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WHAT MOTIVATES EMPLOYEES TO LIVE UP TO VALUE PROMISES

AN EMPLOYEE DISCOURSE

HELENA LIEWENDAHL



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Key words: employee motivation, value promises, human service logic, co-active managing, co-active enabling

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1 INTRODUCTION

'Why do they make promise we cannot keep?'

In one of the two cases of the current research, this was the eye-opening question that a group of service employees collectively posed in one of the empirical sessions. This became one of the four generative questions that guided this research journey on employee motivation. The research departed initially by exploring barriers to implementing marketing ideas (strategies, concepts, and promises) and continued by exploring what motivates service employees to live up to value promises in value practices.

This group of employees seemed genuinely frustrated about their situation. The question sounded almost like a cry for help. One could easily sense that these employees were customer focused and motivated to serve their customers well. According to service literature, motivation and willingness to serve are prerequisites for keeping promises in face-to-face interaction and, hence, are instrumental for value fulfilment and thus, ultimately, satisfied customers (Bitner, Booms and Mohr, 1994; Grönroos, 2000, 2011; de Cherantony 2003; Zeithaml, Bitner and Gremler 2010). However, something in the system seemed to hinder these employees from 'walking the talk', at least in accordance with what the firm was promising in its marketing communication.

Making promises about the firm and its offerings by communicating to and with customers in different ways is, by tradition, a primary function of marketing (Calonius, 1988). Customers' expectations of the firm and its service provisions are influenced by what the firm promises. Promises are made in a variety of ways, differing in preciseness and clearness. They can be implicit, broad, and general: e.g., brand promises expressed as general statements about what a firm is and does. They can be explicit and specific: e.g., specific service promises that communicate certain concepts and activities (Zeithaml, Bitner and Gremler, 2006).

Service guarantees are precise, explicit service promises (Zeithaml, Bitner and Gremler 2006). Ultimately, all the different statements made by firms, both official and unofficial, are promises, including what is said and done by employees in customer service interaction (ibid.) and about employees in official communications. In the current service literature, marketing promises are referred to as promises of value propositions (Korkman, 2006), thus emphasising the value aspect which prevails currently in service research.

From the service employees' (= contact or frontline employee) point of view, value promises are influential, as these promises determine how they should act in customer interaction (Grönroos, 2008; Zeithaml and Bitner, 2006). Unfortunately, overpromising in selling, advertising, and other company communication is common today (Zeithamel and Bitner, 2006). This influences not only the employee who interacts with the customer (Stein, 2007) but also the firm who should avoid deviating from its promises (Zeithamel and Bitner, 2006: 506–508). How promises can be best managed is discussed within promises management, which is an emerging, distinct service research stream (Grönroos, 2008; Brodie, Glynn and Little 2006; Hatch and Schulz, 2003). Its central framework, 'The Three Promises Framework' (henceforth TPF), offers from a managerial perspective, an overview of how to manage the triadic promise: the i) giving, ii) enabling, and iii) keeping interplay.

The TPF draws upon the idea of aligning its three aspects to ensure that the intended (by the firm) and expected (by the customer) delivery of promises meet, and thus that a successful service performance takes place (Grönroos, 2000; Zeithaml and Bitner, 2009). Recently, by placing customer value at the centre of the model, the concept of value has been incorporated into the framework (Little, 2004; Brodie, Glynn and Little, 2006). In so doing, the model depicts that, ultimately, customer value is achieved by realising promises. Thereby, the model reveals that the customer's value creation is dependent on how promises are fulfilled, and thus that all three sides of the triangle contribute to the customer's value creation in a given context.

This dissertation answers the question what motivates employees to live up to value promises by exploring the employees' experiences of and in everyday value practices. Thus, it takes value practice as its locus for the exploration. It departs from the TPF and takes an employee perspective on the promise issue by placing the employee in the centre of the model. Motivation is here explored as contextual, i.e., in regard of serving customers in relation to value promises. Hence, the focus is directed on employees' motivation for emotion work in affective service provision in relation to the firm's value promises. By this approach, it is possible to identify factors that employees experience as having an influence on their motivation in this specific, value-practice context. Based on this, and by incorporating relevant theoretical informants, an employee discourse on motivation is described.

The results of the study are summarised in the eclectic Human Service Logic (henceforth HSL) framework and its suggestive Promises Integration model (henceforth the PI), which describes an employee discourse on motivation in a service context. The HSL suggests six central principles that underpin the PI model, which depicts the triadic giving-, keeping- and enabling-promises interplay. It does so from a practical, systemic, and service-employee angle, drawing upon a humanistic co-workership perspective. Thus, it introduces a new perspective on the TPF model; reordering, reorienting, and reframing it from promise management, governed mainly by managerial control, norms, and procedure, to a dynamic promise-living perspective, directed by human principles.

1.1 Positioning the Study

This study is positioned within service research, specifically within internal marketing (henceforth IM), which is a distinct research stream within the service field. IM (defined in section 4.2.2.1) is concerned in particular with the enabling aspect of the TPF, and with aligning its three aspects. Further, the study is positioned within the Nordic School of Services.

This study places the employee, as a human being in a central position in value practices, and it adopts a humanistic stance. Adopting a humanistic stance implies rehumanizing what is explored (Rowan, 2001:116, in Reason and Bradbury, edit.) and the adoption of systems thinking, because in humanistic inquiry, the aim is to understand the big picture of a phenomenon (Hirschman, 1986: 240). Moreover, a humanistic stance emphasises the experience of the subject as central in research (Rowan, 2001: 119, in Reason and Bradbury, edit), in this case the service employees' experiences.

The humanistic stance has two main implications for the current study: It rehumanizes i) the human resource by drawing the attention to employees as humans, as subjects in

their work-life context, and emphasises the humane aspects of work-life: ii) the content of employees' work, i.e., that service is seen as an aspect of value practices, instrumental to value fulfilment, and the focus is placed on face-to-face emotion-work in service provision. It notes the significance of service employees' experiences of these human interactions, and it takes these experiences in value practices as the locus for identifying factors that influence motivation.

Such human and humane aspects, approached from the employees' angle, receive scant attention in the current bulk of service research. Yet, employees' service performance has in previous service research been established to significantly impact customers' experiences of satisfaction, loyalty, perceived quality, and value fulfilment (see e.g., Bitner, 1995; Zeithaml and Bitner, 2000; Grönroos, 1994, Grönroos, 2011). Further employees' experiences in value practices are shown to have a significant influence on their work-life experiences and perception of work-life quality, which in turn reflects on their work in service provision. Drawing upon the lack of research departing from an employee angle, and the reciprocal influence of employees' experiences of and in value practices as subjects in these, the relevance of this research is discussed and argued for.

The discussion in the following sections proceeds as follows: In section 1.1.1, the positioning of the study in the Nordic School of Services is discussed. Section 1.2 discusses the applied humanistic stance and the humane aspects of service, the motivation for the research, and the methodological implications of the humanistic stance. In section 1.3, the need for an employee discourse in service research is discussed, and in section 1.4, the purpose of the study and the research questions are presented.

1.1.1 A Nordic School Approach

Positioning the research within the Nordic School of Services has implications both on the methodology applied and on how the value concept is approached.

The Nordic School was established when researchers in Northern Europe became interested in the area of services marketing. The focus was on 'services and service firms as products and organisations' (Grönroos and Gummesson, 1988; Grönroos, 1989). This school of thought differs from mainstream marketing in its methodological approach and view on value creation/formation. It emphasises the value of qualitative methods and action research for the purpose of developing understanding. It notes the usefulness of action research in real-life settings as an essential way of developing understanding of phenomenon in practice, and theory construction drawing upon these.

Commonly, marketing research adopts a quantitative approach, grounded in a positivistic paradigm. This was the only accepted scientific approach in the field, until the era of theory generation, and since the breakthrough of qualitative research methods was initiated in the beginning of the 1980s (Gummesson, 2001). The breakthrough of qualitative methods, and research grounded in a constructivist paradigm, stems from the notion of the insufficiency of relying solely on methods from natural sciences as the basis for social research (Morgan and Smirich, 1980; Gummesson, 2001). In the Nordic School case studies are often conducted in cooperation with persons involved in practicing services marketing, which has resulted in practically applicable frameworks (Gummesson, 2001).

However, even if emphasising action research, this school of thought commonly departs from a managerial position. Therefore, it is occupied mainly with developing further the managerial discourse and its underpinning presumptions. For instance, research on service culture, which is central to service management, as a form of governing the organisation towards customer orientation, has been mainly prescriptive in suggesting instilling of certain values into employees (Skålen and Strandvik, 2005).

Currently service research emphasises a customer focus on value aspects and has consequently taken customer experiences as one of its unit of analyses in research on value creation. The research has a tradition of ignoring employees' experiences and refers to employees in general terms, somewhat in passing. However, despite this and its managerial approach the Nordic School notes and emphasises the impacts of employees as a resource, and as part-time marketers in interactive marketing in customer interaction (Grönroos, 2000). Employees are noted to have an instrumental role in customers' value fulfilment (Grönroos, 2011).

In regards to value, the Nordic view, according to the service-logic approach, presumes that customers create the value, but firms can support and facilitate this during interactions:

> 'The customers create value for themselves. However, during interactions with customers, the supplier gets opportunities to influence the process of value creation, in the best case enhancing the level of value the customers create out of a service activity or a good'. Grönroos (2011:14)

It is in these interaction value practices that employees matter as part-time marketers and they are instrumental to customers' value fulfilment (Echeverri and Skålen, 2011). However, even if employees' contributions are noted as significant research that explores employees' *experiences* is scant. A lack of "bottom-up" empirical research, i.e., how marketing actually is done, has been noted in marketing in general (Skålen and Hackle, 2011).

By placing the employees in the limelight and exploring their experiences, departing from value practices as the locus, this study aims to contribute in filling this research gap. By placing the employee at the centre of the TPF, this study presumes that the employee has an active and instrumental role in facilitating and supporting customers' value fulfilment, and the employee acts, if motivated to do so, as a part-time marketer.

