

**HOW IS INTRINSIC MOTIVATION UTILIZED IN
INCENTIVE SYSTEMS AND MANAGEMENT
PRACTICES? A CASE STUDY IN FINNISH
TELECOMMUNICATIONS PROVIDER**

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JYVÄSKYLÄN YLIOPISTO

ABSTRACT

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Abstract <p>In today's market, an organization's ability to attract and retain skilled employees is becoming an increasingly valuable competitive advantage. As monetary compensation in competing organizations tends to be on a similar level, intrinsic factors like well-being and happiness at work have become crucial when employees consider where they want to work. Despite this, an organization's ability to provide psychological well-being and happiness has seen little study compared to extrinsic reward systems.</p> <p>This study aims to recognize how organizations utilize intrinsic motivation through their reward systems and management practices. This is done in two parts: first, the organization's efforts to increase intrinsic motivation are discussed with their representative. Afterwards, the effects of these efforts are discussed with employees. The discussions are based on self-determination theory's three psychological needs of competence, autonomy and relatedness. For practicality, topics were centered around six types of rewards – four intrinsic (sense of meaningfulness, autonomy, sense of competence and sense of progress) and two extrinsic ones (tangible and verbal rewards).</p> <p>This research used a qualitative case study method and was conducted at Elisa, a Finnish telecommunications provider. The data was gathered using semi-structured thematic interviews, one with Elisa's representative and four with store managers. Results show that Elisa's efforts to enhance intrinsic motivation were moderately successful. The biggest contributor towards increased intrinsic motivation was the managerial autonomy support Elisa provided, which not only boosted perceived autonomy but also led to an enhanced sense of self-competence as it allowed store managers to independently face and overcome daily challenges at their work. Tangible rewards and performance measurement systems, in turn, received criticism and had neutral and negative implications on intrinsic motivation.</p>	
Keywords self-determination theory, intrinsic motivation, intrinsic rewards,	
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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research background and justification

This thesis is a case study conducted at Elisa, a Finnish teleoperations provider. The study aims to recognize how the case organization utilizes intrinsic motivation in its reward system and managerial practices. After Elisa's efforts to enhance intrinsic motivation are introduced, the effects of these efforts are explored by interviewing four store managers.

Today's corporate world is much different than it used to be - the nature of work has changed, especially in first-world countries. Whereas workers' output was originally measured by their efficiency in completing physical tasks in front of a conveyor belt, today the personnel and their unique skills are thought to be the most vital competitive advantage an organization can have in the market (Albrecht et al., 2015). This phenomenon has been well documented, and it is agreed upon that both attracting new and retaining already hired professionals is vital to success in today's information-driven businesses (Barney & Wright 1998). The most common ways of achieving this goal are different reward systems. Traditionally, these rewards have been extrinsic in nature, consisting of mainly monetary benefits (Khim et al., 2017). However, general happiness in the workplace tends to be an ever-more important factor for professionals in determining whether they want to work in an organization or not (Peltonen & Ruohotie, 1987; p. 28; Viitala, 2013, p. 16).

The monetary compensation systems have been studied quite widely and suggestions on how to optimize them have been made (Dzurinin & Stuart, 2012, p. 1). In contrast, intrinsic rewards have seen less study. Intrinsic rewards compile a set of emotions and feelings that make the activity itself seem rewarding - in other words, the activity is not done merely for monetary compensation or fear of punishment. As the importance of these intrinsic rewards increases (Viitala, 2013, p. 16; Thomas, 2009a), managers need to understand the mechanisms of how intrinsic motivation is generated and what steps can be taken to increase happiness in the workplace. Failing to do so might lead to currently hired professionals looking for new opportunities in other companies or make acquiring new talent more difficult (Giancola, 2014). In this study, both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards are used to measure the fulfillment of basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness. According to self-determination theory, fulfilling these needs leads to greater well-being, happiness and increased work performance (Deci & Ryan, 2011.)

It is not only the nature of work that has changed, but the workforce as well. Today's workers have different preferences and expectations from employers compared to generations before them (Agarwal et al., 2001). A study by Kian et. al. (2012) measured satisfaction on motivational factors between Generation X (born between 1966 and 1976) and Generation Y (born between 1980 and 2000). Generation X ranked higher in all seven motivational factors. Kian et. al. (2012) suggest that the result was due to them having stayed with the company longer, which led to the adaptation of the company's policies toward Generation X's needs. The difference was particularly high in the design of work, which highly motivated older workers whereas the younger generation was only slightly motivated by work's design. This highlights the importance of not being lulled into a false sense of security even if personnel seem highly motivated – especially in today's diverse work environment, workers will have different drives that motivate them. If an organization wishes to improve, constant research is required to understand the current situation and find possible avenues for improvement. When studying a specific setting, such as store managers in Elisa's organization, a case study is an extremely effective way of discovering meanings employees assign with current motivational efforts and trends.

1.2 Study objectives and research questions

This case study aims to shed light on how Elisa's reward systems and managerial practices generate intrinsic motivation. This is done by studying the satisfaction of basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness through a series of interviews. First, a member of Elisa's management is interviewed and management's efforts to improve intrinsic motivation are discussed. This is followed by interviewing four store managers, where their views, feelings and perspectives on intrinsic motivation are explored. Six different types of rewards are discussed in the interviews – four intrinsic rewards (sense of competence, sense of autonomy, sense of meaningfulness and sense of progress) and two extrinsic rewards (verbal and monetary rewards). The study aims to answer two research questions:

1. How does Elisa's management utilize intrinsic motivation through rewards systems and management practices?
2. What promotes intrinsic motivation in store managers and how are the rewarding efforts perceived by store managers?

The teleoperations market is extremely competitive and as constant customer acquisition is key, the organization focuses heavily on sales and rewards success with monetary incentives. It is worth noting that it may be difficult to observe only intrinsic motivation, as it is possible for an action to provide both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

1.3 Research structure

The study is divided into six chapters. It begins with the introduction, which presents the research background and explains why the chosen subject is a valuable point of study. It also goes over the study objectives and defines research questions. Key terms, such as extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, are introduced.

The second chapter presents theories and past studies regarding the research area, aiming to build a framework through which the data gathered in the study can be observed. The chapter first inspects differences between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. It also explores the effects rewards have on intrinsic motivation. The chosen intrinsic rewards and their importance are based on findings by Thomas (2009a; 2009b) – these intrinsic rewards and their suggested building blocks are described in detail. Afterward, motivational theories used in this study are presented. The core theory applied to analyzing the results is self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2011), which is expanded upon by Vallerand's hierarchical model (1997). Towards the end of this chapter, the relationship between intrinsic rewards and self-determination theory's basic psychological needs is discussed.

The third chapter presents the study's methodology. The case company, the interviewees and used research methods are described in more detail as well as the collection and analysis of the data. The study utilizes semi-structured thematic interviews for data collection while the analysis is done using content analysis.

The fourth chapter presents the results. The interview with a member of Elisa's management is presented first, as it provides information regarding Elisa's reward system and managerial practices, which are then discussed with store managers. These interviews with store managers' points of view are presented afterward. After the interviews, the findings are first presented in a table, which shows the different forms of rewards discussed in the study. The findings are then divided between self-determination theory's basic psychological needs and analyzed based on theories and findings presented in chapter two.

Chapter five begins by discussing the theoretical contributions of the study, after which more practical managerial implications are presented. These implications are focused on helping managers improve their practices in the future. The quality of the study is also evaluated using Lincoln and Guba's (1985) four categories specifically designed for evaluating the quality of qualitative studies. This is followed by discussing limitations of the study, after which future research suggestions are presented. Chapter six concludes the study and is followed by a list of references and Appendix 1, which contains the outline for the semi-structured interviews.

2 THEORY

One of the key concepts of this study is motivation, which has quite a few definitions. One general definition comes from James Schreiber (2016, p. 2), who defines motivation as

"An internal state that arouses us to action, moves us in particular directions, and keeps us engaged in certain activities"

Psychological theories suggest this state can be caused by internal or external factors which are most often split into three groups: instincts, incentives and arousal (Gorman, 2004, p. 10-14). Instincts are our most basic needs such as hunger and are tissue needs that require satisfaction, while incentives are outside motivators that offer us something (e.g. money) for completing a certain task. Arousal changes our alertness and focus levels and affects our performance in fulfilling a task. According to Schreiber (2016, p. 71-72) a moderate amount of arousal (most commonly dubbed "stress" in everyday speech) improves our performance, but high arousal levels can get overwhelming causing anxiety which deteriorates our ability to perform a task.

2.1 Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

Motivation can be categorized as intrinsic or extrinsic. Extrinsic motivation stems from outside factors, usually a fear of punishment or a promise of a reward, that is received if the task is or is not performed (Amabile, 1993, p. 188). This is the traditional way of motivating personnel and includes means such as salary, rewards and respect (Strömmer 1999, 153). Intrinsic motivation, however, is present when we perform an activity simply because we enjoy it (Deci 1972, 76). Outcomes, such as rewards or punishments, are often secondary considerations. Schreiber (2016, p. 41) defines intrinsic motivation as follows:

"Intrinsic motivation is our natural engagement in activities that we seek out or because we want to expand our capacity and be challenged."

In other words, intrinsic motivation is essential for us to grow as a person and in satisfying new needs after our previous ones have been met. In organizations, studies have shown that intrinsic motivation prevents burnout

(Low et al., 2001) and is crucial in employee retention, job satisfaction and career success (Tymon et al., 2010).

2.2 Extrinsic and intrinsic rewards

Like motivation, rewards can also be extrinsic or intrinsic in nature. Extrinsic rewards are effects that stem from the outside world and are often seen as causing extrinsic motivation, including factors like salary, other monetary benefits and respect (Strömmer, 1999, p. 153). These are relatively straightforward for an organization to utilize and have seen much study and use throughout history. Intrinsic rewards, however, can be more complicated to manage. They are non-monetary and lead to increased intrinsic motivation (Barto et al., 2004), giving us the "drive" to do things and succeed. It should be noted that extrinsic and intrinsic rewards are not mutually exclusive (Singh et al., 2000). A sales competition between sales reps is a prime example – the competitors can be motivated by monetary gains (extrinsic reward) but winning or ranking highly in such a competition often boosts one's sense of competence and progress in their field (intrinsic reward).

2.2.1 Intrinsic rewards

Intrinsic rewards can be defined in a variety of ways. Thomas (2009a) describes them as "psychological rewards that employees get from doing meaningful work and performing well". He claims most workers today are asked to self-manage, using their wits and experience to complete their assignments – they add value by improvising, innovating and solving problems. Thomas (2009a) presents four steps that are involved in this self-management process:

1. Committing to a meaningful purpose which provides a chance to accomplish something that matters
2. Choosing the best way to fulfill the chosen purpose
3. Making sure work activities are performed in a competent manner that meets or exceeds personal standards
4. Making sure that progress is being made towards the chosen purpose, leading to having confidence in the future

These steps involve employees' judgments about four factors (Thomas, 2009a) – **the meaningfulness** of the purpose, **the amount of choice** one has in choosing the way the purpose is achieved, their **competence** in performing the task and

the progress made towards the chosen purpose. Thomas (2009a) claims that when these judgments are positive, they lead to a beneficial emotional charge. This beneficial charge represents the intrinsic rewards that work provides for employees. Each reward has its unique building blocks, which are presented below.

