Managers should be obliged to contact the project managers responsible for their resource before a pfi discussion.

- **Project Managers take increased responsibility for the project teams' motivation.**
  They have to appreciate the benefits of motivated project teams and realise that they have the most important role to play in enhancing it.

- **Project Managers make some noise about their projects.**
  Project team members want to work in high focus projects. Moreover they want to feel that they are important and are recognised for the work they perform.

- **A firm end is implemented in PRIME.**
  Introduce a tollgate number six which requires certain activities to be carried out to

before final termination is accepted. This would also signalise that the organisation does not accept “never-ending” projects.

7.2 Suggestions for Future Research

As this study was limited to one company within the product development industry, a potential avenue for further research could be to investigate if differences can be observed in other product segments and/or industries. Additionally, international teams and their effects on motivation facilitation was not included in the present study, why this is another interesting future research area. Individual differences of motivational aspects, such as gender, age etc. might play an important role when trying to facilitate project team motivation, thus future research on this matter could be beneficiary. Finally, as there is very limited research on project models, especially in relation to soft aspects, there is a large opportunity to further widen this research field.

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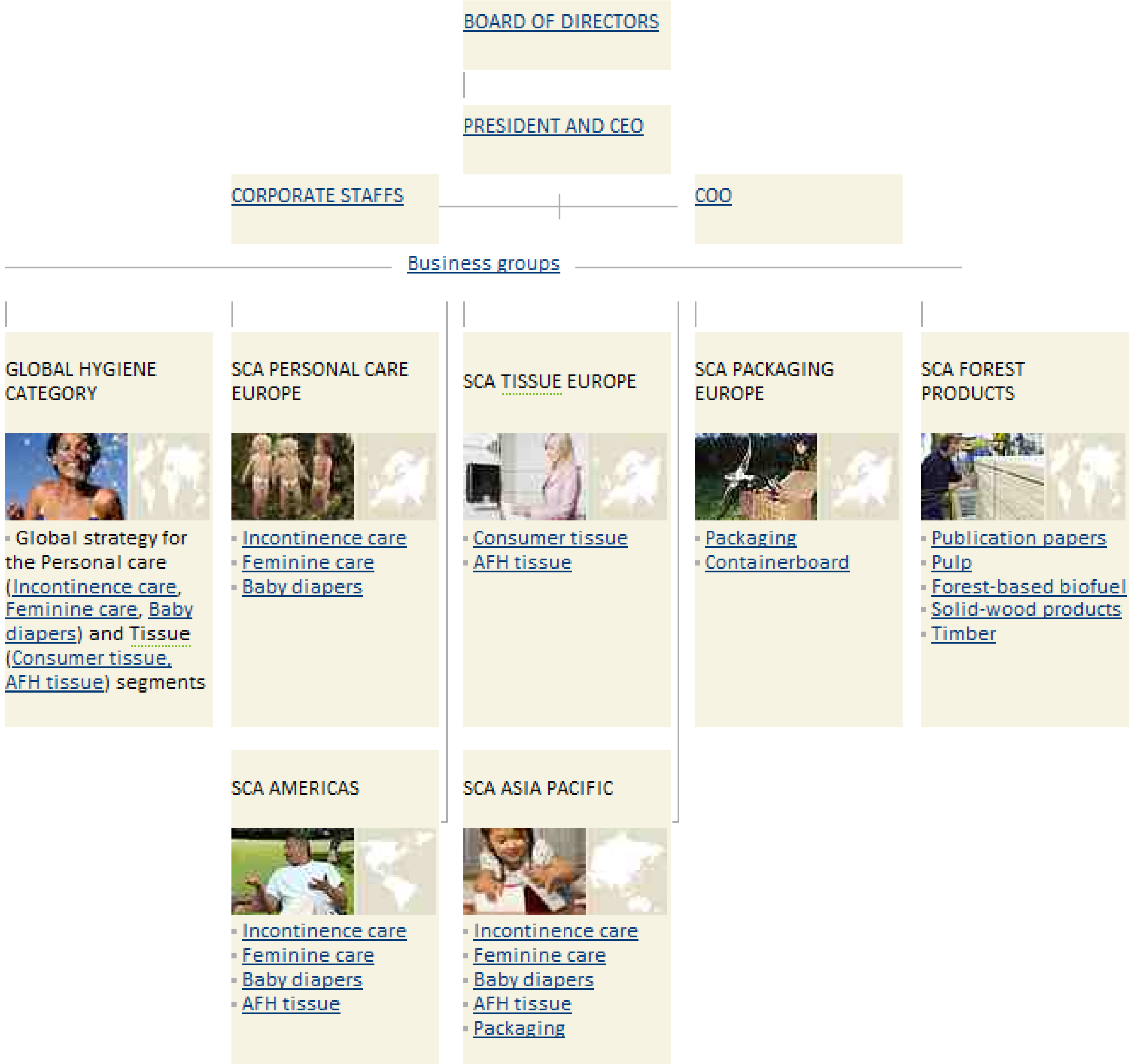
Appendices

Appendix A - Organisational structure of SCA



(SCA, 2009b)