Departing from the TPF but deviating from its managerial perspective, this study takes the employees' perspective by explicitly focusing on the employees' experiences in its analyses. The chosen positioning and stance have several implications on the research in terms of underpinning tenets, as to methodology and choice of theoretical frameworks applied as informants, in this longitudinal, qualitative, and abductive research process.

1.2 The Applied Humanistic Stance and Motivation for the Research

Section 1.2 discusses: i) The implications of the humanistic stance, which determine both a) how motivation is approached, and b) methodological choices. ii) The theoretical grounding, in current service research, of the humane aspect of services in face-to-face and voice-to-voice service encounters and the implication of this. Further, the discussion articulates employees' roles in value practices and it argues for employees' experiences as the relevant unit to study. The motivation for the research is embedded in this discussion.

The discussion departs by revealing the humanistic view on motivation. It continues by discussing the methodological implications that a humanistic stance has in emphasising first-order subjective experiences and consciousness of these, and consciousness as a phenomenon that advances understanding. These intertwined concepts, experiences, consciousness, and understanding, are the methodological tenets of this research.

This section also discusses the humane aspect of service provision. Drawing upon previous service research on emotion work, it brings to the fore and articulates in particular the human interaction aspects of service encounters, in value practices. The humane aspect of services is further stressed by the applied humanistic stance. In accordance with the humanistic stance, the employee experience, from a first-order position, is argued to be the appropriate unit to explore when studying motivation in a service context.

It is argued in this study that current mainstream service research seems to ignore this particular human aspect. A dehumanization of services, in particular from the providers' standpoint, seems to have occurred in current service research and practice. Currently the main focus seems to be on studying the advantage of nonhuman resources for customers' value fulfilment, as instrumental for corporations' profitability. IT solutions and service systems and processes seem to be the prevailing units of analyses. Customers' interactions with these resources attract research attention. It seems that in practice systems are taking over and the human beings, both customers and even more so employees, are becoming marginalised.[1]

It also seems that in practice a growing number of employees are resigning to the systems that take over and hinder them in serving customers properly. By putting employees' experiences in the foreground, this study takes a critical position to mainstream service research and does thereby rehumanise not only the view applied to employees but to services in general. It sees value practice as the arena for human interaction that embeds humane service activities. It takes human interaction as instrumental for value fulfilment, and employee motivation as fundamental for human interaction.

Taking a humanistic stance means applying humanistic principles as the starting point for the research. This implies doing research 'as if people were human' (Rowan, 2001:121, in Reason and Brandbury, edit) and places human experience at the centre (ibid.; Hirschman, 1986). Secondly, certain principles underpin humanism and stress the potential value and goodness of the human being. Humanism sees that humans are innately oriented towards goodness and growth (Rogers, 1951). Moreover, it emphasises human needs (Maslow, 1968, 1954), human rights (UN, 2003, on norms for corporations and business enterprises), and consciousness (Bugental, 1964; Wilber, 1997; Rowan, 2001; Assagioli, 1974) In addition, humanism see humans as adult, active subjects possessing a free will (Follett, 1924, Assagioli, 1974) and seeking for meaning (Maslow, 1971; Frankl, 1969), also in work contexts (Burger, 2007).

Thus, humanism adopts a humane outlook, which, beside the above discussed, stresses empathy, compassion, and benevolence (Armstrong, 2010). These stand in opposing positions to the prevailing technocratic, managerial, and positivistic outlook in the

[1] Numerous are the stories of customers that are tossed around in big corporations' service systems, communicating with and via machines, desperate to reach a real human being who can lend a helping hand, i.e., human beings yearning for traditional human service.

current mainstream service research and managerial literature, which in its ignorance of humane aspects does marginalise the employee and his/her experiences.

1.2.1 A Humanistic View on Motivation

Drawing upon the works of Maslow, humanism places human needs in a central position in regard to motivation (Bugental, 1964; Maslow, 1970). However, contrary to common perceptions of need fulfilment, which see need fulfilment mainly as individualistic undertakings based on selfish drives, humanism sees the fulfilment of higher-level needs, such as self-fulfilment, in relation to a higher outcome and the self:

> 'The outcome of self-fulfillment for human beings is not selfishness and the absorption in the mundanely human; rather, full humanity consists of the selflessness affirmation of a much greater order and totality, of which the person is a part'. (Bugental, 1964: 19)

Today this approach to motivation is gaining more recognition in business practices, and in some streams of organisational research, such as positive organisational behaviour (henceforth POB). Drawing upon contemporary psychology, such as positive psychology and POB, current research claims that motives such as altruism may be present in work-life (see e.g., Seligman, 2004; Csikszentmihalyi 2003; Kofman, 2006). Thus, being human implies, according to humanism, a relation to higher-order motives, such as meaning, in both work contexts (Burger, 2007) and in relation to oneself. However, experiencing higher-order motives and meaning requires consciousness of oneself in relation to one's environment and the social settings in which one operates. This requires self- awareness:

> 'Human beings are aware and aware of being aware, i.e., they are conscious. Human consciousness potentially includes an awareness of oneself in the context of other people and the cosmos' (Bugental, 1964: 19).

Assagioli (1974: 11) argues that the experience of the self is implicit in our human consciousness, and thus embeds our motives. The process of becoming aware depends on a person's use of the will (ibid). This in turn implies that the awareness of one's higher-order motives requires becoming conscious. Consciousness can, according to humanistic views, appear in individuals and collectively, and these interact. Moreover, the field of consciousness has no limits for expansion (Jung, 1957). Experiences always relate to the level of consciousness a person has gained and the understanding of one's own motivation process. Therefore, what one experiences as motivating, another may find demotivating, depending on the level of consciousness (of the self). This implies that individual differences play a significant role in determining motivation. This complicates, e.g., firm internal motivational campaigns and speeches.

Such a humanistic view on motivation and the meaning of experiences and consciousness are by and large ignored in mainstream research on organisations and work-life. Currently the prevailing view on business organisations is that these are mainly economic and technological units, but not important as social organisations (Kofman, 2006; Rehn, 2007). This view implies that the employees are not seen in terms of unique human beings in unique social groupings (Rehn, 2007), but as a resource performing jobs according to descriptions. This view assumes that humans in business settings mostly operate based on rational economic values (ibid). Such a technocratic view fails to see the human being, and the humane aspects of being, and how these aspects underpin and impact work-life and many everyday practices in organisations. Indeed, this currently common view has been accused of being autistic in ignoring that which is socially meaningful to human beings (ibid: 139–141).

To conclude, in contrast to the prevailing views in current management literature, motivation in this study draws upon the needs and experiences of the ones 'begin motivated'. This relates to the use of the will and valuation of the content that is to be acted upon and to contextual factors. To understand and describe an employee discourse on motivation requires access to employees' first–order, subjective, experiences. Motivation as a theoretical construct draws upon humanistic and positive psychology, i.e., third- and fourth-force psychologies, which see motivation as contextual, individual, and meaning seeking, embedded in experiences and consciousness. These theories recognize higher-order transpersonal motives, such as willingness to serve others. Such motives are presumed to have a holistic influence on life experiences, including work-life as an aspect of life.

1.2.2 Methodological Implications of a Humanistic Stance

This study applies a constructivist paradigm, an abductive approach, and qualitative methods. The methodological implications of a humanistic stance, i.e., the notion of consciousness, which has always been an important concept in social science (Rowan, 2001: 114), in relation to experiences (ibid: 116) as the foundation of understanding are the tenets of this research. Systems thinking, as applied to explore human systems, i.e., systemic thinking (Flood, 2001: 137, in Reason and Brandbury) is the other methodological tenet of this work.

To adopt a humanistic stance, in combination with action research, has some implications in regard to its application and the researcher's attitude. The implications impact the research cycle, which in humanistic inquiry requires the researcher to be authentically engaged, and places the research in 'the qualitative camp' (Rowan, 2001: 121, in Reason and Brandbury).

Traditionally humanistic research is sceptical of abstraction, and it calls for concrete study. A basic tenet in humanistic research is that theoretical abstractions function merely as tools that lend direction for further experiential explorations, and that truth and knowledge, are not monolithic (Winter, 1998: 42–44). Rather, knowledge is formed by experiences and the consciousness that appears in those experiences in relation to, among other things, the context and the self. Thus, this research is characterised by these tenets, which implies that during the research the participants in the process, including the researcher, have shared the experience of reflecting upon customer service work. During this process, consciousness about what motivates employees has advanced, and this underpins the understanding that is the foundation for the employee discourse on motivation that the HSL framework, and its PI model, describes.

1.2.2.1 Experiences and Consciousness

Consciousness is a central concept to humanism, which refers to the understanding of the self, the whole, the system, and the relation of the self to the whole, as part of it. It refers to the development of understanding, as developmental stages and states of being aware. Consciousness "is anchored in experiences", (Rowan, 2001: 114), and, therefore, the two concepts are closely interrelated. Seen from a humanistic angle, consciousness is not located in the individual, but rather it appears in the individual (Wilber, 1997). Current literature on organisational theory claims that there are conscious organisations that manage to integrate the material and spiritual world, and

unconscious organisations that maintain in the old paradigm, solely seeking economic success (Kofman, 2006). Consciousness is according to Kofman (2006:3) defined as 'the ability to experience reality, to be awake of inner and outer worlds' and 'to be awake and mindful'.

The exploration of consciousness on an individual level has long-standing traditions (Wilber, 1997). James initiated the study of consciousness in the late 18th century, in close connection to his reasoning about free will (Taylor, 2010), which is at centre in some streams of humanistic psychology, such as psychosynthesis (Assagioli, 1974). The impact of consciousness on organisational performance has been explored for a few decades (Schmidt-Wilk, Alexander and Swanson, 1996: 429). Studies have been conducted on how different consciousness techniques can positively affect the functioning of entire organisations in more sustainable directions (ibid). Consciousness at the collective organisational level has been described as having three dimensions: material, social, and spiritual (Panday and Gupta, 2008: 889).