BUILDING BLOCKS OF INTRINSIC REWARDS

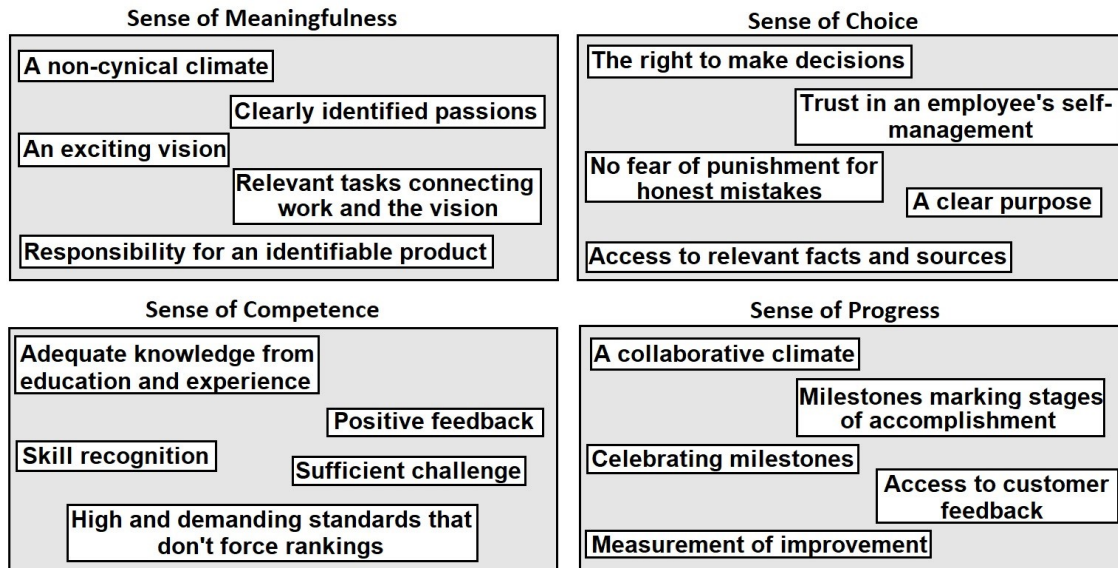


FIGURE 1: Building Blocks of Intrinsic Motivation (from Thomas, 2009a)

Thomas' (2009a) findings also provide insight into the benefits of intrinsic rewards - workers with high intrinsic reward levels showed greater concentration and were observed to be more effective. Additionally, a high level of intrinsic rewards predicts a high retention rate which prevents losing skilled workforce to competitors. Thomas (2009a) notes that intrinsic rewards have a very low chance of causing burnout as negative feelings related to work are diminished while positive ones are enhanced. In general, workers with high intrinsic reward levels felt more satisfied with their work. An additional benefit is that intrinsically motivated, self-managing employees free up managers' time, as supervisors can channel their time and resources towards other tasks. Thomas (2009a) notes that intrinsic motivation is focused on shared interests - both the employee and the employer want the work to have an effective contribution to a meaningful purpose. Additionally, intrinsic rewards do not require large monetary expenses to generate this desired effect, which is beneficial for the organization's finances.

In addition to Thomas (2009a), other researchers have also used intrinsic rewards in their studies and the exact definitions can vary. Yang (2008), for example, lists more practical examples, such as praise, participation in decisions, vacation time, design of work, appreciation, flexible working hours and feedback. These can all be categorized under intrinsic rewards presented by

Thomas (2009a) – e.g. appreciation is connected to a feeling of competence and flexible hours promote the sense of autonomy. Due to the universality and applicability, the four intrinsic rewards Thomas (2009a) presents will be used in this thesis. They are also designed to represent intrinsic rewards in a work-related environment, which is the setting of this study.

2.2.2 Extrinsic rewards and effects on intrinsic motivation

The relationship between extrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation is up for debate. Since most organizations rely on external rewards to motivate their employees, it is important to know how these rewards affect intrinsic motivation. Theories, however, differ on the exact relationship between these two factors.

Some of the most significant findings presenting the expected effects were published by Edward Deci (1975). According to Deci (1975), the effect a reward has on intrinsic motivation is dependent on its perception. If a reward is seen as a mean to affect one's behavior, it is often perceived as controlling, decreasing intrinsic motivation. On the other hand, if the reward is viewed as a show of appreciation, enhancing the feeling of self-competence, intrinsic motivation is enhanced instead.

Deci splits extrinsic rewards into two groups – verbal rewards (e.g. positive feedback) and tangible rewards (e.g. monetary rewards or benefits). Tangible rewards are further split into performance- and task-contingent rewards depending on why they are given. Deci argues verbal rewards enhance intrinsic motivation through improved self-competence while tangible rewards decrease it due to being perceived as controlling. This is suggested to hold true for both performance- and task-contingent rewards (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 129-140).

Deci's findings have had their share of criticism. One issue is the failure to recognize that a reward is rarely perceived only as controlling or a show of appreciation. Both feelings can be present upon receiving a reward, but which one is stronger, and can the intensity of these feelings be affected? If so, how can the intensity be controlled? Deci's study fails to explore these questions which means it is not able to predict outcomes before they occur (Cameron & Pierce, 2002, p. 49-50).

An example of contradicting findings was presented by Bandura (1969), which suggests positive outcomes of actions create intrinsic motivation towards those actions in the long run. He uses a piano player as an example – learning the basics can be very tedious and rarely enjoyable, but when playing skill reaches a high enough level, it becomes rewarding in its own right and incentives are no longer needed.

Bandura agrees with Deci that rewarding performance is controlling in nature. He argues, though, that if rewards are performance-contingent (granted due to excellent performance) even tangible rewards are likely to increase the feeling of self-competence thus enhancing intrinsic motivation (Cameron & Pierce, 2002, p. 64-67). Task-contingent rewards, however, are viewed to have little to no effect.

The relationship between extrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation has been studied on managers before, which can shed some light on expectations about the results of this study. One such research was conducted by Pullins (2001) on 19 sales managers across differing industries. Pullins categorized rewards as task contingent, task noncontingent, performance contingent and competitively contingent (participants compete for a set number of rewards against each other). She presented 9 propositions about their effects on intrinsic motivation and proceeded to conduct interviews with the chosen 19 participants. Pullins' findings are summarized in the table below.

Type of reward	Example	Effect on intrinsic motivation
Task noncontingent	Salary	No effect
Task contingent	Commission paid on volume	Negative
Performance contingent	Commission with defined requirements	Positive or negative
Competitively contingent	Sales competition	Negative

TABLE 1: Propositions by Pullins (2001)

In summary, both task-contingent and competitively contingent rewards were seen to have a negative impact on intrinsic motivation. The effect of performance contingent rewards depended on which aspects were highlighted - controlling aspects provide a negative and informational aspects a positive effect. Pullins suggests that providing a quota presents important information about a salesperson's performance, which is an efficient way to highlight informational aspects and increase intrinsic motivation.

2.2.3 Analyzing types of verbal rewards and their effects

It has been well established that verbal rewards due to good performance increase one's feeling of self-competence and thus lead to enhanced intrinsic motivation. More recent studies, such as Albrecht et al. (2014) who studied the effects of positive feedback in the brain using MRIs, have also reached the same

conclusion. But what happens if a person receives negative or neutral feedback, which does not enhance their perceived feeling of self-competence?

This question was explored by Fong et al. (2019) as they compared the effects of positive, negative and neutral feedback. Perhaps expectedly, they found that positive feedback was the most efficient of the three in enhancing intrinsic motivation, thus agreeing with previous theories. However, they also discovered that negative feedback can be beneficial for intrinsic motivation when it is compared to neutral or non-existent feedback. This requires that the negative feedback is informational in nature - e.g. it includes instructions and suggestions to improve one's performance. The results of the study by Fong et al. (2019) highlight the importance of open and meaningful communication between employees and managers, as informational feedback, whether positive or negative, always has a chance to enhance employees' intrinsic motivation or help them develop themselves. Not taking to time to provide meaningful feedback can lead to stagnation or a decrease in intrinsic motivation.

2.3 Self-Determination Theory

Self-determination theory (SDT) is a collection of five mini theories that aim to explain human motivation and personality in varying social contexts. Even though some of the theories are more impactful for this thesis than others, all five are presented here as they create a joint theoretical framework and expand on each other.

Self-determination theory originated from Deci's (1971) research on the effects of the relationship between extrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation. These studies led to the birth of Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET), which is the first of the five mini theories encompassed in SDT. CET focuses on the psychological needs of autonomy and competence as central factors that regulate intrinsic motivation in a person. If an extrinsic factor is seen as controlling (e.g. tangible rewards or punishments), it is likely to decrease the feeling of autonomy and thwart intrinsic motivation. If an extrinsic factor promotes choice, enhancing autonomy, an increase in intrinsic motivation is expected. (Deci & Ryan, 2011.)

According to CET, a sense of competence is mostly regulated by feedback and its informational aspect. Positive feedback increases both the sense of competence and intrinsic motivation, while negative feedback has a diminishing effect. (Deci & Ryan, 2011). Even though tangible rewards, in general, are seen as harmful to intrinsic motivation, performance-contingent

rewards have better informational quality than task-contingent ones, which can lead to an increased sense of competence.

2.3.1 Causality orientations theory

Causality orientations theory is the second mini theory and expands on CET by explaining how people interpret the events around them. It presents autonomous, controlled and impersonal causality orientations which parallel autonomous motivation, controlled motivation and amotivation, respectively. (Deci & Ryan, 2011). The orientations explain how different people can find the same action as either enhancing or decreasing their intrinsic motivation. Deci and Ryan (2011) theorize that everyone has some degree of all three orientations, and they function together in varying amounts.

Autonomous orientation encompasses orientating towards internal and external signals in such a way that they support autonomy or have informational significance (Deci & Ryan, 2011). Autonomous orientation is linked with positive qualities in higher self-esteem, self-actualization and improved autonomy support. It leads to a person being more autonomous in general.

Controlled orientation interprets cues as controls and demands and leads to a person feeling as if they are being more controlled in general (Deci & Ryan, 2011). It is associated with more undesirable effects such as greater defensiveness and public self-consciousness. Impersonal orientation, in turn, sees cues as indicators of incompetence, which is prone to leading to amotivation. It is associated with self-derogation and depression.

Causality orientations are not explored in this thesis, but the theory highlights the fact that store managers can interpret the same processes differently – an event can be found both motivating and demotivating at the same time depending on the interviewee.

2.3.2 Organismic integration theory

The third mini theory encompassed in SDT is organismic integration theory (OIT). It presents a third psychological need, relatedness, in addition to previous autonomy and competence (Deci & Ryan, 2011). OIT assumes that relatedness facilitates an inherent integrative tendency in a person, which allows us to develop. This tendency allows for internalization of extrinsic motivation and allows extrinsic motivation to become autonomous so that maintaining it no longer requires continuous effort by the initiating party (e.g.,

supervisor or teacher). OIT does not aim to categorize motivation as either extrinsic or intrinsic, but rather to explore whether motivation is autonomous or controlled in nature.

OIT presents three varying degrees of internalization of extrinsic factors (Deci & Ryan, 2011). **Introjection** results in maintaining an extrinsic factor, such as value or practice, because ignoring it leads to feelings of guilt. Even though introjection counts as partial identification, the consequences are closer to those of external control. **Identification** shares qualities with intrinsic motivation. As the name suggests, it encompasses identifying with an external value or behavior – the external factor is fully accepted. Identification is an autonomous form of extrinsic motivation and stronger than introjection with more desirable consequences.

Integration is the strongest degree of internalization and happens when identifications integrate into a person’s core values and practices (Deci & Ryan, 2011). It also shares qualities with intrinsic motivation and is an autonomous form of external motivation. According to Deci & Ryan (2011) processes of internalization and integration can be promoted by presenting a meaning for uninteresting tasks, acknowledging the feelings related to the task and making sure any requests promote choice rather than control. Introjection, identification and integration together with external regulation and internal regulation represent five ways of self-regulation. They can be aligned with either intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation or amotivation. The ways of self-regulation and the associated types of motivation are summarized in the figure below.