Appendix B - Description of SCA and SCA Global Hygiene Category

SCA is a company that offers personal care products, tissue, packaging, publication papers and solid-wood products in more than 90 countries. **Personal Care** comprises three product segments: incontinence care, baby diapers and feminine care. Important consumer brands are TENA, Libero and Libresse. **Tissue** consists of toilet paper, kitchen rolls, handkerchiefs and napkins as well as complete hygiene solutions. Some of the brands are Tork, Tempo, Zewa and Edet. **Packaging** offers containerboard and packaging like transport packaging, protective packaging, consumer and point-of-sales packaging as well as services. **Forest Products** produces publication papers, pulp and solid-wood products. (SCA, 2009a)

SCA has 52,000 employees in around 60 countries and annual sales in 2008 amounted to EUR 11.5 billions. The share of sales divided by business area in 2008 was: Personal Care 21%, Tissue 34%, Packaging 30% and Forest Products 15%. (SCA, 2009a)

The Global Hygiene Category was established in 2008 to create the conditions for global growth in the hygiene businesses. GHC is one division within SCA with focus on long-term strategies for all segments in Personal Care and Tissue products. GHC is responsible for customer and consumer insight, innovation, technology processes and brand development and has its headquarters in Gothenburg (SCA, 2009b; 2010a).

Appendix C - Interview guides (In Swedish)

Projektledare

Kön:
Ålder:
Antal år i den roll du har för närvarande:

1. **Motivation:**
    a. Vad tänker du på när du hör ordet performance?
    b. Kan du beskriva vad motivation innebär för dig?
    c. Kan man påverka (arbets-)motivation med yttre/inre faktorer?
    d. I dina senaste projekt, upplevde du att team-medlemmarna var motiverade?
        - Hur vet du att de var motiverade?
    e. Vad tror du motiverar dina team-medlemmar?
    f. Arbetar du med att motivera projektteamet?
        - I så fall HUR?
    g. Hur är de organisatoriska förutsättningarna för att arbeta med motivationsfrågor?
    h. Vad skulle hjälpa dig att bli bättre på att motivera?

2. **Mål:**
    a. Vad tänker du på när jag säger 'mål' (goals-objectives-deliverables)?
    b. Hur jobbar du med mål?
    c. I vilken utsträckning är det upp till teamen att själva sätta mål?
    d. Vad händer när mål/tollgates etc har uppnåtts?
        - Vad händer om de inte nås?

3. **Rollbeskrivningar och ansvarsfördelning:**
    a. Skulle du kunna beskriva hur specifikationerna ser ut för hur ansvaret för medarbetare skall delas mellan dig och Linjechefen?
    b. Om du utgår från PRIME (och andra etablerade synsätt) – hur ser ansvarsfördelningen ut för skapandet av motiverade projektteam?
    c. Om du fick bestämma - Hur tycker du att det borde gå till? (vem har ansvaret?)
    d. Har du någon gång upplevt att rollbeskrivningar/projektmodeller/utbildningar fört in dig i en roll/fack som du trivs med / inte trivs med?
    e. Leder PRIME till att ni jobbar mer effektivt/motsättningar i era roller?

4. **Feedback och kommunikation:**
    a. Vad innebär feedback för dig?
    b. I dina senaste projekt - Använde du dig av feedback och i så fall på vilket sätt?
    c. På vilket sätt skulle man kunna förbättra feedback till team-medlemmarna?
    d. Hur tror du att dina medarbetare upplever de förväntningar som finns på dem?
    e. Vad kännetecknar bra kommunikation i ett projekt enligt dig?
    f. Hur ser du på kommunikationen mellan dig och Linjechefer/Resursägaren?

5. **Utbildning**
    a. I vilken utsträckning finns möjlighet att gå ledarskapsutbildningar?
        - Beskriv urvalsprocessen.
    b. Vad är bra med den nuvarande projektutbildningen och vad saknas?

Mer att tillägga?

Hur upplevde du intervjun?

Linjechefer

Kön:
Ålder:
Antal år i den roll du har för närvarande:

1. **Motivation:**
   a. Vad tänker du på när du hör ordet performance?
   b. Kan du beskriva vad motivation innebär för dig?
   c. Kan man påverka (arbets-)motivation med yttre/inre faktorer?
   d. Upplever du att medarbetare är motiverade?
      - Hur vet du att de är motiverade?
   e. Vad tror du motiverar dina medarbetare?
   f. Arbetar du med att motivera dina medarbetare?
      - I så fall HUR?
   g. Hur är de organisatoriska förutsättningarna för att arbeta med motivationsfrågor?
   h. Vad skulle hjälpa dig att bli bättre på att motivera?

2. **Mål:**
   a. Vad tänker du på när jag säger 'mål' (goals-objectives-deliverables)?
   b. Hur jobbar du med mål?
   c. Kan du se kopplingen till vision/mission/business goals? Varför/hur?