Consciousness in this study relates to experiences and motivation. A variety of issues that employees experienced as motivating/demotivating in value practices were identified, and reflected upon during the empirical sessions of the study. Bringing these issues to the fore, and together reflecting upon them, advanced shared consciousness among the participants about what motivates them (employees) to live up to value promises. This consciousness, which appeared during the process, underpins the understanding that has been developed throughout the study. Consciousness can be understood to exist in a sphere, appearing in individuals, and as shared between people, and gaining awareness of an issue, in this sphere, occurs as becoming conscious, which advances understanding.

Consciousness advances systemic thinking (the human aspect of systems and the interrelatedness of human processes, such as knowing), and it depends on it. Therefore, shared consciousness has a central meaning in this study, as an 'instrument' by which understanding is advanced. Drawing upon it the employees' discourse described. Consciousness as a concept and its 'use' in the current study is discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

1.2.2.2 Implications of Systemic Thinking

Systems thinking, in general, seeks 'to engage with the complexity of reality, including the dynamics of shifts through time' (Thornton, 2011: 89). When the human aspect is incorporated, such a system is called a living system (Horn and Brink 2009: 14), which, within systems thinking, is a distinct stream referred to as systemic thinking (Flood, 2001: 137, in Reason and Brandbury).

The study explores employees' motivation from a systemic perspective, and from the employees' angle. This implies that value practices are approached as human, social systems. Further, the study and the developed HSL framework and its PI model, adopts systemic constellation principles (discussed in section 2.5.2, see Horn and Brink, 2009; Birkenkrahe, 2008) as its underpinnings. The motivating/demotivating factors that have been identified during the empirical process are seen as interrelated elements in constellations. This systemic approach deviates from other systems thinking approaches currently applied in service research. Those emphasise other systems aspects, such as processes and technical resources in service systems, and thus

adopt a more dehumanized approach, whereas the systemic approach applied here stresses the humane aspects.

1.2.3 Humane Aspects and Employees' Experiences of Value Practices

First this section discusses and defines value practices and what the concept is informed by. Second it articulates the human and humane aspects of service provisions; i.e., emotion work in value practices, as the locus for the research. It discusses value promises, as well as employees' role in, and motivation to live up to promises. It also defines the meaning of value practices as applied in this study, and what value practices, as a concept, is informed by.

The discussion concludes that the affective nature of emotion work in service provision in value practices, in itself, is of a humane kind, and this needs to be considered in relation to motivation. The implications of this are elaborated upon. Further, this section argues that, in order to further the understanding of motivation, employees' experiences are the relevant unit to explore. Employees experiences are identified at three different levels: the i) organizational, ii) group and iii) individual. These constitute different "units of observation" in the analyses.

1.2.3.1 Value Practices and Service Encounters

In current service research that fouces on value creation and formation *interaction value practices* has been coined as a concept describing practices in interactive customer-suppliers interface. (Eccheverri and Skålen, 2009). Traditionally, this type of interaction, as far as it concerns face-to-face or voice-to-voice encounters, has been referred to as *service encounters*. The concept service encounter was initially coined to denote person-to-person interactions between a customer and an employee of a firm, during the consumption of a service (Bitner, 1990; Bitner et al., 1994). Later, as other types of encounters appeared (in service practices and literature), such as psychical encounters, technical encounters, and nonpersonal encounters, face-to-face service encounters has been used as the concept articulating the humane interactive aspect of encounters between employees and customers, and the emotion work occurring in those. In the current service literature, service encounters are also referred to as contact points (Heinonen and Strandvik, 2005).

At the time the concept was coined, and until the late 1990s service encounters did, as a distinct research topic, receive much attention. The concept service encounters is still used to a varying degree (see e.g., Groth and Grandey, 2012; Wieseke, Geigenmuller and Kraus, 2012; Echeverri, Salomonson and Åberg, 2012,) to describe the locus of interaction between employees and customers, but e.g., in the SDL discourse, its use is scant.[2] However, the utmost importance of service employees' behaviour in these encounters or contact points, as having an influence on customers' experiences and emotional satisfaction, was established already in the 1980s.

In this study the concept value practices is empirically as well as theoretically grounded. It refers to connected activities that embed and underpin service encounters/contacts points, as well as to customer interaction in the encounters. These

[2] According to Gummesson "Old concepts, such as service encounters, that are associated with the GD logic should be replaced by concepts that are congruent with the current value discourse (2013, comment at Naples Service Conference, Ischia).

value practices are the locus for exploring service employees' experiences. Service-related activities that occur in customer interaction in value practices can be e.g., informing, greeting, delivering, charging, and helping customers (Echeverri and Skålen, 2009).

Drawing upon a recent definition of service encounters (Giraldo and Halliday, 2012), value practices are for purposes of this study defined as: *Practices that underpin contextually embedded contact-points influenced by a multitude of marketing ideas and communication (value promises), coming from a variety of sources*. According to Giraldo and Halliday service encounters are, by their nature, dynamic, ever-changing systemic constellations of multiple elements working together to benefit someone, located in (the firm's) servicescapes, in interaction value practices, where employees and customers interact, face-to-face (or voice-to-voice) and the practices underpinning these. Drawing upon this view, and also including back-office, or other support and enabling functions, the scope that this study applies to the value practices concept is wider than what is meant by interaction value practices.

The view on value practices adopted in this study is informed by the views of:
a) The employees that participated in this study. Given the approach and perspective of the current study, it is significant to note the view on practices those living the practices have. This implies noting the scope and nature of everyday value practices as employees experienced them. Employees in case I referred to these practices as the *internal service chain*. Reflected against theoretical concepts these value practices, as employees described them, concern both *interaction value practices,* as defined by Echeverri and Skålen (2011) and the *interactive internal marketing process,* including "internal service providers and internal customers" (Grönroos, 2000: 307) that, as experienced by employees, underpin interaction value practices.
b) Humanistic management (Follet, 1924, 1926), which draws upon a practical ontology and interactionist and relational stance, and sees practices as activities based on co-active power sharing, and emphasises integration of experiences of different actors, into unity and dynamic control, which while noting the experiences of the workers includes workers in subject postions in activites, and actors and owners of the practices. This idea of integration of experiences as the foundation of practices transcends the basic, common dualism – in domination and subordinate, in current mainstream management theory. In this view the individual, also the traditional "worker" is placed in a central position, as an individual, in relation to her envirnonment, which consits of activites and relations. In this context is important to be specific about the relational aspect, and how practices are formed in relations and circular responses of activities. This view draws upon a practical ontology in which the line between object and subject becomes blurred, "while reality is in the relating, in the activity between" (Follett, 1924: 54), and the reciprocal influence off actors and activites and practices as evolving situations (ibid: 53-57).
c) Types of praxis that are associated with interactive value formation, i.e, interaction value practices, such as informing, greeting, delivering and helping, conceptualised by Echeverri and Skålen (2011). These types of interaction value practices describe well the activities that employees in the cases of the current study were occupied with on daily bases, in interaction with customers. These type of interaction value practices are dependent on internal service providers and services. In addition the current view on marketing as practices, presented by Skålen and Hackley (2011), which is informed by the views of Reckwiz's in understanding social action and order, comprising the rational individual, social norms and values and cultural aspects, describe the factors that form the underpinnings of the value practices, as seen in this study, that employees are active in.

In the view of this study the most significant of these three, as to describing the scope and nature of practices, is the first, i.e., employees' experiences of value practices, as well as the underpinning stance towards employees that humanism draws upon, i.e. that the human being strives to fulfill his/her potential. The two other inform theoretically, congruently with the views of employees, the view on value practices adopted in this study.

Thus, to be clear on the concepts, relating to employees experiences, that are used in this study the following applies: 1) *Work-life* comprises all that occurs in an individual's field of experience relating to work. 2) *Value practices*, refers to the scope of firm's internal activities that underpin service encounters. 3) The actual *interaction value practices*, *service encounters*/*contact points* (used as parallel concepts, as an aspect of value practices. Thus value practices are seen to embed service encounters. 4) *Internal service encounters* refer to explicit firm internal service that employees depend upon in affective service provision that occurs in interaction with customers.

Value promises

The term *value promise*, as an abstraction, is fairly easy to comprehend, because the meaning of value promises has been rather well articulated, conceptually, in the service literature since the 1980s, when Calonius (1988) emphasised the meaning of promises in the exchange that occurs between customers and firms.

The significance of promises in a service context was further articulated by the development of the TPF. Currently, as value has been placed at the centre of the triangle (Brodie, Glynn and Little, 2006), the three aspects are related, as instrumental to value (co-) creation/formation and fulfilment (Grönroos, 2011).

The type of promises that firms give varies. *Promises* refer to all statements about the firm's offerings (Zeithaml and Bitner, 2000). In the value discourse, these statements are referred to both as promises of value propositions (Korkman, 2006) and value propositions (e.g., Ballantyne, 2008). The service literature notes different promise types, such as service promises (Zeithaml and Bitner, 2000), and brand promises (de Chearnatony 2003; Schultz, 2004). These promises may be explicit or implicit (Zeithaml and Bitner, 2000). The interaction and emotion work that occurs in value practices is a promise in itself (ibid). Grönroos (2011: 14) articulates the meaning of promises in relation to value creation by stating that:

> 'Value propositions are suggestions and projections of what impact on their practices customers can expect. When such a projection is proposed actively to customers, it is a promise about potential future value creation'.

This study does not explore the theoretical promise construct, but rather notes it as a practical construct, informed by current literature. Pacing the current value discourse in service research, as well as the development of the TPF in a value direction, the term *value promise* is used in this study to comprehend all types of promises that theory notes and firms make in practice. The notion of promises in this study as central to motivation is empirically grounded, while service employees at the initial phase of the study turned the attention towards promises and the complications they experienced in living up to them. In particular, when others in the firm made the promises.

It is noteworthy that the current value discourse argues that, ultimately, it is not the promises that firms should strive to keep, but rather, that firms need to live up to customers' expectations of these (Grönroos, 2008), and to keep promises as 'value fulfilments' (Grönroos, 2001: 16). This implies that employees should strive to live up

to customers' expectations (about the kind of value they anticipate). Customers' expectations in turn, depend upon the promises firms communicate, but also on other factors, such as situational and psychological ones (Zeithmal and Bitner, 2009). In practice, however, research findings also show that customers may be unconscious of their needs (Martin and Morih, 2011). This in turn suggests unconsciousness of what (type of the value) customers expect, i.e., customers have vague expectations. From the employees' perspective customers that are unconscious of their own expectations and needs, might complicate employees' task of living up to expectations, irrespective of the type of promise.