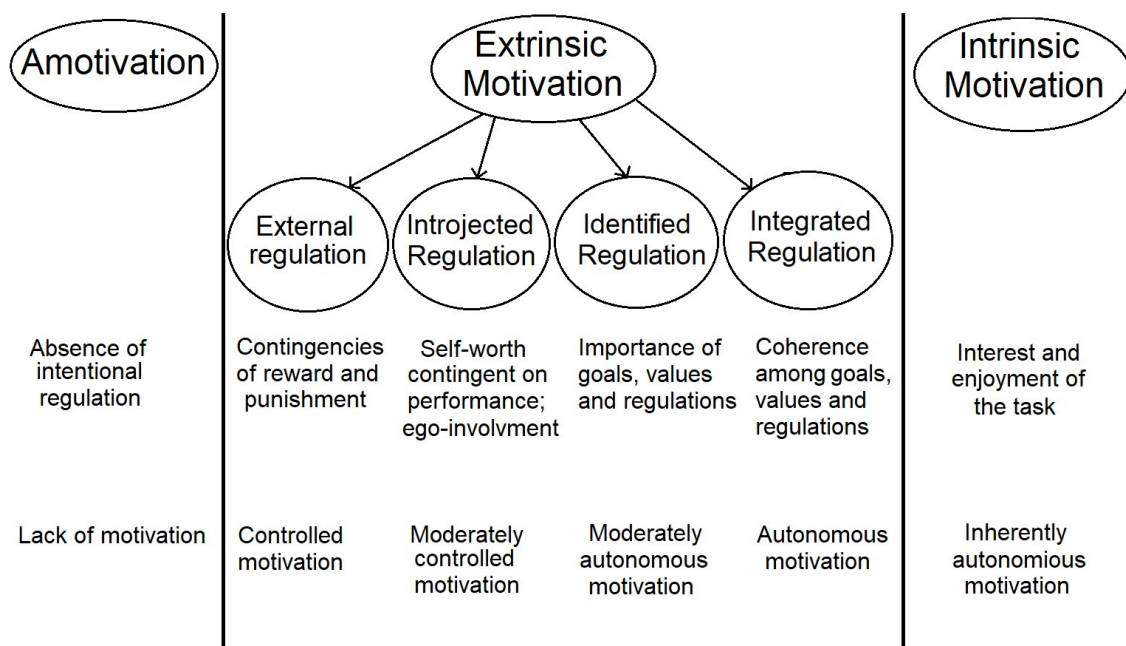


FIGURE 2: The Self-Determination Continuum (from Gagne & Deci, 2005)

OIT allows researchers to present how people use internal pressures to force themselves into behaving in a certain way. This does not, however, equal autonomy, as this behavior is not freely chosen and lacks flexibility. (Deci & Ryan, 2011).

When analyzing the gathered data, it can be challenging to differentiate between strong internalized motivation and intrinsic motivation. The researcher must allow the interviewees to use their own words to describe both motivating and demotivating experiences of their work. This is done by keeping the questions open-ended, asking how they feel about a certain topic in general rather than asking whether Elisa's particular policy is successful. This should promote bringing out the interviewee's unbiased experiences and help understand the effects on their intrinsic motivation.

2.3.3 Basic psychological needs theory and goal content theory

Basic psychological needs theory and goal content theory are the last two mini theories included in SDT. Basic psychological needs theory is based on the idea that the needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness are universal and crucial for well-being. Satisfaction of these needs is linked to better psychological health (Deci & Ryan, 2011). The universal nature of these needs allows SDT to be used in a wide variety of contexts and cultures. This allows the results of this study to be better applicable in varying contexts.

Goal content theory splits a person's aspirations into intrinsic (e.g. personal growth) and extrinsic (e.g. wealth and fame) life goals. Kasser and Ryan (1996) argue that people focusing on extrinsic goals tend to have poorer performance and well-being compared to those who focus on intrinsic goals. This is due to satisfaction of the basic needs - chasing material wealth, for example, leads to sacrifices in fulfilling the needs of autonomy and relatedness (Kasser and Ryan, 1996). In general, the importance of intrinsic life goals should be highlighted when possible.

2.4 Self-determination theory in organizational settings

This case study is conducted in a business organization, which presents a different context compared to studies used in forming self-determination theory. Deci's (1972) and Deci & Ryan's (2011) studies were conducted in focus groups of children and students. Self-determination theory has, however, also been tested in organizational settings. Deci & Gagne (2005) present key findings

that previous studies have established regarding SDT in a work environment. Two of these findings are of extreme interest regarding this thesis. Firstly, extrinsic rewards can undermine intrinsic motivation. This effect was observed in studies by Eden (1975), Deckop & Cirka (2000) and Shirom et al. (1999). Secondly, autonomy support is prone to leading to a host of positive effects. It can cause positive work outcomes (Deci, 1989), greater autonomous motivation (Blais & Brière, 1992) and higher levels of perceived competence, relatedness and autonomy (Baard et al., 2004). These findings highlight the importance of managerial autonomy support in organizations. In addition to managerial autonomy support, workers should be provided with sufficient levels of challenge, choice, feedback and rationale behind tasks. These can be aligned with SDTs' psychological needs of competence (challenge, feedback), autonomy (choice) and relatedness (rationale) (Deci & Gagne, 2005).

Deci et al. (2017) present a basic self-determination theory model of work motivation that is applicable to an organizational environment (Figure 4). The model features two independent variables, workplace context and individual differences between employees. Individual differences feature a person's general causality orientations or the locus of their aspirations (extrinsic or intrinsic) (Deci et al., 2017). Workplace context, on the other hand, focuses on whether the fulfillment of employees' basic psychological needs is supported or thwarted at the workplace. This is strongly influenced by managerial styles (Deci et al., 2017).

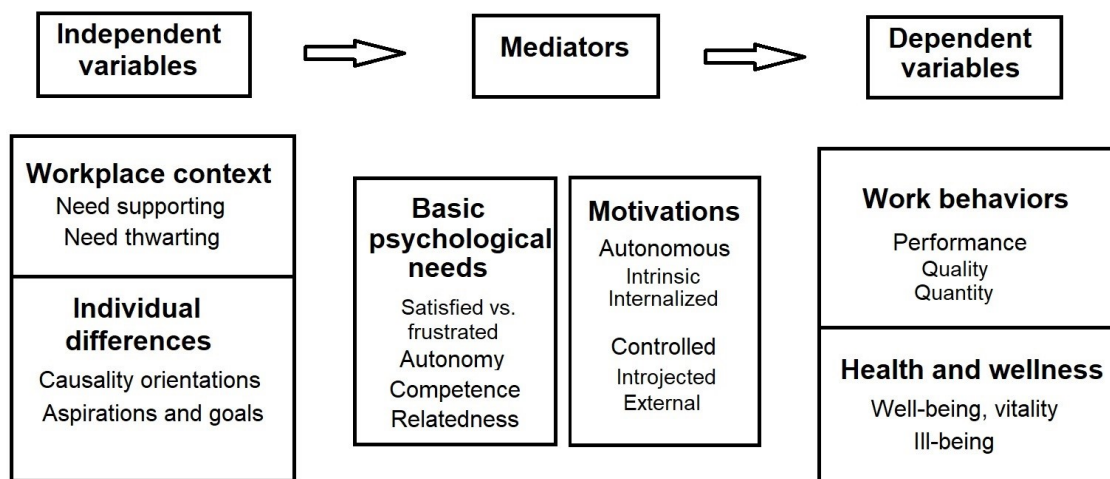


FIGURE 3: Basic Self-Determination Theory Model in the Workplace (from Deci et al., 2017)

According to Deci et al. (2017), two different mediators have generally been used when applying the model presented in Figure 4. These are the satisfaction of basic psychological needs (autonomy, competence and relatedness) and employee motivations. Some studies have chosen to explore intrinsic motivation instead of autonomous or controlled motivation. Commonly researchers have chosen one of the mediators as a focus of their study, but some have used both – in this case, motivation variables are usually predicted from the need satisfaction variables. This is also the focus of this thesis, as need satisfaction is explored to understand store managers' motivation.

2.4.1 Work motivation at the managerial level

Work motivation at the management level has been studied widely using different methods. Burke & Fiksenbaum (2009) set out to study passion and addiction as sources of work motivation. The results showed that while passion always had a positive correlation with work and psychological well-being, addiction mostly had the opposite effect, often resulting in a harmful and psychologically damaging compulsion. This highlights the need of an efficient motivational system at the managerial level – if managers can be made passionate about their work, it promotes both their performance and well-being (Burke & Fiksenbaum, 2009). This can be achieved by correctly utilizing intrinsic motivation, as it drives us to perform an action because it is enjoyable (Deci, 1972) and prevents burnout (Low et al., 2001).

In Chapter 2.2.2., a previous study by Pullins (2001) was presented to examine the relationship between extrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation. She found that intrinsic motivation was diminished when controlling factors of rewards were highlighted. Informational factors, on the other hand, enhanced intrinsic motivation. But how about a performance measurement system that is not necessarily tied to extrinsic rewards? Is it perceived as controlling too or can it enhance autonomous motivation at work?

Hauwaert et al. (2022) set out to answer these questions by gathering data from 186 Belgian managers. They established that if a performance measurement system contributes to psychological need satisfaction, it is perceived as positively enabling, which leads to higher levels of autonomous work motivation (Hauwaert et al., 2022). This, in turn, leads to better performance outcomes (Chen et al., 2020). These findings suggest it is crucial to not overlook motivation mechanisms when designing performance measurement systems for managers, as they can play a deciding role in

promoting either controlled or autonomous motivation and affecting work performance.

2.5 Vallerand's hierarchical model

This thesis studies motivational outcomes in a sales organization. In such a setting, many different factors and cues are constantly present and prone to affecting one's intrinsic motivation. Some, e.g. corporate culture, can be affected by management while others, e.g. contacts with customers, are more difficult if not impossible to optimize. As management has limited resources, it must consider which policies and motivational aspects are prioritized to best impact the workforce's motivation as a whole.

Vallerand (1997) expands on self-determination theory by presenting a model which suggests that intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation can be observed at three (global, contextual and situational) different analytical levels. They are dependent on social and personal determinants and generate predictable outcomes (Vallerand & Lalande, 2011). The model contains both vertically and horizontally organized elements – the horizontal axis aims to present social psychological determinants of motivation while the vertical axis presents personal determinants of motivation. These can be used to predict motivational outcomes (Vallerand & Lalande, 2011).