3. **Rollbeskrivningar och ansvarsfördelning:**
   a. Skulle du kunna beskriva hur specifikationerna ser ut för hur ansvaret för medarbetare skall delas mellan dig och Projektledaren?
   b. Om du utgår från PRIME (och andra etablerade synsätt) – hur ser ansvarsfördelningen ut för skapandet av motiverade projektteam?
   c. Om du fick bestämma - Hur tycker du att det borde gå till?
   d. Har du någon gång upplevt att rollbeskrivningar/projektmodeller/utbildningar fört in dig i en roll/fack som du trivs med /inte trivs med?
   e. Leder PRIME till att ni jobbar mer effektivt/motsättningar i era roller?

4. **Feedback och kommunikation:**
   a. Vad innebär feedback för dig?
   b. Använder du dig av feedback och i så fall på vilket sätt?
   c. På vilket sätt skulle man kunna förbättra feedback till medarbetarna?
   d. Hur tror du att dina medarbetare upplever de förväntningar som finns på dem?
   e. Vad kännetecknar bra kommunikation i enligt dig?
   f. Hur ser du på kommunikationen mellan dig och Projektledaren?

5. **Utbildning**
   a. I vilken utsträckning finns möjlighet att gå ledarskapsutbildningar?
      - Beskriv urvalsprocessen.
   b. Vad är bra med den nuvarande chefsutbildningen och vad saknas?
   c. Hur upplever du dina projektkunskaper?

Mer att tillägga?

Hur upplevde du intervjun?

Teammedlemmar

Kön:
Ålder:
Antal år i den roll du har för närvarande:

1. **Motivation:**
   a. Vad tänker du på när du hör ordet performance?
   b. Kan du beskriva vad motivation innebär?
   c. Kan man påverka (arbets-)motivation med yttre/inre faktorer?
   d. Har du känt dig mer motiverad i något av dina senaste projekt
      - I så fall varför/på grund av vad?
   e. Har du upplevt att du saknat motivation i något av dina senaste projekt?
      - I så fall varför/ på grund av vad?
   f. I vilken utsträckning kan du påverka *vilka* projekt du arbetar i?
   g. Vad skulle behöva hända för att du ska bli mer motiverad?

2. **Mål:**
   a. Vad tänker du på när jag säger mål (goals-objectives-deliverables)?
   b. Hur upplever du de mål som är satta i dina projekt?
   c. Kan du se kopplingen till vision/mission/business goals? Varför/hur?
   d. Hur delaktig är du i att sätta mål för ditt projektarbete?
   e. Upplever du att du är delaktig i planeringsprocessen och på vilka sätt?
   f. Hur tydligt upplever du att det är vad du ska uppnå/leverera?
   g. Vad innebär det för dig att uppnå mål inom projektet?
      - Vad händer om de inte uppnås?

3. **Rollbeskrivningar och ansvarsfördelning:**
   a. Hur upplever du din arbetssituation med avseende på linjeverksamhet vs projekt?
   b. Hur anser SCA att ansvaret för dig som team-medlem skall delas mellan Linjechef och Projektledaren?
   c. Om du tänker på PRIME (och andra etablerade synsätt)– vems ansvar är det att du är *motiverad*? – är det så det funkar i praktiken?
   d. Vems ansvar tycker du att det *borde* vara?
   e. Hur gör du om du behöver hjälp/stöd med dina projektuppgifter?

4. **Feedback och kommunikation**
   a. Vad innebär feedback för dig?
   b. Hur fungerar det med feedback i projektet? (inom gruppen, mellan TM-PM)
   c. På vilket sätt skulle man kunna förbättra feedbacken till er i teamet?
   d. Hur kommuniceras förväntningar på dig från TM/PM/LM?
   e. Vad kännetecknar bra kommunikation i enligt dig?
   f. Hur ser du på kommunikationen mellan Linjechefen och Projektledaren?

5. **Utbildning**
   a. I vilken utsträckning finns möjlighet att gå projektutbildningar?
      - Beskriv urvalsprocessen.
   b. Vad är bra med den nuvarande projektutbildningen och vad saknas?

Mer att tillägga?

Hur upplevde du intervjun?

Appendix D - Questionnaire (In Swedish)

A. På en skala 1-5 – Vad tycker du om PRIME?

1 2 3 4 5

(1= inte så bra, 5= mycket bra)

Kommentar:

B. På en skala 1-5 - Hur bra tycker du att PRIME används?

1 2 3 4 5

(1= inte så bra, 5= mycket bra)

Kommentar:

C. På en skala 1-5 - Hur bra tycker du att PRIME tar upp de mjuka värdena i ett projekt:

1 2 3 4 5

(1= inte så bra, 5= mycket bra)

Kommentar:

D. På en skala 1-5 - Hur skulle du betygsätta motivationen i dina senaste projekt:

1 2 3 4 5

(1= inte så bra, 5= mycket bra)

Kommentar:

E. Vad innebär PRIME för dig?(Välj en eller flera)

1. Struktur för Projektplanering (faser, tollgates etc)
2. Struktur för Projektorganisation (roller, ansvar)
3. Struktur för Projekt (både mjuka och hårda bitar)
4. Ett tankesätt som genomsyrar projektarbetet

Appendix E - Bar chart showing the time plan of the study