In keeping promises, the supplier-customer interactions is emphasised because their existences, and the effective use of them as a means of directly influencing customers' value fulfilment, enables not just value creation but even *co*-creation of value (Grönroos, 2011: 14).

> 'However, this requires that employees who are not part of a conventional marketing function, but who interact with customers in various other functions, are prepared and willing to take up this challenge and perform as part-time marketers. Thus, from a managerial point of view, the importance of internal marketing is emphasized'.

Thus, if firms consciously strive for *co*-creation, the meaning of employees' efforts to live up to value promises, and the customers' expectations grounded in these, grows.

In the following section, the discussion articulates the humane aspect of services, i.e., *emotion work*, and relates it to the current value discourse. Employees' influence on, and experiences of emotion work are elaborated upon.

1.2.4 Value Practice and Emotion Work

Value is the current buzzword in marketing research and practice. Within service research, the exchange concept has lately, in large, been replaced by the value co-creation (Vargo and Lusch, 2004, 2013), value creation (Grönroos, 2011), and value formation (Skålen, 2009) concepts.

The SDL (service dominant logic), which currently seems to prevail in the marketing discourse in the 'world-wide marketing community as the new dominant logic for marketing' (Lusch and Vargo, 2006: 281) emphasises value co-creation. The focus goes to managerial aspects of value co-creation (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). The SDL logic emphasises customers' active roles in value co-creation, and it claims that 'customers engage in dialogue and interaction with their suppliers during product design, production, delivery and consumption' (Payne, Storbacka, Frow and Knox, 2009: 380). The SDL takes a meta perspective on service and seems to perceive the firm as one unified entity or actor, co-creating value with customers (see e.g., Vargo, Maglio and Akaka, 2008; Prahalad and Ramaswahmy, 2008). Focus is placed upon service processes and also on technology-based services that lack personal interaction between customers and firms (see e.g., Sandström, Edvardsson, Kristensson and Magnusson, 2008), where the customer's experience of the service draws upon nonpersonal interaction.

Traditional service, i.e., the emotion work and activities that employees undertake in contact points, such as helping customers, seems to attract less attention in this research stream. Moreover, it seems, based on the manner in which this resource is discussed, and what is left undiscussed, that 'it' (the resource) is treated as an operand

one. 'It' (the resource) is without a subject position; hence, it is given scant attention. It seems that the current SDL discourse more or less ignores the employee as a human being, in particular the employee doing traditional service work. Further, employees and their role in value practices seem to be somewhat contradictorily approached. By suggesting that customers can integrate (Vargo and Lusch, 2004) this resource, the discourse marginalises the impact of individual employees' activities by ignoring the influence of these activities. In so doing, the approach towards employees is somewhat objectifying.[3]

The proper unit of analysis within SDL research is, as suggested by Vargo, Maglio, and Akaka (2008: 145), 'the service system, which is a configuration of resources, including people, information, and technology'. This presumption can explain the lack of specific interest for micro-unit aspects, such as employees and their experiences.

A somewhat different stance to value and the meaning of employees in the 'value work' is taken within the Nordic School approach, which explicitly emphasises service employees as facilitators in customers' value creation. It sees service as a mediating factor in the value-creation process, where supplier–customer interactions are, including such that occurs between humans, in a focal position (Grönroos, 2011). According to the value-creation view, customers use service activities, among other kinds of resources, in on-going relationships (ibid), as facilitating value creation, but it is the customer who creates the value. Skålen (2009) suggests yet another approach, i.e., value formation, which takes a critical distance to the idea of co-creation (that sees value co-created through a conscious and explicit process). According to this view it has also been noted that value destruction may occur in practice. This implies that something negative in relation to value creation occurs in the interaction.

Thus, according to the SL, the customer creates value in the interaction between the firm and the customer, and the firm facilitates this value creation. Lindberg-Repo defines *value creation* (2001) as a 'function of interactions between parties, occurring in a process over time according to the relationship process'. According to Grönroos (2000), the existence of services and products as solutions to customers' problems is the basic driver of value creation. From the customers perspective, a relationship with a firm may contribute to his/her value creation, as Grönroos (2007: 154) claims:

> 'In relationship marketing the solution is the relationship itself and how it functions and leads to value creation and need satisfaction for the customer'.

From the customer's perspective, this relationship may exist with the firm as a collective (as a bundle of resources), including the human ones. The interactions (reciprocal actions) still consist also of human service activities, in which employees often (still) do have a substantial role in regards of customers' experiences, at best as facilitators of customers' value creation/formation. In comparison, it seems as if more attention to traditional emotion work embedded in value practices is given within the SL stream. In the current value discourse, this specific *how* aspect of service provision that comprises employees' emotions work, and factors related to that, is covered by discussions on the manner in which firms facilitate and support customers to integrate resources in their value (co-) creation process (Grönroos, 2011).

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3 E.g. the idea to integrate employees as an operant resource is conceptual. How this would occur, and what being integrated means from the employees' perspective remains un-discussed. According to the tone of the value discussion, it could however be taken to mean that customers "use' service employees (consciously?) in their (conscious?) value co-creation, and somehow integrate these people/ their activities, as objects (?), or active subjects (?) in their value processes? How employees experience being used is not discussed.

The IM discourse – as a subfield to service research, which is emphasised in particular by some advocates for the Nordic School approach and the SL discourse (Grönroos, 2011) – notes service employees as brand ambassadors (Mahnert and Torres, 2007) who deliver brand values to customers (Punjaisri and Wilson, 2007) and are supporters, advocates, and customer service providers (Schultz, 2004) who should fulfil the explicit and implicit promises inherent in the brand (King and Grace, 2008). In this context, employees are attributed a substantial role in the 'value work'.

Some researchers have conceptualised marketing as a management discipline (Skålen, Felleson and Fougere, 2006). In so doing, they claim that service research places an emphasis on understanding which types of government and management of organisations and their members the marketing discipline envisions. They argue that the discourse assumes the subjectification of employees towards what is prescribed by management, such as customer focus.

The IM discourse is analysed in regard to its stance towards employee motivation in chapter 3.

Emotion work

The work that service employees undertake in customer interaction has, by tradition within the service literature, been labelled emotion work (Zapf, 2002), i.e., the affective delivery (of service) and people work, (i.e., service jobs) (Brotherridge and Grandey, 2002), and it refers to the affective tone of service (Mattila, Grandey and Fisk, 2003). The discussion in this section elaborates upon the nature of emotion work and the impact this has on employees' experiences. It notes factors that may influence employees' motivation to act upon marketing ideas and to live up to value promises in value practices.

Emotion work refers to the way service employees serve, treat, and interact with customers, and it determines, to a varying degree, customers' experiences (Grandey and Groth, 2012) of service encounters as well as service relationships (Hennig-Thurau, Groth, Paul and Gremler, 2006) and the brand of the firm (de Cherantony, 2003). For the customer, the service employees represent the firm (Ind, 2003), and thus the service employees are, in the view of customers, equal to the service and are the firms' 'brand ambassadors' (Schultz, 2004; Zeithaml and Bitner, 2008).

Emotion work has by definition certain inherent humane aspects embedded. Recognizing these aspects, such as emotional demands placed on employees undertaking affective service delivery, which influences the affective tone of service provision (Mattila, Grandey and Fisk, 2003), advances the understanding of the setting in which motivation is explored in this study. Emotional demands placed upon employees are e.g., expressing positive emotions in interactions in employee–customer interface (Grandey, 2003). This means 'the display of expected emotions by service agents during service encounters' (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993:88), while interacting, human-to-human, face-to-face, or voice-to-voice with customers in the service encounters embedded in value practice (or/and support those that do). In the service quality discourse this humane aspect of service is traditionally referred to as the functional quality (Grönroos, 1994), i.e., how service is delivered. Current research findings show that this 'how' aspect of service provision does have a reciprocal influence on those involved, employees as well as customers (Grandey and Groth, 2012; Stein, 2007).

One service attribute that customers appreciate in functional, affective service provision is empathy (Zeithmal and Bitner, 2000). Empathy, according to a humanistic view, is about the 'projection of one's consciousness into that of another' (Assagioli, 1974: 88), which 'demands an attitude of impersonality and self-forgetfullness' (ibid: 89), and an ability to be in the other's experiences. This implies that employees need the ability to express empathy and thereby rapport towards and with customers (Gremler and Gwinner, 2000). For instance, employee and customer empathy, seen as a multidimensional reciprocal construct, has shown to have an influence on customer satisfaction and loyalty (Wieseke, Geigenmuller and Kraus, 2012). Expressing empathy and rapport can be extremely demanding in e.g., 'negative exchange spirals' (Grandey and Groth, 2012:208), where customers infuse negative energies in the encounter (Stein, 2007). Such negative spirals do have an influence on employees' experiences (Grandey and Groth, 2012).

Thus, the human and humane aspects of emotion work in service provision embedded in value practices are in this study taken to refer to employees' activities of helping, assisting, caring for, and, in general, serving customers. These activities are assumed to be dependent on attributes noted in previous service research, such as empathy, responsiveness, helpfulness, etc., (Zeithmal and Bitner, 2000). Such emotion work is by definition demanding, and it does, if seen from a humanistic perspective, inevitably have an inherent influence on motivation.

A discussion that focuses on factors having an influence on employees' motivation, as experienced by them, to participate in such customer value-facilitating activities, as part-time marketers, is by and large lacking in the current value discourse. However, despite the apparent decrease of research attention on affective 'how' aspects of service activities in the bulk of current service research, it seems to have a substantial impact on customers' value formation in practice.[4]

Thus, in the value discourse in general, the stream that notes the importance of employee motivation as instrumental to value fulfilment is the SL discourse. In service research in general, people are considered a prominent key to success in service (Grönroos, 2000; Schneider and Bowne, 1995), and thus 'an understanding for co-creation of value by and for people' is required (Schneider and Bowne, 2010: 31). Because 'services are frequently delivered by people to people and the people who deliver them work with and for other people; people are a big part of consumer service delivery' (ibid: 32). Therefore, 'there is a need to understand the social psychology of consumer service delivery contexts' (ibid: 32).