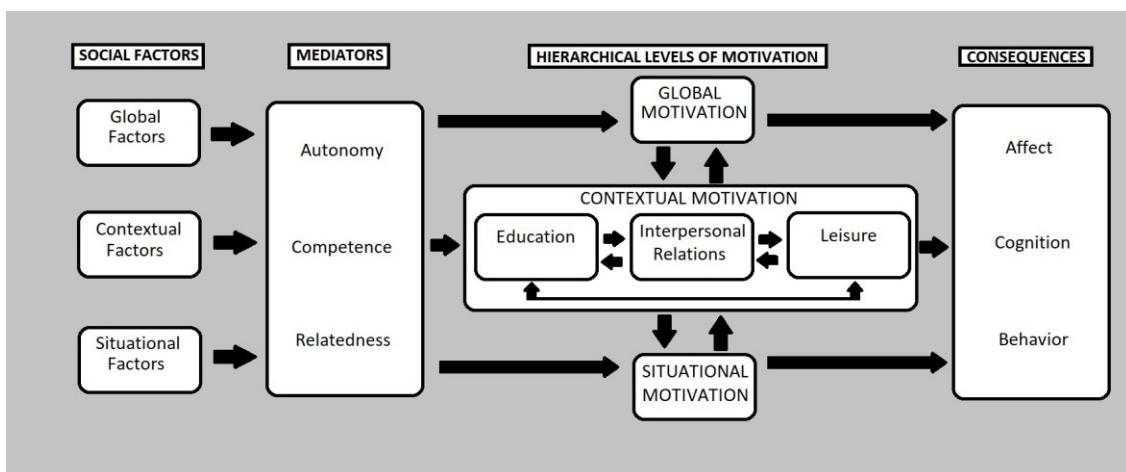


FIGURE 4: The Hierarchical Mode of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation and Amotivation (from Vallerand, 1997)

The motivational (social) factors are affected by mediators and hierarchical levels of motivation before leading to consequences, so understanding the model requires the understanding of these factors as well. Vallerand argues that social factors are mediated almost exclusively by the psychological needs of

autonomy, competence and relatedness and that factors not impacting these types of perceptions should have little to no effect on perceived motivation.

The social factors are hierarchically categorized in a top-down manner – global motivation affects contextual motivation which in turn affects situational motivation. This means that when we study contextual motivation, for example, global factors must also be taken into consideration. Vallerand also points out that prolonged factors in a lower level of motivation can have effects at the upper hierarchical level. For example, if an employee generally enjoys sales and activity of selling (global motivation), but situational factors are constantly demotivating (e.g. feelings of unfairness due to incompetent leadership), a drop in global motivation can occur (Vallerand, 1997).

What does this mean for this thesis? In general, managers should aim to primarily focus on optimizing global factors as they control hierarchically lower levels of motivation as well. However, it would be wrong to ignore contextual or situational factors for prolonged periods of time as they might lead to a permanent decrease in general motivation. There should also be a special focus on making sure the employees feel sufficient levels of autonomy, competence and relatedness in their work as these mediators greatly impact what type of motivation is generated.

The model presents three different types of motivational outcomes: they can be affective, cognitive or behavioral. Vallerand suggests that different types of motivation generally lead to qualitatively different results – intrinsic motivation tends to produce the most positive consequences, whereas extrinsic motivation and amotivation are more prone to causing negative effects. This idea has since been explored further and presented in the self-determination continuum by Gagne & Deci (2005) which is presented in Figure 2. Vallerand's findings underscore the importance of this study and emphasize the importance of intrinsic motivation and the need for proper management practices.

2.5.1 Hierarchical model in work context

Vallerand's hierarchical model has been partially tested in work context. Walker (2002) set out to explore its effect by conducting a study in an American oil company. 121 employees answered questionnaires which were used to test varying hypotheses. These hypotheses were formed around three predictions, which are listed below.

1. Positive relationship exists between perceived autonomy support, pay satisfaction and perceived job characteristics
2. Positive relationship exists between perceived work competence, perceived work autonomy and self-determined motivation
3. Self-determined work motivation relates positively to job satisfaction and performance

By using regression analysis, Walker (2002) found that the first two predictions were supported by the answers. The results regarding the third prediction were not statistically significant. In addition to having a positive effect on pay satisfaction and perceived job characteristics, autonomy support was also found to have positive outcomes on perceived work competence, perceived work autonomy and self-determined motivation. As this thesis explores both perceived work competence and perceived work autonomy, Elisa's role as a provider of autonomy support must also be considered based on Walker's (2002) findings.

Even though this thesis is conducted in a different organization that operates on a different market, it is noteworthy that Walker (2002) was able to show Vallerand's hierarchical model can be applied to an organizational context. His study was quantitative in nature as opposed to the qualitative method used in this thesis, but still serves as a proof of concept for successfully using the model in the described setting.

2.6 Summary of theory and the connection between rewards and basic psychological needs

In this study, the aim is to explore the effects Elisa's rewarding efforts have on intrinsic motivation. The theoretical framework of self-determination theory was chosen as the fulfillment of basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness has been shown to have a positive outcome on intrinsic motivation and employee performance (Deci et al., 2017). It was decided it would be best to measure the fulfillment of these psychological needs through a set of rewards – four intrinsic rewards (sense of meaningfulness, sense of choice, sense of competence and sense of progress) and two extrinsic ones (verbal rewards and tangible rewards). This decision was made because rewards are part of everyday life in an organization and more familiar than a

set of basic psychological needs. This familiarity was suspected to lead to more open discussions, which would improve the amount of data gathered.

This leads to a question, which rewards contribute to which psychological needs? The rewards were assigned to psychological needs based on their descriptions as shown in Figure 5.

ASSIGNING REWARDS TO BASIC PSYCHOLOGICAL NEEDS

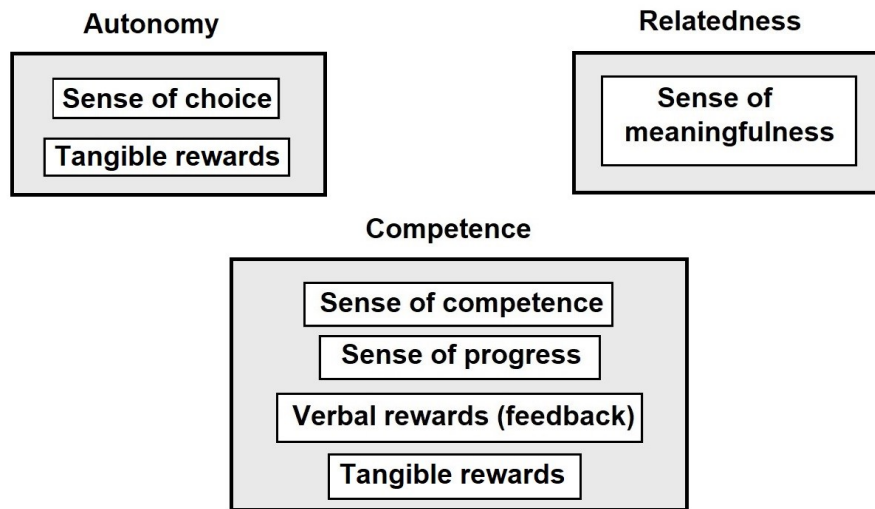


FIGURE 5: Assigning Rewards to Basic Psychological Needs

Senses of choice and competence were straightforward to assign. In Figure 1, Thomas (2009a) describes a sense of choice as “the right to make decisions”, which is a definition of autonomy. He also describes the sense of competence as “adequate knowledge from education and experience” and “skill recognition”, which are encompassed in the psychological need of competence (Deci & Ryan, 2011).

Sense of meaningfulness is described by Thomas (2009a) as “relevant tasks connecting work and vision”, “a non-cynical climate” and “responsibility for an identifiable product”. This is closely associated with relatedness, as relatedness also involves the feeling of belonging and understanding the bigger picture on how one’s work benefits others (Deci et al., 2017). Sense of progress can be interpreted in different ways – as progress towards the chosen goal or as improving one’s skillset and competence (Thomas, 2009a). For this study, the latter definition was chosen due to Thomas (2009a) describing it as both “a measurement of improvement” and “an access to customer feedback”, leading to it being assigned with the psychological need of competence. Progress is discussed as self-improvement and learning opportunities during the interviews.

Lastly, verbal and tangible rewards had to be considered. Verbal rewards, especially positive feedback, have been observed to improve one's perception of self-competence (Albrecht, 2014; Fong et al., 2019). Tangible rewards can affect both autonomy and competence depending on whether controlling or informative aspects are highlighted – controlling aspects can reduce the feeling of autonomy, while informational aspects can enhance the perception of competence (Pullins, 2001).

3 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Qualitative Research

Study methods are often categorized to be either quantitative or qualitative in nature. This study falls into the latter category. While the two categories can be depicted as opposites (Halfpenny, 1979), it should be noted that no study is typically purely quantitative or qualitative, but instead lies somewhere between the two extremes (Eskola & Suoranta, 1996, p. 7-8). As stated, however, this research better represents the contents of a qualitative study.

Qualitative research sets out to describe real life and find or reveal truths rather than verify existing ones (Hirsjärvi et al., 2003, p. 152-153). A typical aspect of qualitative research is the use of smaller sample sizes, as it focuses on fully understanding the studied, multi-faceted phenomenon (Eskola & Suoranta, 1996, p. 7-8). As the study setting is rich in nature, a qualitative method was selected due to it being more likely to provide meaningful results.

3.2 Case study

According to Yin (2012), case study aims to develop an understanding of “a single or a small number of cases” set in their own contexts. He presents three situations when using the case study method is appropriate: when research addresses a descriptive or an explanatory question, when a phenomenon needs to be studied in its real-world context and when conducting evaluations. This study can be viewed as matching all three situations. It addresses a descriptive question in “What is happening with the store manager’s intrinsic motivation due to Elisa’s reward systems?”. At the same time, a phenomenon with a real-world context including real people is studied. Thirdly, the study can be seen as an evaluation of how Elisa’s reward system is perceived as functioning among store managers.

Designing a case study involves three steps (Yin, 2012). The first step is defining a case. This paves the way to organizing the study itself. Yin (2012) notes that it is normal for a case to be redefined after some early data is collected and such shifts should be accepted. No major shifts occurred during this study, even though some terminology around intrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation had to be ironed out to be more precise.

The second step is selecting a case study design. Yin (2003, p. 40) lists four types of designs, which are presented in the figure below:

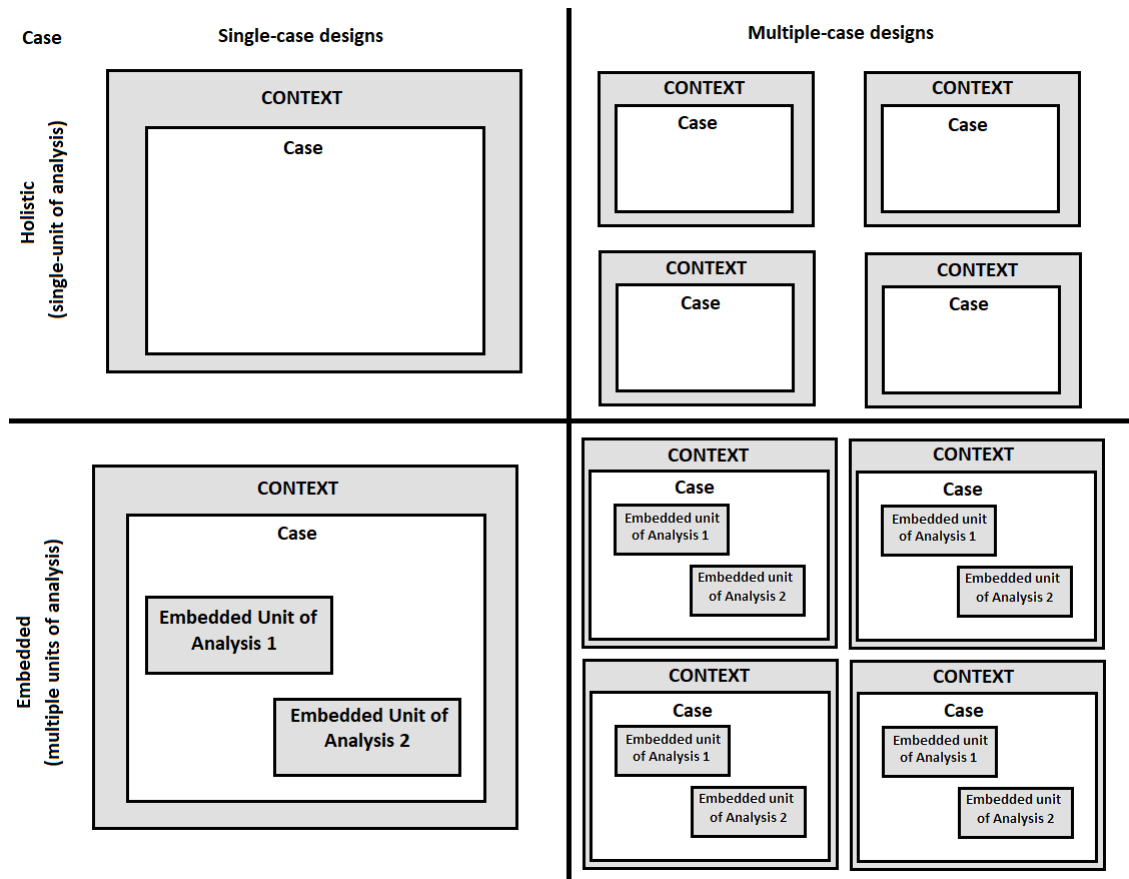


FIGURE 6: Case Study Designs (from Yin, 2003, p. 40)

The figure shows a case study can have one or multiple cases depending on the author's choice. This study is an embedded single case-study, as it has only one context (Elisa) but uses multiple units of analysis, as there are multiple interviews with both store managers and one with Elisa's management.