Moreover, when placing employee motivation and employees' experiences in focus, as is done in this study, and in looking at these from a humanistic and systemic perspective, these value-practice experiences become of interest. Exploring employees' experiences from this angle is argued to be relevant because: a) this is how a genuine understanding of employee motivation can be advanced, and b) employees' experiences do affect customers. This is discussed in more detail in the following section.

1.2.4.1 Employee Motivation and Experiences in Value Practices

Seeing value practice as constellations reveals their complexity. Service encounters are, according to current research findings, a high stressor risk for employees (Stein, 2007),

[4] The missing human factor seems in practice to discontent customers to a growing extent. This notion is based on customer complaints (case I) a explored during teh research, and the employees' stories.

and they influence employees' well-being (Grandey and Groth, 2012). For instance, customer misbehaviour (Echeverri, Salomonson and Åberg, 2012) may function as a stressor for service employees. Such stressors may be experienced as demotivating.

These experiences do according to current research have reciprocal effects on those involved. They have impact both on employees' work-life experiences and on customers' service experiences. Ultimately, the experiences become intertwined with reciprocal effects; e.g., internal relationship energies have been shown to affect customer interaction and influence the occurrences in the customer relationship (Voima, 2001), and vice versa (Stein, 2007), and thus these have reciprocal spill-over effects. For example, emotional toxicity (initiated by customers) in service encounters has influence on the quality of employees' work-life experiences (ibid). These experiences in turn have shown to impinge on an employee's motivation.

Employees' energies, i.e., emotional arousal (e.g., feeling of excitement), cognitive alertness (e.g., desire to focus attention), and purposeful behaviour (e.g., investment of physical resources) have an influence, individually and collectively, on performance as to creativity and effectiveness (Cole, Bruch and Vogel, 2012). Moreover, employees' affective negative experiences have shown to be harmful on performance, and they may contribute to the explanation of job attitudes, such as cynicism, which may even result in judgment-driven behaviours, such as decisions to leave an organisation (Cole, Bruch and Vogel, 2006: 463). Creativity in turn stands in close relationship to motivation (Brown and Ryan, 2004). Thus, energies that circulate in value practice (be they negative or positive) do have an influence on employees' experiences and thus also on employees' motivation.

This study identifies all kinds of issues that employees experience as having an influence on their motivation, in particular experiences in value practices (as defined previously). Thus, customer issues such as bad/good behaviour, as well as firm internal systemic issues such as positive/negative energies, or whatever issues employees do experience, are identified. Departing from value practices as the locus, the employee's "experience field" explored stretches both 'outwards and inwards'.

For example, if a firm promises a wonderful atmosphere during a cruise, which is a promise with an explicit affective tone, the employee's experiences of being motivated to live up to this kind of promise is explored in relation to issues that employees' experience as impacting work-life in general and value practices in particular. Taken to practice, creating a wonderful atmosphere is what the employee, according to promise, 'should' be motivated to live up to. This implies that based on some underpinning marketing idea, management orders 'creator of a wonderful atmosphere' subjectivity towards the employee. Of interest here is to indentify issues that employees' experience (in relation to this type of ordered subjectivity expressed in this promise) to impact their motivation to engage in 'creating a wonderful atmosphere'?

If a firm promises to be the 'first choice of partner in material services integration', management orders 'material service integration' subjectivity towards the employees. Employees are expected to live up to this subjectivity (that has been ordered by management). In this case, the employee's experience in value practices, in relation to the promise, is the locus for exploring employees' motivation to live up to this ordered subjectivity. Several kinds of issues that employees experience may have an influence on motivation, and these are identified. These factors may be located/appear in any direction from the locus. Thus, issues that have an influence on motivation, located anywhere in the employee's experience field are identified.

To give a few examples, factors may be located or may appear in customer interaction, in employee–employee interaction, in employee–management interaction, i.e., anywhere in the employees' experience field related to value practice and work-life. If the employee, e.g., is faced with a customer who is in a bad mood, he/she is still 'expected' to support the customer to experience of a wonderful atmosphere. In practice, many factors may impact an employees' motivation for such facilitation. If the employee has faced negative 'internal issues' with colleagues or superiors prior to the customer contact-points, these may impinge on the employee's motivation. If the employee is unaware of the promise, this may impinge on motivation. The issues may be located within the individual, be intrinsic, and, e.g., of a transpersonal nature, taking the expression of an authentic need to serve others. The issues may also relate to the actual value promise, e.g., if it is experienced as impossible to live up to. Moreover, the fact that firms promise different, even contradictory things simultaneously may impinge on employees' motivation.

According to the service literature, employees' emotion work in service provision (as instrumental to customers' value fulfilment) is claimed to depend on the employees' motivation, willingness to serve (Grönroos, 2003), and people skills (Schneider and Bowen, 1995, 2010). Currently, customers seem to a growing extent be appreciative of service attributed to 'traditional' affective service aspects, such as reliability, assurance, empathy, and responsiveness that employees show in service encounters (Zeithaml and Bitner: 2009). To do affective, or emotion work of the kind that results in atmospheres of reliability, assurance or empathy is in practice not always uncomplicated, and many issues may influence the motivation to do so. For example, motivation for self-forgetfulness that underpins empathy seems unlikely to be achieved by e.g., imposed financial goals. Such motivation seems to be contextual, relational, individual, and experience based. As expressed by an employee in case I:

> 'To serve customers is inspiring, but this cost-cutting and constant talks of costs . . . you can imagine how up-lifting it is when you come to work and are told that you are an item of expenditure'.

And by another:

> 'It is all about energies. When negative energies are on the loose it has a negative effect on us . . . and customers can sense that too'. (Employee, Case I)

Clearly, motivation to express positive emotions in service encounters in such circumstances may vary among individuals. But, as the experiences above imply, it is likely that motivation to 'create a wonderful atmosphere' in case energies are experienced as negative, is impinged.

To conclude, employee motivation is, according to some streams of current service research, of substantial (instrumental) importance for customers' value fulfilment. Value practices are complicated, and they embed possible stressor risks for employees. Occurrences in value practices consist of encounters with customers and other actors and events. Energies, positive and negative, which may impinge employees' motivation, are formed in value practices. A manifold of issues interact in value practices, and they underpin positive and/or negative experiences that ultimately do influence on motivation. Given the importance of employee motivation in service provision, and considering that motivation is experience based, the need for an employee discourse on motivation in a service context is apparent.

1.3 The Need for an Employee Discourse on Motivation in Service Research

Within marketing and service research, employee motivation has traditionally been discussed within internal marketing. IM can be understood to be a subtopic to strategic management and service leadership (Grönroos, 1989, 2000). It has been defined as a strategic issue and a management philosophy (ibid, 1989).

How motivation is approached in different subfields to service research vary, and the borders between the different fields seem somewhat blurred on this issue. Within the current value discussion the SL explicitly stresses the importance of employee motivation and internal marketing, and motivation as an aspect of it. These have been established as one of the fundaments for value creation (Grönroos, 2012); however, doing so by approaching the issue mainly from a managerial perspective.

This is unfortunate, not only for the employees, but also from a managerial perspective, as it complicates promise management, which depends on the alignment of the aspect of the TPF. While employees are "silenced" and their experiences are more or less ignored, enabling as such has remained underdeveloped. Hence, the alignment of the TPF aspects is challenging in practice.

Also the SDL does, despite its meta and macro-level focus and general ignorance of employee issues, note that employees should be treated as 'value network partners' (Lush, Vargo and O'Brien, 2007: 15). What this implies is not discussed. Whether co-creation is influenced by employees' experiences in/of face-to-face service encounters is not discussed. Nor is IM as a separate topic included in its research agenda.

Within the Nordic School the substantial importance of the employees was early conveyed by Grönroos (1989: 10) who claimed that:

> "Management should create, and continuously encourage and enhance an understanding of and an appreciation for the roles of the employees in the organization".

Clearly employee motivation is one aspect of such understanding.

1.3.1 Motivation within the IM Discourse

Within IM, employee motivation is seen as instrumental for customer satisfaction and service quality (Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithaml, 1991; Ahmed and Rafiq, 2000; Bansal, Mendelson and Sharma, 2001). This is premised by the employees' ability to live up to customers expectations (King and Grace, 2007; Machtiger, 2004), in relation to what firms promise (Schultz, 2004), and how this turns out in practice is, in the ultimate, dependent on IM (Grönroos, 2000).

The IM discourse is, however, mainly conceptual (Wieseke, Ahearne, Lam, and van Dick, 2009), and it is approached from a managerial perspective. Managerial, "marketing-like programs" (Ahmed and Rafiq, 2000: 455) and leadership styles (Wieseke et al., 2009) are suggested to advance employee motivation (as instrumental to customer orientation, service quality, customer satisfaction, and organisational identity). How employees become motivated based on their subjective experiences is scarcely discussed. Deviating from this, Ballantyne notes quality, value searching, rewards, and personal growth as employee motivators (1991: 13–17). This, in particular the latter, indicates a notion of employees' experiences from a subject position.

Lately however, despite the notion of its importance, IM has not received much research attention. Moreover, discussions within IM seem not only to ignore employees' experiences from a first-order position, but also fail to recognize these as relevant units of observation in research. Employees are in general referred to as a more or less passive homogenous group, and as objects. The tone of the discussion in the literature implies that employees would be an 'operand[5] human resource' upon which IM is conducted with a marketing-like approach, by applying an internal marketing mix (Ahmed and Rafiq, 2000), or communication and attitude management (Grönroos, 2000: 330–553). These management activities are operationalised as IM programmes, which are intended to ensure employee motivation. In general, it has been claimed that IM remains on a rather mechanistic level (Ahmed and Rafiq, 2003). Thus, it seems that IM literature by and large treats motivation in passing and sees it as one factor amongst others, which determine productivity, and that management can control, (Ahmed and Rafiq, 2000). Deviating from this (prevailing view), a few researchers within IM place employees in subject positions, as operant in service provision (King and Grace, 2008; Punjaisri and Wilson, 2007; Ballantyne, 2004).

Furthermore, claims are currently made that marketing research in general lacks a critical empirical research program (Skålen 2009; Skålen, 2007 (quoted in Bradshaw and Fuat, 2007); Brownlie and Hewer 2007; Burton 2001) and thus also lacks the adoption of critical perspectives aiming to question the prevailing managerial hegemony in service research (Ek, 2001; Learnmoth, 2003; Skålen, 2004; Ek et al., 2005; Skålen et al., 2009; Grey, 2003; Saren et al., 2007: xviii).

Further, whether managerial models that service research constructs are applicable to practice has been challenged by Skålen (2009). He explored how, and to what extent service-marketing practices, as prescribed in the service-management discourse, contribute towards turning employees, especially frontline employees, into customer-oriented subjects. He found that the idea that 'marketing research is able, and meant, to formulate general managerial practices, which organisations should strive to mirror' (ibid: 795), is unachievable because employees do not always adopt imposed ideas. This implies, among other things, that current managerial presumptions prescribed by the service discourse on employee motivation may be insufficient in practice.

To conclude, it is argued that service research and IM lack a discourse that brings forth the experiences, and thus the needs, of the employees. It is argued that one is needed, given the impact of the reciprocity of interactions in value practices; i.e., that the occurrences in these have an influence both on customer satisfaction and value fulfilment as well as on employees' experiences as to satisfaction, well-being, and, ultimately, on motivation. Considering that service literature sees employee motivation as instrumental to customers value fulfilment, and claims that 'the differences between service businesses often lie in the quality of the employees serving the customers' (Lovelock and Wright; 2002: 11), the current scant interest in employees' experiences in value practices is surprising. Therefore, to focus on employees' experiences, and based on these bring forth an employee discourse in service research, would undoubtedly advance a genuine understanding of what motivates employees to live up to value promises.

[5] The entity on which an operation is to be done (Oxford Dictionary).

1.3.2 Criticality and an Alternative Discourse

To alter the perspective and place employees in their rightful position, given their substantial importance as instrumental for customers' value fulfilment, seems relevant in regards of all the three TPF aspects, as these should be aligned (Zeithmal, Bitner, and Gremler, 2006: 354):

> "All three sides of the triangle are essential to complete the whole, and the sides of the triangle should be aligned. That is, what is promised through external marketing should be delivered; and the enabling activities inside the organization should be aligned with what is expected of service providers".

Departing from a humanistic stance alters the view on motivation in itself. Humanistic psychology sees motivation as contextual, as it places conscious human experience at the core: 'Human beings are not just objects, but they are also subjects. As conscious beings, they have a rich subjective inner experience, composed of more that thoughts' (Warmoth, Reslick and Serlin, 2002). Current research on motivation within positive psychology also shows that fostering autonomous functioning enhances the quality of action, whether people are motivated intrinsically or extrinsically (Brown and Ryan, 2004: 119, in Linley and Joseph, edit.). This implies that motivation, to a varying degree, is experienced based and dependent on psychological autonomy seeking intrinsic processes, regardless of context.

Considering this implies that factors that employees experience as having an influence on motivation specifically in emotion work may differ substantially from those of management. Underlying motives vary between individuals. This means that motivation as a phenomenon cannot be approach as a unitary one, as 'individuals vary not only in how much motivation they possess but also in the orientation or type of motivation that energizes to behaviour' (Brown and Ryan, 2004: 105, in Jospeh and Lineley, edit.). Further, current studies have shown differences in management and employee motivation. Moreover, current research on motivation shows evidence that, in practice, there are wide discrepancies between what managers believe motivates employees and what employees themselves report as motivators (Richmond and Schepman, 2005). This further supports the claim made here, i.e., to genuinely understand what motivates employees requires an employee discourse on motivation.

Discourse, as multiple, heterogeneous forms of verbal utterances and semiosis, is what produces aggregatively a particular version of social reality; i.e., what constitutes our social world, (Chia, 2000; Chiapello and Fairclough, 2002). By taking employees' experiences in value practice as the locus, this thesis attempts to grasp the employees' version of reality, in particular, their view on what they find motivating for living up to value promises. An employee discourse on motivation is, based on employees' experiences from a first-order position, described in the HSL and its PI-model. In so doing, with an infusion 'from within', from those living the value practices, this study challenges the managerial hegemony in service research.

1.3.2.1 Critical Marketing Research and an Employee Discourse

There is a significant and growing stream of research and publications in the field of management and organisational research that takes an overtly critical stance to

mainstream management.[6] However, critical research in marketing has lagged behind other academic management discipline in volume and visibility (Saren et al., 2007: xviii). Academic research should be critical per see, which makes the definition of *criticality* somewhat complicated. Within marketing, there is a growing number of researchers that emphasise the criticality of their research, among others Skålen (2006, 2009), Belk, (1995; critical consumer research) and critical management (see e.g., Alvesson and Willmont, 1992).

Criticality in research is used:

> 'To sign that the authors subscribe to one of a number of radical philosophies and theories that seek to make explicit certain ideologies and assumptions underlying the production of knowledge, the management process itself, and the wider context of social-economic relations within which these activities occur' (Saren et al., 2007: xviii).

The aim is to expose underpinning ideologies and assumptions that reveal power relations and contested interests that are embedded in knowledge production. Different schools of criticality co-exist, and between these different critical schools, such as feminist theory, postmodernism, poststructuralist, psycholinguistics, deconstruction, and radical ecology, there is no consensus in the definition of *critical*, as a grand narrative. For example, feminists would denounce many of the other perspective because of their inherently phallocentric bias. Some schools embrace emancipatory objectives, whereas others do not. (Ibid)

Thus, the emerging and growing numbers of critical streams in marketing research adopt somewhat different stances and objectives in their criticality, but they still share a critical approach to contemporary mainstream marketing and often the managerial hegemony in these. They define *criticality* differently. Some scholars see it as politically flavoured, being:

> A small Marxist sociological orientation, in which the point of research is to confound the wishes of elites that the source of their hegemony be kept unexamined (Deighton, quoted in: Saren et al 2007: 8)

Others take a more 'neutral' stance and claim that:

> Critical research looks at individuals or groups in social context and is concerned with the ways that the social context valourizes practice assumptions, interpretations of reality, etc. over others, often in ways that protect vested power interests. It doesn't have to advocate an alternative set of assumptions or practices, though some critical research does. Critical research need not be, but may be, qualitative.' (Eileen Fisher, quoted in Saren et al., 2007: 10)

This research did not initially set out to be critical per definition. It may, however, be interpreted and claimed to be so, as it strives to advocate an alternative discourse. That is, by identifying employees' experiences in value practice, and based on this describes an employee discourse on motivation. As reality construction occurs in a context and in relation to something, management's (in the case firms) views on employee motivation are also analysed. These and the discourse analyses on IM provide referent points towards which the employee discourse can be understood. Thus the HSL, and its PI model, does by advocating an employee discourse, question prevailing managerial assumptions. It thereby fills a void in current service research by valorising other than managerial interests. It does so also by revealing organisational power relations.

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[6] It is a common belief that mainstream management is biased in favour of societal elites, and thus serves to exploit, subjugate, and managerialise labour and ethnic minorities, and that it is destructive to the natural environment.

In addition, incorporating humanistic management and co-workership as theoretical informants, in dialogue with the empirical material, does advocate a somewhat critical stance towards the prevailing managerial stance of the current service and IM discourse.

Thereby, the study does fill the criteria of being critical,[7] and it suggests reframing the current underpinnings of value practices (as envisioned by mainstream service research), if indeed 'motivated employees' are considered significant in these. Further, a humanistic stance is, per definition, critical to the mainstream managerial views on employees.

In service research, critical voices that question the relevance of the managerial approach in studying services argue that managerial assumptions are taken for granted. This not only reinforces the managerial elitists order in management practices but also reinforces the traditional managerial mode in research (Learnmoth, 2003). Currently, it is claimed that marketing research needs to reorient towards studying marketing as practice (Skålen, 2009), and that it needs to strengthen its' critical stance (Ek, 2005; Skålen, 2009) in order to see organisations from other-than-managerial perspectives.

Further, within IM and internal branding (as an aspect of IM), it is claimed that there is a need to understand employees because currently 'the existing insights have generally stemmed from research with management, brand practitioners' and even customers perspectives' (Punjaisri and Wilson, 2007: 59). Thus, studying what motivates employees as done in this study is argued to be critical, and it fills an evident research gap in current service research.

1.4 The Purpose of the Study and the Research Questions

The overall aim of this study is to contribute to service research and in particular to internal marketing, by describing an employee discourse on service contextual motivation. It does so by altering the perspective from a managerial to an employee one and by approaching value practices from the employees' angle. It strives to advance the understanding of employee motivation by identifying, describing and analysing motivating and demotivating issues that employees experience in value practices. The main purpose of the thesis is:

To create an initial, empirically grounded framework on employee motivation that reflects the employees' experiences in real-life settings, and in so doing, to describe an employee discourse on motivation.

The employee discourse covers demotivating and motivating empirically identified factors and is informed by relevant theoretical informants. The employee discourse on motivation is summarised in the eclectic and suggestive Human Service Logic framework and its PI model.

Employees' experiences are captured during the empirical process as uttered by them, and expressed in their semiosis in relation to the themes customer service, value promises, and motivation, taking value practices as the locus. This ensures an empirically grounded framework that reflects the employees' discourse authentically.

[7] This is so despite that critical research commonly, according to Saren *et al*, (2007), does not take a constructivist approach, which is the case in this study.

The employee discourse on motivation widens the social and cultural fields of consciousness within the service-management research by infusing previously not included experiences from a first-order position by those employees living (in) these practices. This, i.e., the initiation of an employee discourse, is the main contribution of the study.

Employees' experiences are captured by identifying issues that they experience as critical and as having an influence on their motivation, framed by the above-mentioned themes in relation to:

a. The content; marketing ideas (concepts, etc. expressed as value promises).
b. The process; management and internal marketing.
c. The context; systemic workings of the firm with a focus on firm internal social and psychological factors and customer-interaction factors.