Yin's (2012) third step in designing a case study involves deciding whether the researcher chooses to use theory during the design process. Theory can be used to develop research questions, choose the case or cases being studied or simply refine the study's design. Choosing a theoretical perspective and making propositions can make it easier to implement the study, but this runs the risk of limiting the researcher's ability to make new discoveries (Yin, 2012). Theory was used to inspire the design of this study, as intrinsic rewards were chosen using past theories and studies and connections to self-determination theory's basic psychological needs were made. Research questions, however, were formed based on the researcher's interest in the subject.

3.3 Case organization

The case organization is Elisa, a Finnish telecommunications operator known for providing phone and internet plans for both private and business customers. During the last decade, Elisa has increasingly diversified its product portfolio and placed special emphasis on TV and entertainment, including its own TV service, creating original series and collaborating with streaming services like Viaplay and Ruutu+. Elisa's core values include high-quality experience for the customer, responsibility, continuous learning and teamwork. The organization's vision is to "aim for excellence, innovate and improve every day".

The study focuses on B2C side of the business, more specifically on the sales department which employs most people in the organization. Elisa's market share in the Finnish telecommunication market is around 39%, which makes it the largest teleoperator in Finland (Helsingin Sanomat, 2023). This includes mobile phone subscriptions, mobile and fixed broadbands, cybersecurity services, entertainment packages and more. Elisa's sales totaled around 2.13 billion euros in 2022 (Helsingin Sanomat, 2023).

The telecommunications and entertainment markets are extremely competitive with customers constantly switching between providers and payment plans, which makes customer acquisition and satisfaction key to success. As services offered are quite standardized across the biggest providers, optimizing sales and customer service is crucial. Traditionally, motivating the sales personnel has been done through extrinsic rewards, but as theory shows, focusing on intrinsic rewards and employees' psychological needs might yield more effective long-term results.

3.4 Data collection

Qualitative research aims to understand, describe and clarify human experience (Schwandt, 2007, p. 129). Studying this multilayered phenomenon requires thorough data collection and it is typical for qualitative data to focus on words rather than numbers (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 386-389). The data is most often gathered by interviewing study participants, even though observations, texts and artifacts can also produce valid qualitative data (Polkinghorne, 2005). As this study aims to understand managers' experiences, it was decided that one-on-one interviews would yield the most relevant data.

Bryman and Bell (2011, p. 466-467) divide interviews into three different categories: structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews. These categories vary in how predetermined the questions and topics of the interview are. Interviews in this study were conducted as semi-structured interviews, meaning they had a predetermined set of questions, but the exact wording may differ between interviews. The main focus is discussing a certain theme (e.g. feedback or rewards system) in the interviewee's own words. The method was chosen due to its adaptability, as it allows the interviewer to explore the varying experiences of the interviewees with follow-up questions if needed. This might be difficult in a structured interview, where it would not be possible to delve deeper into a relevant topic as the set of questions is predetermined. On the other hand, unstructured interviews could make it difficult to consistently cover the wanted topics across all interviews.

The study consists of five interviews. The first interview was conducted with a member of Elisa's management to discuss Elisa's rewarding program and its aims. The following 4 interviews were conducted with store managers, who are responsible for running their appointed Elisa stores. They recruit, train and manage their own sales personnel to achieve the best possible result.

The managers taking part in the study all had a minimum of 10 years of working experience in Elisa having been store managers upwards of 6 years, meaning they can be considered experienced in their position. The meetings lasted between 35 and 50 minutes and were recorded and transcribed. They were conducted in Finnish as it was the native language of all the participants.

The interviews were conducted in Microsoft Teams in March-April 2022 mostly due to convenience, as this allowed participants to be interviewed at their homes or offices. It also acted as a precaution against the prevalent COVID-19 pandemic. All interviewees volunteered for the interview and were not appointed by corporate management. The interview questions remained the same throughout all interviews and can be found in Appendix 1. Even though all store managers answered the same questions, further questions were asked if the researcher felt there was an opportunity to better understand a manager's experience about the topic. The interview with Elisa's representative is referred to as Interview 1, while the interviews with store managers are referred to as Interview 2, Interview 3, Interview 4 and Interview 5.

3.5 Analyzing the data - content analysis

Qualitative data can be analyzed in a multitude of ways. While quantitative data tends to have clear rules on how the analysis is done, analyzing qualitative

data is more open to interpretation (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 571). The analysis method chosen for this study is content analysis, which aims to analyze data in a specific context or contexts to explore meanings and experiences. (Krippendorff, 1989).

Krippendorff (1989) originally presented six steps for using content analysis. The first step is designing the study by establishing its context and research questions. This is followed by unitizing, which consists of defining and identifying sampling units. White and Marsh (2006) point out the need of additional units for both data collection and analysis – these units are identified after collecting data. Krippendorff's (1989) third step is sampling, i.e. choosing and drawing a sample for analysis. In qualitative content analysis, which aims to analyze a phenomenon in a specific context, the sampling process should aim for transferability to another context instead of generalizability of the results (White & Marsh, 2006). Therefore, Marsh and White suggest choosing the sample purposively.

The fourth step is coding, where different data units are tagged and classified based on their content (Krippendorff, 1989). White and Marsh (2006) note that qualitative coding is inductive in nature, meaning that evidence found in the data also shapes the analysis alongside initial research questions. In a typical coding process, the researcher reads through collected data multiple times, constantly tagging phrases that answer specific questions and making notes that can be compared to other findings.

Krippendorff's (1989) fifth step, drawing inferences, can be considered as the most important step in content analysis. In this phase, the researcher makes conclusions about the studied phenomenon based on coded data. Krippendorff (1989) mentions these conclusions are rarely obvious. White and Marsh (2006) note that the goal should be to present the "big picture" on the studied subject. The sixth and final step of content analysis is validation which includes making sure the research is credible. (Krippendorff, 1989).

Krippendorff (2004, p. 86) later introduced an updated model of the components of content analysis, which is presented below.

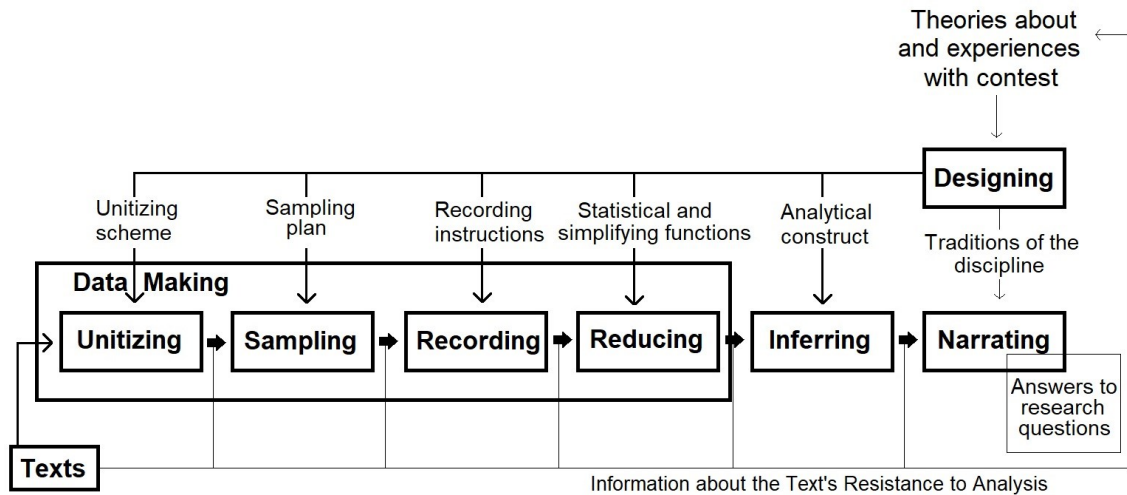


FIGURE 7: Components of Content Analysis (from Krippendorff, 2004, p. 86)

The updated model has some specifications when compared to the original 1989 one. Coding is broken down into recording and reducing. In practice, Krippendorff (2004, p. 84) explains that recording closely resembles coding procedures he explained in 1989. In this part, the instructions for coding are recorded. Reducing is often required to simplify these recorded instructions so that coding can be done in practice. The 1989 model's step five, drawing inferences, is also split into inferring and narrating. In the inferring phase, findings are studied in the chosen context and compared with theories and previous studies chosen in the design phase of the study. Narrating then includes presenting the results and answering research questions.

Krippendorff (2004, p. 89) notes qualitative research is prone to allowing research questions and contexts to evolve during the study, which can make following preset steps challenging. He argues that a qualitative approach is not incompatible with content analysis, as pursuing multiple contexts and research questions is possible. He presents a model of qualitative content analysis, which acknowledges the possible re-articulation of contexts and research questions.