The subpurpose of the thesis is to define *service-contextual motivation* in a manner that reflects the employee discourse.

1.4.1 Research Questions and the Process of Answering Them

The main research question is posed as: what needs to occur, (to come about), in the view of the service employees, in order for themselves to be motivated to live up to value promises?

Answering the main research question fulfils the aim of the study. The analyses are structured around the following five questions:

1) Why does (internal) implementation of marketing ideas fail, and what barriers for implementing marketing ideas can service employees and managers identify?

2) Which barriers for living up to value promises in value practices do service employees' experience?

3) What demotivates/motivates service employees to live up to value promises?

4) What is indvidual, service contextual motivation?

5) What fosters service-contextual motivation?

Answering the first question was initiated by i) interviewing service employees in Case I about their experiences off 'quality killers' in customer contact-points, embedded in value practices (including internal service). ii) Interviewing management for purposes of a) identifying challenges management perceived, as to implementing marketing ideas, and exploring the managerial discourse on employees. Thereby the stance by which management relate to employees was identified. The managerial stance embeds employees' experiences in practice, and was therefore considered relevant to explore in this context. It provided a relevant reference point to refelct employees' experiences towards.

This initial phase of the study was mainly about finding out 'what seems to be the problem' as to challenges related to implementing or enacting marketing ideas and service delivery in the view of service employees as well as management. This issue was initially approached somewhat inductively with informal discussions, elaborating upon how 'things work around here' on the topics (mentioned above) aiming at raising consciousness (about motivation) and bringing experiences to a conscious level by making them visible. Both case firms' current marketing ideas (strategies, programs, concepts articulated as value promises) and the enacting of these as well as the problems related to that (as seen from the two angles: employees' and management's) framed the discussions. By answering these questions, the initial research 'working hypotheses' (tentative ideas to advance from) were defined (presented in Chapter 3), and the co-mode to the TPF aspects was suggested. This provided with intial answeres to research question 1. Following the intial phases in both cases, the actual action research phases were conducted: In case firm I the action process was called 'unifying our service', and in case firm II 'customer care'.

Four generative questions emerged during the research processes. Such questions stimulate the line of investigation in productive directions, which lead to working hypotheses, useful questions, and the collection of certain kinds of data (Strauss, 1989: 17, 22). The generative questions that emerged during the research process are: 1) Why do they make promises we cannot keep? 2) What is all this fuss about? And, 3) Why are we not included? 4) What motivates employees? These questions represent the employees concerns in value practices and challenges the experienced in relation to living up to value promises.

1.5 The HSL Framework, Its PI Model and their Contribution

The developed HSL framework, and its PI model, is grounded in the empirical material and draws upon three groups of theoretical fields as to its abductive grounding: 1) Service research and the TPF, as the point of the departure for the exploration. 2) Humanistic management, co-workership and work-life research and constellations theory, which draws upon systemic thinking, as theoretical informants in the abduction. 3) Applied modern psychology (third- and fourth-force psychologies), i.e., humanistic psychology and positive psychology and POB, and motivation science, as theoretical informants in the abduction.

Throughout the analyses process, beginning its intial phase, the empirical fieldwork and the material that emerged out of it, and the theoretical informants have been "interacting". The human service logic and its PI model emerged throughout the different phases of analyses, and is suggested as an alternative, and parallel logic to the current prevailing managerial logics in service research.

In this study, the TPF model is adapted by placing the service employees at the centre, with their experiences in focus. The aspects of the TPF provide a structure for framing the study's units of observation, as follows: i) the content, which consists of marketing ideas as the foundation for giving promises; ii) the process for enabling and managing the promises; and iii) living up to promises in face-to-face service encounters/value practice, explored here as to social and psychological factors.

The Humas Service Logic, and its PI model, suggest a reordering, -directing and -framing of the triadic TPF, by incorporating the employee angle. The HSL suggests six central pinciples and adopts an inclusive stance which reframes promise management,

currently governed mainly by managerial control, norms, and procedures, towards a dynamic promise-living and co-active enabling perspective. The suggested PI-model takes the shape of a pentagonal constellation. It suggests a co-active mode of managing value practices and a systemic consciousness of value promises amongst organisational members.

By taking a practical, humanistic, and systemic view on employees' motivation, the conceptual development is empirically grounded, which widens its scope, opens up new research avenues, and advances its applicability. Further, the suggested framework not only redirects the TPF but also brings together several theories, which have not been previously jointly connected to service research. This advances a more holistic understanding of service employees' motivation.

1.6 Introducing the Cases

The inspiration behind the research and a brief introduction of the case firms and their value promises are provided here. In order to retain anonymity, the names of the firms and the participants in the process are not mentioned.

Inspiration for the research

Approximately ten years prior to this research set of, I was employed by case firm I. I worked at different tasks; in human resources (HR) (recruitment) and internal marketing, sales, customer complaints, and marketing. This experience provided me with a wide and thorough preunderstanding of work-life practices in the firm. I gained insights into employees' everyday practices, customer issues, and managerial concerns. I had the opportunity to 'move around' in the firm, and I also spent much time on the ferries, with the service employees and the managers. Altogether, this gave me a possibility to see different internal challenges of the firm, such as (social and psychological) entanglements that tended to 'mess up' practices, from different perspectives.

During this period I noticed 'issues' here and there, such as communication problems (which I got to explore in my master's thesis). Later, as I participated in different projects in the firm as a trainer/consultant, my hunger for 'going to the bottom' with these issues grew. I saw when things 'did not click'; customers complaining; employees and managers complaining and blaming, pointing fingers at each other; labour unions and employer's organisations in conflict, etc. I also saw when things clicked; satisfied customers, content and inspired employees, and pleased management and stakeholders. This time provided me with valuable understanding of the existence of (messy) issues and challenges inside the firm. It also provided med with understanding of the importance of positive issues; the flow in customer work when things went smoothly and employees were motivated. Above all, the time inspired me to do this research and hopefully gain deeper understanding of employee motivation. It also provided me with access to a real-life case to be explored.

Prior to, and with some overlapping, the empirical process in Case II, I worked as a trainer and coach with the firm in a human resource development (HRD) project. The project focused on strengthening employees' work-life competences, well-being, and communication skills. Altogether some 90 employees from different positions and functions in the firm participated in four separate four-day workshops, during a period of two years. This provided me with a thorough preunderstanding of case firm II and the issue explored in the current study in this particular case.

Case firm I is in the shipping and hospitality industry, offering transportation and cruises and entertainment and experiences, both in b-to-c and b-to-b. The firm employs around 2000 persons. Currently the firm is 'a leading provider of high-quality mini-cruises and passenger transport services in the Baltic Sea region, as well as a leading provider of ro-ro cargo services on selected routes'. The firm's current prime promise to its customer is: 'the Baltic within your reach'. At the time of the empirical study, the firm promised, amongst other things, 'the best service on the Baltic'; that 'our employees create a congenial atmosphere during the cruises'; and that 'we are more'.

Thus, at that time the promises were high on experience aspects and affective to their tone. In comparison, current promises focus more on basic transportation and cruises and the kind of value this offers to customer, e.g., 'the Baltic within your reach'. At the time of the research, the firm's brand equity rated high in Finland. This study was conducted mainly onboard one of the vessels sailing under the Swedish flag, on the Helsingfors–Stockholm route. A pilot study was conducted on the Åbo–Stockholm route.

Case firm II offers comprehensive material services in nine countries for contractors, industry, public organisations, and technical retailers. It is a family-owned company that has operated in the industry since 1913. It has 2,800 employees in its' Finnish, Swedish, Norwegian, Polish, Russian, and Baltic operations. The net sales for 2012 totalled EUR 1.6 billion. Currently, the firm promises to be the 'First choice in material and information flow solutions for our customers'; to provide the 'Best customer service in our industry'; and 'To support our customers' competitiveness by organising efficient material and information flows'. The firm's core values make up the backbone of 'how they operate'. The firm claims that its values 'give direction to the way they behave, and apply to each and every employee as well as to customers, suppliers, and other partners. Their values are: Responsibility, working together, continuous improvement, entrepreneurship.[8]

At the time of the empirical process of the current study, the promises developed from 'first choice' to 'first choice of material service integration'. In regards to the management, the firm's official material states that the 'board of directors is responsible for supervising the management and the proper organisation of the operations of the company. The duty of the board is to promote the interests of the company and of its shareholders'. About its' employees, it says that they work as directed by the firm's values. The firm's business structure is based on geographical areas and on group functions (ibid).

At the time of the study, both case firms were redirecting their business logics towards relationship marketing, service management, and 'customer value consciousness' (case II). Case I focused on developing its loyalty program. Case firm II strived to redirect the logic from product orientation towards service orientation, emphasising the value aspect (at a strategic level). The firm promised to be the 'first choice of partner in material services integration' (advertisement, 2004). In early 2000, both firms participated in the Cers Award[9] process, and based on the jury's evolutions the firms had made progress on these relationship marketing and management aspects.

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[8] Quoted from the firm's website and other official material.

[9] The CERS Award for Excellence in Relationship Marketing and Management was established in 1999 in order to raise the awareness of relationship marketing and management issues in Finland. The CERS Award is given yearly to a company/companies who have succeeded in a remarkable way in these. The CERS Award focuses on finding best practices of relationship management in Finnish companies.

The duration of the empirical case processes was between 1999 and 2008, and the two cases overlap. This gave me the possibility to scrutinize the phenomenon simultaneously in different settings. Further, I have been able to return to the case firms afterwards, to discuss the findings with key actors in both cases. As late as 2012–2013, discussions have occurred, and the final case assessments have been made.

1.6.1 Guidelines for the Reader

To facilitate the reading of this written thesis, some guidelines are useful. Although the written thesis follows a certain structure in writing, it is central to emphasise that the different phases of this longitudinal process that have contributed to constructing the HSL, and its PI model, have not followed a traditional linear research process. The process is best described as a horizontal and vertical learning spiral, with movement in all directions.