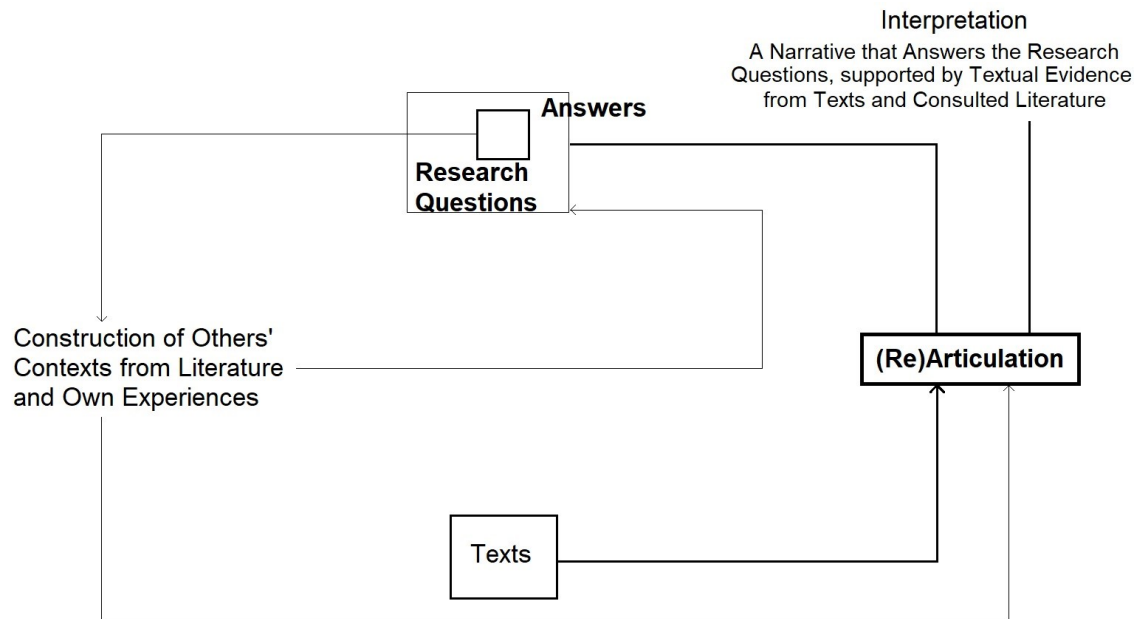


FIGURE 8: Components of Qualitative Content Analysis (from Krippendorff, 2004, p. 89)

Even though this study is qualitative in nature, it mostly follows Krippendorff's (1989 & 2004) steps of content analysis. Some steps were rather simplistic due to practical circumstances. The researcher designed the study's context and research questions and presented them to Elisa's representatives, who found the study suitable. Sampling and unitizing were driven by practicality. A message was sent to all Elisa's store managers describing the study and asking for volunteers. Four store managers volunteered, which was deemed a suitable sample size, as this resulted in five interviews total (4 store managers and the representative of Elisa's management). For unitizing purposes, it made sense to treat each interview as its own separate unit due to all interviewees having their unique views and experiences.

Coding the data started with transcribing the recorded interviews, which fills the recording phase of Krippendorff's 2004 model. In the reducing phase, the researcher read through the transcribed interviews several times, making notes about the answers of the interviewees regarding each question. These notes made it easier to understand the bigger picture and compare the answers between interviews.

Conclusions were made and written in two different sections. Theoretical contributions were considered first, as the main academic purpose of a thesis is to bring something new into its field. Practical managerial contributions were also considered, as these findings are most likely to help Elisa in its future decisions about rewarding and motivating employees. Next, the study was evaluated using a system presented by Lincoln and Guba (1985), which allows for analyzing qualitative studies' credibility, transferability, dependability and

confirmability. In the final chapter, study limitations are considered and future research suggestions are presented.

4 RESULTS

This chapter presents the data gathered in the interviews, discussing the six types of rewards examined in this study. The monetary rewards system at Elisa is quite typical for a sales organization – employees have a monthly base salary and earn additional bonuses based on their branch's performance. Verbal rewards and feedback were mostly present in one-on-one communication with store managers and their supervisors.

The intrinsic rewards measured were meaningfulness (of work), autonomy, sense of competence and sense of progress (learning and development) in their work. These were predetermined before the interviews and were all taken into consideration by Elisa as well. Their utilization and the store manager's responses are presented below.

4.1 The reward system to motivate at work at Elisa

4.1.1 Extrinsic rewards

Store managers have a monthly base salary and earn bonuses based on the performance of their Elisa shop. The bonuses are significant and were estimated to make up around 20% of the total earnings on average, which can vary quite a bit depending on how the managers reach preset goals. Managers also regularly received verbal feedback through weekly meetings. Additionally, they were encouraged to contact their supervisors whenever they needed help or support.

Elisa's representative suspected monetary rewards were not especially motivating, but Elisa uses a sales index to both measure success and rank different Elisa shops based on their sales results. Success in this index typically results in higher bonuses as both index ranking and monetary bonuses are driven by sales. The ranking system within the sales index is meant to promote feelings of self-competence and success in store managers. Promoting success stories in sales competitions or specific products was also thought to be important in enhancing the sense of competence.

4.1.2 Intrinsic rewards

The intrinsic rewards studied in this thesis were the meaningfulness of one's work, autonomy, sense of competence and progress in one's work. These and Elisa's actions towards enhancing them are presented in the table below:

Intrinsic reward	Motivator
Meaningfulness	Elisa's importance and greatness
Choice	Flexible hours and methods
Competence	Sales index, success stories
Progress	Sparring, new opportunities

TABLE 2: Elisa's Intrinsic Rewards

Elisa's representative said the meaningfulness of one's work was portrayed through promoting greatness and importance in society, as nearly everyone in today's world uses telecommunication providers. The importance of sales offices was also highlighted, as they help build Elisa's customer base and provide a major part of the generated income. The interviewee mentioned Elisa's vision of digitalization as a potential factor but doubted that it had much effect in motivating store managers in their everyday work.

Elisa seemed to provide quite a bit of autonomy to its store managers. They were allowed to coach, train and spar their employees how they saw fit, within general guidelines:

"How one coaches and spars their personnel is 100% up to them, the use of personality is allowed" (Interview 1)

"Making sales or contacting customers is not required, but it is strongly recommended ... You do not need to be the best salesperson in your store, but you need to try and set an example" (Interview 1)

Working hours were flexible and a working time bank was utilized. In specific cases, managers were also able to work from home, but work should be mostly done at the office, as their responsibilities and personnel are there.

Sense of competence was supported by the sales index which ranks different Elisa shops. Success stories in competitions or specific products were also highlighted and praised for the whole Elisa sales department to see.

Progress was mostly supported by sparring sessions with direct supervisors. Store managers were also given opportunities to take over the duties of the regional managers during their summer holidays. Additionally,

one store manager was selected monthly to take part in all the regional managers' meetings to help better their understanding of regional managers' tasks and duties.

"We try to help understand the business side of things, too often everything is about the number of units sold but it is not understood why things are done and how they affect something, we try to explain this in the background as well" (Interview 1)

It was considered important for store managers to understand the bigger picture and how their work affects Elisa in general. This was done to enhance the sense of meaningfulness of their work and prepare them for new possible career opportunities.

4.2 How store managers experience Elisa's rewarding efforts

4.2.1 Extrinsic rewards

Managers' experiences regarding extrinsic rewards were gauged with direct and indirect questions. When asked what in their work motivates them, only one of the four interviewees mentioned tangible rewards, mentioning it "also motivates them" among other things. This suggests monetary benefits are not the first thing managers connect with motivation.

Later in the interview, they were asked directly about the monetary benefits system – more precisely, do they feel it is just and if it needs improvement? All four voiced dissatisfaction. One participant wished for a simpler, more straightforward model.

"It is difficult to create an equal benefits system. In my opinion the simpler the model the better, it should be reviewed if having so many different levels and models really serves a purpose." (Interview 2)

Participants also criticized the goals required to reach benefit levels – they were described as unfair and illogical, and that it was unclear what they were based on. Another concern raised was the big difference between the size of some offices, as some participants felt it was unjust their store sold many more units than smaller stores did, but they received similar compensation despite having a higher volume of sales.

The final question regarding monetary rewards asked managers to try and estimate how much of their motivation stems from monetary benefits. One participant said it was around 50%, while others felt monetary bonuses were overshadowed by other, more intrinsically aligned rewards.

In general, the interviewees felt they were happy with the amount of feedback they received. It was felt that feedback was provided and if needed, additional feedback and support were always readily available. They did not, however, feel it had a meaningful impact on their motivation. Even though the amount of feedback was sufficient, store managers found its quality was often lacking. Much of the feedback was over menial tasks which store managers felt did not warrant a reaction – instead, they hoped for more thorough feedback sessions when a more challenging task was completed or underway.

4.2.2 Intrinsic rewards

The intrinsic rewards measured in the study (meaningfulness, autonomy, progress and competence) were discussed with the four store managers. When possible, the topic was first explored on a general level, after which they were asked about the impact of Elisa's efforts to increase their intrinsic motivation.

All four managers found meaningfulness in their work. It was mostly created by two factors: the impact stores have on Elisa's success and the success and development of their employees. Out of the two, the feelings of meaningfulness through employees were especially highlighted and it was clear store managers were able to strongly identify with their salespeople.

"We are the contact between customers and Elisa, everything must work correctly, and we are the ones doing the selling and creating income through Elisa's services." (Interview 2)

"What you do is important, as you can potentially make or break someone's career" (Interview 3)

When asked about Elisa's vision of digitalization, most managers admitted not thinking about it too much, describing it as "distant". An exception was interviewee 5, who felt it was important how their store helped elderly people keep up with the rapid changes in technology, as many of them have no one else to turn to.

Managers were very satisfied with the level of autonomy in their work. All four felt the general guidelines regarding management were quite broad, leaving managers a lot of room for self-expression in how to lead, coach and motivate their sales teams. The level of support Elisa provides in trying out new

things and listening to ideas was also rated highly. Interviewee 4 even specifically mentioned the high level of autonomy as the main reason they enjoy working at Elisa.

When discussing opportunities to learn and develop oneself, the store managers mostly commended the possibilities at Elisa. They felt that being active was key – Elisa does support learning and provides coaching, but only some courses are recommended by supervisors and very few are mandatory. Managers are also allowed to ask about not-recommended courses and are often able to attend them.

Some of the store managers also had opportunities to substitute for their supervisors during summer vacations. Managers felt they had been provided with tools to succeed and if problems arose, support was available.

“Back in the day, me substituting for my supervisor did not work out too well, as I was expected to do both my job as a store manager as well as substitute for them and it felt like I could not do either job properly. I gave honest feedback about it and next time I had someone filling in for me while I was substituting for my supervisor ... In general, our managers are very understanding and listen to feedback.” (Interview 2)

When asked about how Elisa promotes feelings of competence, the results were mixed. During the interview with Elisa’s representative, sales index and giving credit when managers do well in competitions were mentioned as primary ways of promoting the managers' feelings of self-competence. Three out of the four interviewees said the sales index did not motivate them at all, but it was useful for motivating salespeople.

“The index does not affect my motivation in any way, but it is not useless or bad, it is great for motivating salespeople. It should be based on net sales” (Interview 4)

The managers felt that the index does not represent what it is supposed to, as it is based on gross rather than net sales and has inaccuracies – it was also claimed sales index incorrectly calculates the amount of salespeople who work in the store. None of the store managers mentioned sales competitions as being particularly motivating. They did, however, find their work challenging. Overcoming these challenges was reported to enhance their feeling of self-competence greatly as it promoted the feeling of being able to succeed in one’s work. New challenges were also seen as an opportunity to learn and improve as a store manager.

4.3 Summary of results

According to the interviews, some of Elisa's means of motivating store managers were effective, while others received neutral or negative feedback. The findings are summarized in the table below. The table lists Elisa's motivators, manager reaction and if managers mentioned receiving intrinsic rewards from other sources. The table also shows which basic psychological need a reward was assigned to in chapter two. In this chapter, the effect Elisa's rewards and management practices have on motivation is discussed and analyzed using previous theory. The analysis is categorized between basic psychological needs presented in self-determination theory.

Reward	Elisa's motivator	Reaction	Additional source	Assigned psychological need
Meaningfulness	Importance, greatness	Positive	Employees	Relatedness
Choice	Flexible hours and methods	Positive	None	Autonomy
Competence	Sales index, success stories	Neutral, negative	Challenges	Competence
Progress	Sparring, opportunities	Mostly positive	Challenges	Competence
Verbal rewards	Regular feedback	Neutral	None	Competence
Tangible rewards	Sales bonuses	Neutral, negative	None	Autonomy, Competence

TABLE 3: Summary of Results

4.4 Perceived relatedness

The intrinsic reward assigned with relatedness in chapter two was meaningfulness. The interview results supported this, as described experiences portrayed the ability to relate to both Elisa and other employees.

Building on Elisa's importance and greatness worked well in enhancing the managers' sense of meaningfulness in their work. Managers felt that their part was crucial in how Elisa does in general, as their stores had the responsibility of both acquiring customers and representing Elisa. They shared in Elisa's vision of greatness and felt their work was relevant in reaching this shared goal, which are both parts of the building blocks of meaningfulness (Thomas 2009a). This contributed to the sense of belongingness, which helps fulfill the psychological need for relatedness (Deci et al., 2017). Elisa's efforts to include store managers in other organizational functions and help them see the bigger picture were also successful and well-received by the store managers, even though some managers felt they could be even more involved in other organizational functions.

"It would be nice to be more familiar with different parts, I don't mean visiting different stores but to be introduced to new organizational functions or what happens in our online services, it would improve my knowledge" (Interview 3)

Managers also mentioned employees and their development and success as motivational factors that give their work meaning. All four store managers had started their careers at Elisa as salespeople, which gave them the ability to relate to their employees as well as employees' personal success and development.

"What motivates me more than money is that my team does well and gets recognition" (Interview 5)

Elisa's vision of digitalization did not directly affect store managers who felt it was quite distant from their everyday work. This result was consistent with Elisa's representative's expectations as well – they suspected that the vision of digitalization would have little effect on store managers.

4.5 Perceived autonomy

The flexibility Elisa allowed store managers in choosing their hours and management style received praise in the interviews. The practice was extremely successful. Managers felt they had enough freedom to make the decisions as they saw fit and if something bigger came up, they were allowed to voice their opinions and suggestions and felt their opinions were listened and taken into consideration. In addition to the freedom of making decisions, other building blocks of the intrinsic reward of choice presented by Thomas (2009a) were also

mentioned: Elisa trusted store managers in their ability of self-management and they did not have to fear punishments over small, honest mistakes.

“If I feel that something should be done differently, Elisa has this culture of trying new things so I can simply try if my way is better and more profitable unless of course there is a general guideline against it, but I can’t remember a situation where I felt I didn’t have enough freedom and choice” (Interview 2)

The quote not only speaks to the feeling of autonomy that store managers experience but also to the culture of managerial autonomy support present at Elisa. Autonomy support is positively linked with enhanced feelings of competence, relatedness and autonomy which can lead to increased levels of intrinsic motivation, need satisfaction and psychological well-being (Walker, 2002; Deci & Gagne, 2005). It also promotes positive work outcomes (Baard et al., 2004). According to the interviews, managerial autonomy support is deeply rooted in Elisa’s organizational culture and is one of the biggest sources of intrinsic motivation among store managers.

Theory recognized tangible rewards as a possible factor in predicting the sense of autonomy – if the rewards are perceived as controlling, they can have a negative effect on intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1971; Deci & Ryan, 2011; Pullins, 2011). Elisa's representative suspected that monetary rewards did not strongly correlate with motivation, which seems to be correct. Store managers described their feelings towards tangible rewards as neutral, but also voiced some dissatisfaction, which can be interpreted as negatively affecting their motivation and happiness.

“It (the incentive system) has never been fair, it is based on quotas which don’t have any logic behind them, it ignores different sizes of stores... It is different to increase sales if the quota is calculated for over 10 people versus only three people, the quotas make the system unfair” (Interview 4)

This finding of possible dissatisfaction should be considered, as prolonged periods of dissatisfaction in contextual or situational factors can cause a drop in general motivation (Vallerand, 1997). Even though store managers did not describe the tangible rewards system as demotivating, the discussion around it was filled with criticism and a sense of injustice.

The use of a sales index should also be discussed. Although Elisa aimed to boost store managers’ sense of self-competence by using the index, the discussions around it and Elisa’s incentive system were very similar. Store managers said they did not care about the sales index and did not find it

motivating at all. On the contrary, managers voiced their annoyance and dissatisfaction. They felt it was not fair or equal to all stores and it was not clear what sales quotas were based on. It seemed the store managers viewed the sales index more as a tool for controlling them rather than for measuring their success. At best, they were indifferent about it.

"I don't consider sales index as a measure of success; I rarely even look at it" (Interview 3)

In the sales index, different products were measured in their own categories and the importance of these categories, e.g. phone subscriptions or mobile broadbands, often changed between months. This pressures store managers to focus on certain products, reducing autonomy and highlighting control. A strong sense of control and lack of autonomy tend to thwart intrinsic motivation (Deci & Gagne, 2005).

The reason why discussions around both tangible rewards and sales index led to very similar topics could be explained by the fact that they are both based on sales volume and thus closely tied together. If the store manager's own Elisa shop places high in the index, they are likely receiving good incentives as well. The constant ranking of different Elisa shops adds a competitive contingent to the sales index, which Pullis (2001) found had a negative effect on intrinsic motivation as it promotes control rather than autonomy.

Another potential threat to store managers feeling of autonomy was the sales competitions held between Elisa stores. Pullins (2001) categorizes sales competitions as competitively contingent rewards and argues that they have a negative effect on intrinsic motivation as well. This was not the case in the interviews with store managers - the effect was mostly neutral, as they did not feel sales competitions had a real effect on their motivation. As with the sales index, their feelings were mostly indifferent.

4.6 Perceived self-competence

As mentioned in the previous chapter, Elisa's efforts to enhance store managers' sense of competence through competing in sales index and holding sales competitions failed to enhance their intrinsic motivation. Nevertheless, the interviews showed store managers were very confident in their skills and abilities. This was attributed to the challenging nature of their work, new learning opportunities and, to some extent, verbal rewards.

Store managers found their work challenging due to the high amount of change. Their daily work required constant adaptation, as they had to handle varying and unexpected situations. Facing and overcoming these challenges greatly enhanced their sense of self-competence. These results are supported by Thomas' (2009a) findings, as he lists sufficient challenge, skill recognition and adequate knowledge as key elements of sense of competence. It seemed Elisa succeeded in ensuring store managers have the required skill set to survive and thrive in their work environment. Even though challenges were not directly presented by Elisa, its management practices and corporate culture were sufficient in providing the necessary tools and support for store managers' success.

"Some things that motivate me are developing myself, work being challenging and facing different situations that you must survive"
(Interview 3)

Store managers were mostly happy with the learning opportunities at Elisa. Only one of the managers mentioned sparring and coaching sessions with their supervisors when discussing improving themselves – they felt these sessions were somewhat hurried and not as impactful as they could be. Store managers thought being active was key to self-development, as they had opportunities to enroll on courses and seminars if they wished to do so. This was not mandatory and required the managers to actively seek out interesting opportunities and then ask about utilizing them. The process was viewed in a positive light, as managers felt they were not forced to enroll in courses they did not feel were necessary, but instead got to choose topics they were genuinely interested in and which they found supported their careers.

"There are different courses you can participate in, right now I'm doing one, it is not organized by Elisa but Elisa paid for it. If you are active yourself and think about what can help you in your work, it is possible to take part in courses ... I think I was only in one mandatory training, all the others were completely voluntary or my supervisor recommended it and I decided to go" (Interview 3)

When asked about opportunities to substitute and participate, store managers felt they received both support and freedom from Elisa when substituting for their supervisors. Interviewee 2 commended Elisa's management on listening to feedback and altering the substitutional process, when necessary, while interviewee 4 was pleased that they were allowed freedom even when taking on new tasks and duties. Many had participated in varying projects within Elisa in different departments. Store managers relished these chances as an opportunity to learn and discover new perspectives and wished to have even

more chances to participate when possible. These learning opportunities also presented additional challenges on top of their normal duties, which further strongly enhanced store managers' sense of self-competence.

Verbal rewards and general feedback were present in store managers' everyday work. Elisa has a regular feedback system for store managers and emphasizes a two-way dialogue between managers and their supervisors. The managers had mixed responses towards the planned feedback sessions. Some reported these meetings were not always focused on feedback but were more general chats about work. These sessions also provided an opportunity to raise possible concerns or present new ideas. Other managers, however, found the sessions mostly tedious and meaningless.

"Feedback does not mean that much to me, words are words, what is important is what happens and that I can do my work without being micromanaged ... However, if something goes wrong, it must be discussed without tiptoeing around it" (Interview 4)

Some managers also mentioned that "thumbs-up emojis" in everyday work did not affect their motivation but receiving more thorough feedback after completing particularly difficult tasks was effective. Managers felt that analyzing a more challenging task thoroughly with a supervisor was beneficial whether the task was successful or not - positive feedback felt meaningful, enhancing their sense of competence while constructive criticism provided opportunities to learn and improve as a professional. All four managers recognized the two-way dialogue with their supervisors and found it crucial, as it helped them get more specific feedback on topics they found important.

The interviews revealed that while there is some structure in Elisa's feedback system, it was not set in stone and managers mentioned they had found good ways to discuss feedback and other issues with their supervisors. Some mentioned they wanted feedback to be direct and straight to the point, while interviewee 4 said that whenever they needed feedback, they would ask for it.

Store managers' reactions towards verbal rewards are explained by previous theory. Self-determination theory and Albrecht's (2014) findings both predict that receiving verbal rewards due to good performance enhances intrinsic motivation. After completing difficult tasks, positive feedback felt rewarding. Neutral feedback, however, seemed to have very little effect on motivation which is in line with Fong et al. (2019) findings. Even if this feedback was meant to be positive in nature, such as giving thumbs-up emojis when a task was successfully completed, it was perceived as neutral and non-meaningful by store managers and thus had no effect on their motivation.

Negative feedback did not decrease intrinsic motivation but was seen as an opportunity to learn and develop oneself. In general, store managers wanted that both positive and negative feedback would be more thorough and straight to the point.

*“There should be more retrospective, more time to stop and think
what worked and why something did or did not work out”
(Interview 5)*

These findings highlight the importance of feedback's informational nature. Store managers all felt that feedback just for the sake of it did not have any benefits. Whether feedback was negative or positive, information and reflection were key aspects in enhancing intrinsic motivation through either increasing feelings of competence or providing learning opportunities.

5 DISCUSSION

5.1 Theoretical contributions

This study's main purpose was to explore how intrinsic motivation is utilized at Elisa and if these utilizations had intended effects on store managers. This was done using principles of self-determination theory. Store managers' need satisfaction was explored and intrinsic motivation was predicted from these results, which is not uncommon for studies utilizing self-determination theory (Deci et al., 2017). For studying the fulfillment of store managers' basic psychological needs, a set of rewards – four intrinsic and two extrinsic – was discussed.

The interviews suggest need satisfaction and thus intrinsic motivation was almost exceedingly generated through intrinsic rewards as meaningfulness of work, autonomy, sense of competence and progress were all found to have enhancing effects on motivation. Tangible rewards had a neutral or slightly negative effect, while the effects of verbal rewards were either neutral or positive. These findings align with previous studies such as the findings of Pullins (2001), Yang (2008) and Walker (2002).

The interviews revealed differences between varying types of verbal rewards. Planned feedback sessions and quick comments on Microsoft Teams without further explanation were mostly described as tedious, but after more challenging issues or tasks a thorough analysis with a supervisor was found to enhance intrinsic motivation. This highlights Fong's (2019) findings that the informational nature of feedback is crucial in ensuring the effectiveness of feedback and verbal rewards. The findings also challenge aspects of self-determination theory and Albrecht's (2014) studies, which all predict that upon receiving verbal rewards due to great performance intrinsic motivation is enhanced. This should not be taken for granted, as this study suggests these verbal rewards still need to have an informational nature behind them to have an effect – just acknowledging and giving “thumbs up” for a completed task is not enough to boost intrinsic motivation.

Facing and overcoming challenges was observed to be a crucial factor in generating intrinsic motivation. This finding was somewhat unexpected, as the challenging aspect of store managers' work was not something Elisa's representative mentioned during the interview. The finding, however, supports the results of previous studies: Thomas (2009a) lists sufficient challenge as a key component in developing a sense of self-competence, which holds true for Elisa's store managers.

Relatedness is characterized by the ability to rationalize why certain tasks are being performed (Deci & Gagne, 2005) and sharing in a company's vision (Thomas, 2009a). Both topics were discussed during the interviews and were found to have an enhancing effect on intrinsic motivation, as store managers felt they were important in fulfilling Elisa's vision of greatness and importance. However, this was not the only source of relatedness that was mentioned – store managers were also able to relate to salespeople working at their Elisa shop. Seeing their development was described as one of the most motivating things in store managers' work. Previous studies have mostly focused on organizational factors, such as a shared and exciting vision and giving rationale for work-related tasks, that can promote feelings of relatedness and belongingness. The findings of this thesis suggest that on a managerial level, relatedness can also be found through helping employees succeed and reach their goals.

Elisa used a sales index to rank different stores based on their results. Although the index did not directly rank store managers, they did bear the brunt of criticism or acclaim the most praise as they had the responsibility for the store's performance. The system highlighted competition against other stores and received mostly negative feedback. This result is similar to the findings of Pullins (2001), who discovered that competitive contingent had a negative effect on managers' intrinsic motivation. The sales index also had a controlling aspect as it highlighted certain products and their importance, which further decreased intrinsic motivation (Deci & Gagne, 2005). These findings support the arguments of Hauwaert et al. (2022), who note that for a performance measurement system to enhance autonomous and intrinsic motivation, it must contribute to psychological need satisfaction.

Managers reacted very positively to Elisa's organizational culture of autonomy. They felt they had enough room to make their own decisions but were also provided support if they needed help or just wanted a second opinion on a matter. This trend was consistent across all four interviews with store managers, with one even mentioning autonomy as the main reason they work at Elisa. These findings support previous theory that placed high emphasis on the importance of managerial autonomy support and its positive effects (Deci, 1989; Blais & Brière, 1992; Baard et al., 2004).

5.2 Managerial implications

On the managerial side, the goal of the study was to explore what effects different motivational measures have on middle management. This aims to

provide valuable information for Elisa in planning and adjusting motivational incentives in the future. Although most motivators had a positive effect on intrinsic motivation, others were revealed to have neutral or even negative consequences.

One cause for dissatisfaction was the use of a sales index as a ranking method for store managers. The interviewees found the index itself unfair as they felt the sales quotas the index was based on were unclear. Quotas also failed to consider the varying amount of salespeople and customers in stores. The result supports Pullins's (2001) finding that task-contingent rewards lead to a decrease in intrinsic motivation. The goals based purely on volume tend to be viewed more as a way of controlling employees rather than providing an opportunity to show one's competence, which is noted by self-determination theory (Deci & Gagne, 2005). Another explanation as to why the sales index was viewed in a negative light was its very close relation to monetary incentives, as the sales index and monetary rewards system are both based on sales. These monetary incentives are seen as controlling (Pullins, 2001). Store managers mentioned this one-dimensional way of ranking them (net sales) and many interviewees agreed one of the main issues of the sales index was it lacked quality control – as it was based on net sales, stores with higher return rates but more gross sales were viewed as gaining “undeserved glory”.

It is worth noting that although the sales index was not store managers' only measure of success in their work, the index was perceived as a daily performance measurement system. The interviews strongly suggest it failed to motivate store managers as it did not help enhance their sense of self-competence. This finding is supported by the study of Hauwaert et al. (2022), who established that for a performance measurement system to enhance work motivation it must contribute to psychological need satisfaction. It seems Elisa had this in mind, as Elisa's representative mentioned sales index was used for boosting store managers' sense of self-competence – the practice was just not successful. For improved results, it could be worth considering how a sales index (or another performance measurement system) could better promote feelings of competence, autonomy and relatedness.

Even though Elisa's efforts to enhance store managers' sense of competence received mixed feedback, managers felt skilled in their job. All four interviewees faced unexpected challenges in their work and overcoming these obstacles was mentioned to be a primary source of enhanced self-competence while also providing learning opportunities. This suggests Elisa provides its store managers with a sufficient skillset to solve problems and thrive under pressure despite the mixed comments about both coaching and feedback practices. While it was mentioned that these practices could function better, it was Elisa's culture of supporting autonomy that received the most praise in the

interviews, giving managers the necessary freedom to solve problems on their own. The store managers also felt that if a problem was too difficult, help was always readily available. This system of autonomy with an available, but not imposed, support system seemed to be one of Elisa's greatest strengths in promoting intrinsic motivation.

The main issue behind Elisa's coaching and feedback system was its periodic lack of informational quality. Much of the intended positive feedback was perceived as neutral by store managers. This made them somewhat indifferent to scheduled feedback sessions as they felt normal day-to-day procedures and decisions they made in their work did not warrant praise, and receiving feedback just for the sake of it did not provide any informational value. However, when a major task was completed or underway, both positive and negative feedback was perceived as motivating, which supports the findings of Fong et al. (2019), showing that neutral feedback is the least efficient way of motivating employees. Managers should therefore consider how they can add informational value to their comments, as that is more likely to provide employees with either enhanced feelings of competence (positive feedback) or learning opportunities (negative feedback).

5.3 Evaluation of the study

Lincoln and Guba (1985) present a way to evaluate qualitative studies in four categories - credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. This set of criteria is used to evaluate the contents of this thesis.

Credibility evaluates the truthfulness of the data and findings presented in the thesis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Even though store managers were from different areas, had varying number of employees and ran differently-sized Elisa shops, their opinions were similar. Interviews were also anonymous. Both these factors can be considered to increase the validity of the thesis. With Elisa's management, the researcher contacted multiple people until the one most suitable for the interview was found. This suggests the interview with management representative is credible.

Transferability measures the applicability of the results in different contexts and organizations. Lincoln and Guba (1985) note that the degree of transferability is highly dependent on the similarity of the sending and receiving contexts, making transferability an empirical issue. It would be logical that the results would be applicable to other companies operating in telecommunications, but their organizational structure and culture as well as their motivational incentives may differ. To generalize the findings of this thesis, further research is needed.

Dependability evaluates the replicability of the study – if it was conducted again under the same circumstances, would the results remain similar? Lincoln and Guba (1985) point out that in conventional studies this replicability is often closely tied to reliability and thus credibility. In order to increase dependability, the interviews were semi-structured with predetermined themes and questions. This applies to both the interview with Elisa's management and the interviews with store managers. Using the same predetermined set of themes and questions in a similar context should lead to similar results, making the study repeatable and dependable.

Confirmability measures the objectivity of the study results (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In practice, this means results are not biased due to outside factors, such as the researcher's own views and motives. The results of the study were in line with previous research. Additionally, the research received no funding from Elisa or other sources. These factors suggest a high level of confirmability of the thesis.

5.4 Study limitations and future research

The goal of this study was to explore how the case company utilizes intrinsic motivation as a part of its rewards system and management practices and how these choices are perceived by the personnel. The research method chosen was case study, which limits the possible generalization of the findings, as all findings must be viewed in the context of the chosen organization. Additionally, the sample size was quite small, consisting of only five total interviews. Even though these factors set certain limitations, the choice of using a case study as a research method is justified, as its qualitative nature provides more in-depth views on research questions when compared to quantitative research methods.

The study provides ideas for future research. As the competition in today's market is fierce for both customers and professional employees, companies must not only differentiate themselves in the eyes of customers but also potential employees (Giancola, 2014). Extrinsic reward systems tend to be similar across companies operating in the same space, which makes the professional satisfaction and happiness of the employees a key aspect in deciding where to work (Viitala, 2013, p. 16). As this study was conducted as a case study of a single company, it is questionable how well the study can be generalized to other telemarketing companies let alone other sales organizations operating in different markets. Further research on the use of intrinsic motivation in sales organizations is required to better understand the causality between incentives and motivational outcomes. It is also noteworthy

that this study focused purely on intrinsic motivation even though self-determination theory typically explores whether motivation is autonomous or controlled in nature (Deci & Gagne, 2005). While focusing on intrinsic motivation is not uncommon (Deci et al., 2017), more study is required to better understand how autonomous motivation is generated in sales organizations.

One of the key findings of the thesis was the impact facing and overcoming challenges had in enhancing intrinsic motivation, as it was mentioned to be a crucial factor in promoting self-competence. Even though this is supported by previous theory, it has not been widely studied in an organizational setting. Conducting a study focusing specifically on challenges and their management in different organizations could provide a more thorough understanding as to what kind of and how big a role daily challenges (or lack thereof) play in generating intrinsic motivation.

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Appendix 1 - Interview questions

The basic structure of the interviews. Interviews were conducted in Finnish as it was the respondents' native language. English translations are provided.

Interview with store managers' supervisor

Kuvaile organisaatorakennetta myymäläpäälliköiden näkökulmasta

Describe the organizational structure from store managers' perspective

Kuvaile palkitsemisjärjestelmää - palkkio, provisio, kannusteet, bonukset?

Describe rewards system - salary, commission, incentives, bonuses?

Onko suullinen palautteenanton järjestelmällistä?

Is there an official structure on giving feedback?

Mihin eri kannusteilla tähdätään? Mitä motivaatiotekijöitä haetaan?

What different incentives are meant to promote? Which motivators?

Mikä muu motioi työntekijöitä kuin rahalliset kannusteet? Kuinka iso merkitys rahallisilla kannusteilla on?

What else than monetary rewards motivates employees? How big a role do monetary rewards have?

Millä tavoin Elisa pyrkii edistämään työntekijän tuntemaa

- työn merkityksellisyyttä
- autonomiaa
- osaamista
- kehittymistä ja oppimista

How does Elisa promote employees'

- sense of meaningfulness
- autonomy
- competence
- development and learning

Interviews with store managers

Introduction

Kauanko olet työskennellyt Elisalla?

How long have you been working at Elisa?

Mikä on työnkuvasi?

What is your role at Elisa?

Motivation

Mitkä asiat työssäsi motivoivat sinua?

What in your work motivates you?

Teetkö mielestäsi tärkeää työtä yleisesti / Elisan kannalta? Koetko edistäväsi Elisan visiota?

Do you feel your work has meaning in general / for Elisa? Do you feel you are following Elisa's vision?

Millainen mahdollisuus sinulla on vaikuttaa työhösi?

Can you affect your work?

Miten Elisa tukee kehittymistäsi ja oppimistasi?

- tuuraukset, myymäläpäällikkövierailut ketjupalavereissa, yleinen osallistuttaminen esimerkiksi liiketoimintaan

How does Elisa support your development and learning?

- substitutions, visiting meetings, general involvement in i.e. business management

Rewarding

Mitä mieltä olet kannustepalkkiomallista? Onko se reilu? Kaipaisitko siihen muutoksia?

How do you find Elisa's monetary rewards program? Is it fair? Do you think it needs to be changed?

Koetko myymäläindeksin motivoivana? Tunnetko onnistuneesi hyvin saavuttaessasi sen tavoitteet? Miten suhteuttaisit motivaation indeksissä menestymisen ja rahallisten palkkioiden välillä?

Do you find sales index motivating? Do you feel you have succeeded when you meet its' requirements? How would you proportion motivation between doing well in sales index and receiving monetary benefits?

Millaista palautetta saat työstäsi? Miten se vaikuttaa motivaatioosi?

What kind of feedback do you receive from your work? How does it affect your motivation?

Mitä kaipaisit enemmän Elisalta?

What more would you want from Elisa?