Embedded in the humanistic approach is the systemic outlook, which implies a need to recognize the systemic relations between all identified issues. This means that all motivating/demotivating issues that were identified during the process have been considered in relation to each other, even those that at first sight and rationally thought of appeared unrelated. But as the systemic constellation analyses in chapter 3 depicts, all 'major' as well as 'minor' categorised demotivating and motivating factors interact, and they have, throughout the study, been analysed systemically, even if seemingly done so only at the end of the process. It is also important to note that what in this thesis might appear as a minor factor may, with closer inspection, show to be influential. To closely scrutinize the magnitude of the factors and the relation between all factors, however, would be beyond the scope of this study. In this thesis, the factors have been 'brought' into the field of consciousness to be further explored in forthcoming studies.

The writing process summarises the research, including the empirical fieldwork, which was initiated in 2000. This is also when the first analyses were initiated. Further, it needs to be mentioned that preliminary writing has taken place throughout the process, as part of the analyses work. The writing of the final written thesis was initiated in the spring of 2012. Many versions have preceded this final one. The process initially came to a 'closure' around 2005, but it was 'reopened' by a continuation in the fieldwork shortly thereafter in 2007–2008 (continuation on Case II).

Participation in the contest gives the organizations the opportunity to review their learning process regarding the implementation of successful Relationship Management.



Figure 1 Elements underpinning the HSL framework and its PI model.

The writing throughout the entire process, as a part of the analyses, has furthered my understanding of the phenomena explored. At this current point it seems to have reached some level of saturation, i.e., on the suggestive level, which is presented in the HSL and its PI model.

This understanding comprehends much that has not been discussed in detail in this written thesis, which nevertheless has contributed to advancing this work. For instance that I studied applied humanistic psychology during the research process has made it possible to choose the humanistic stance and to adopt the humanistic view on motivation, as done in this study.

When reading this thesis, it is important to note that the empirical material is highly present throughout the entire writing, and it is integrated in it, even if not always visibly so. Thus, the developed framework is highly empirically grounded. This is depicted in figure 1. It is the empirical material combine with the humanistic stance that has directed the 'navigation' in the vast world of theory. These have determined the choices of relevant theoretical fields, as informants in the abductive analyses. It is important to note that motivation as seen in this thesis, relates to context, the experiences in and of the context and the consciousness of these.

A short list of abbreviations appearing frequently in the discussion throughout this written report is provided here, and a more detailed one in appendix 5.

List of Abbreviations

TPF – Three Promises Framework. A triadic promise management model. It was initiated by Calonius (1986), introduced by Grönroos as *the service marketing triangle* (1996), and by Bitner (1995) as a *service promises and related activities* model. It has been further developed by Little (2004) by placing customer value at the centre, as a conceptual model for creation and delivery of customer value. It depicts the interplay between giving, enabling and keeping promises in value creation, co-creation and formation. It is the foundation for the redirected PI-model introduced in this thesis.

GT – Grounded Theory. GT has inspired the analyses of this study. GT is a general qualitative analyses methodology for developing theory that is empirically grounded. Theory evolves during the actual research process through continuous interplay between analyses and data collection. The GT process is structured in phases of "data collection", memoing, coding and categorization as an iterative process. *Constant comparison* during which data collection and analysis occurs simultaneously are essential to GT (Suddaby, 2006). *Theoretical sampling* i.e. decisions about what kind of data is further required (which is determined by the theory that is being constructed) is an essential GT feature. GT provides frameworks by which data can be broken down into manageable pieces and the researcher can begin to conceptualize in "the direction the data points".

CGT – Constructivist Grounded Theory. The constructivist, evolved form of GT draws upon traditional GT features and processes, but allows the researcher to adjust the process according to the need placed by the researcher and the researcher's choice of ontological and epistemological stance-points.

SSM – Soft Systems Methodology. SSM is a qualitative actions research methodology within management science that adopts a systems thinking and futures approach. It sets out to solve real life problems, departing from "the future" in clarifying current issues. It draws upon constructivist assumptions in assuming that we can create our own future. It is "an organized way of tackling messy situations in the real world" (Checkland, 1999:1). It is flexible and broad in scope. It provides ~~with~~ a "methodology for operating the endless cycle from experience to purposeful action" (ibid:4).

SL – Service Logic. This view represents the Nordic School approach to service research. It emphasises that the customers create the value for themselves and the firm can facilitate in this value creation, in particular during interactions with the firm, when co-creation might also occur (Grönroos, 2011). It sees service as a mediating factor in customers' value-creation processes and emphasises the importance of employees as part-time marketers during service activities, and thus, as possible value facilitators.

SDL – Service Dominant Logic of Marketing. A current marketing research stream in the worldwide marketing community, initially initiated by Vargo and Lusch (see Vargo and Lusch, 2004a and 2004b). This view to marketing adopts a service-centric philosophy and takes a meta perspective on services. It emphasizes co-creation of value, and sees the service system as the appropriate analyses unit. It sees services as a configuration of resources including people, information and technology. It adopts a resource-based view on employees (which inherently is passive and static) and the employees' role in value co-creation is discussed only briefly without subject position.

HSL – Human Service Logic. A conceptual framework developed in this study, which suggests a service logic that places human interaction at its centre. It suggests six principles as the underpinnings of the PI-model. It considers employees and their motivation as essential in value creation and formation. It adopts a humanistic stance and a co-active mode to managing value practices. It places human interaction at its centre, emphasising the role of active human interaction in contact-points (service encounters) with employees as pivotal value facilitators in these. In particular, it pays attention to employees' experiences in customer interaction, and employees' role in not only keeping promises but also in the other aspects of the TPF. It emphasizes the influence of the before mentioned on employee motivation.

IM (1) – Internal Marketing. IM is a subfield of service research. The term was coined as an umbrella concept for internal activities and processes required for developing a service orientation, a service culture and an interest in marketing inside the firm. It operates as a holistic management philosophy and process. Its purpose is to ensure customer consciousness among employees and prepare and motivate employees to act in a service-oriented manner. It should be an integral part of strategic management.

IM (2) – As defined in this study: The purpose of IM is to enable the firm to live up to its value promises congruently; ensuring that what is promised in all the firm's communication is possible to be lived up to in value practices. Living up to value promises occurs by co-active managing of value practices and co-active enabling of resources that employees require (for living up to promises) in value practices.

PI Model – The Promise Integration Model. The PI-model is a suggestive, eclectic model drawing upon the HSL and expresses an employee discourse on motivation in a service context. It is an adapted and extended version of the promise management TPF model.

1.6.2 Outline of the Study

In the first introductory chapter, the positioning of the study, the research gap and the motivation for a need of an employee discourse has been discussed.

Chapter 2 discusses the research methodology and strategies. The implications of the humanistic stance, experiences, and consciousness as well as systemic thinking are discussed in greater detail. The research design and process, humanistic action research, and the analyses conducted are presented. The units of observation and analyses and the variables explored are introduced. The categorizations and coding of the empirical material and the working hypothesis that has been developed (as required in GT-inspired qualitative analyses) are presented. Both theory and empirical findings are used as 'informants' in the discussion, and the analyses are structured according to the five research questions, the four generative questions, and the units of observation and analyses. This facilitates a somewhat structured discussion.

Chapter 3 is the chapter where the initial conceptual development is discussed and the "working hypotheses", i.e., the empirically grounded tentative answers to the research questions as the ideas that directed the analyses process further, are discussed. In particular the empirical categorization is highlighted in this chapter and some of the theoretical informants are incorporated in the discussion at this point. To illuminate employees' experiences short 'experiences from the field' are depicted as extracts and

citations from the empirical material. Summaries of de-motivating and motivating issues, categorized as core factors and their properties are presented. This chapter also covers the systemic constellations analyses.

Chapter 4 discusses the human service logic further by presenting the HSL core concepts *social and service competence* and the six HSL principles. This chapter also presents the 4th and 5th PI aspects, *co-active managing of value practices* and *systemic consciousness of value promises*. The theoretical underpinnings of the developed framework are discussed. The back-and-forth movement in the empirical material, and between it and the theoretical informants of the study, which is typical for the analyses in abductive qualitative research, is an essential part of furthering understanding. This has influenced the structuring of the written report, but despite this an attempt is made to advance by presenting the empirical material first, followed by the theoretical discussion.

Chapter 5 covers the discussions of the relevance of the study, the conclusions, and the implications and further research suggestions.

2 THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

This chapter discusses the research methodology and design. The chapter begins by discussing the choice of research paradigm, the qualitative nature of the study and its constructivist paradigm.

The study is designed as case studies and its methods comprise humanistic action research and Soft System Methodology (henceforth SSM). The analyses and conceptualisation follow constructivist grounded theory principles, which provide a structured analysis and categorisation logic and advance the conceptualisation. Further systemic constellations analyses are conducted to advance the systemic and higher order understanding of the factors that influence service employees' motivation to live up to value promises.

2.1 The Research Methodology and Paradigm

Methodology is a confusing concept. It refers to a body of methods used in a particular activity (Oxford Dictionary) or principles of methods that are determined in a specific situation by the choices made by the researcher (Checkland, 1999). The choices lead to a set of methods the researcher uses to solve a certain research problem. Silverman (2000) defines methodology as a general topic of studying research topics and the overall research strategy. Gummesson (2001) calls it the process of knowing.

Throughout history, knowledge has been acquired in various ways. The knowledge we produce builds on our epistemological and ontological assumptions. These assumptions in turn are determined by our choice of research paradigm. Epistemology reveals the assumptions about the creation of knowledge. Ontology gives expression to how we choose to perceive the world, through which lenses we look and thus the nature of our perception of reality. Thereby, ontology also reveals our stance on the human being. These two are interrelated; the choice of the ontological perspective influences the epistemological perspective.

In the Western tradition, knowledge has been (and still partly is) related to the truth-value of knowledge, and has been guided by a positivistic research paradigm. This study draws upon its opposite, constructivism, which aims at expanding the understanding of the phenomenon being explored. Even if qualitative research can be positioned within the positivist or post-positivist tradition, the common attempt of qualitative research to build understanding often directs it towards a constructivist tradition (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998). When choosing a constructivist research paradigm, the aim of the research is "specifically oriented towards the production of understanding and reconstructed understanding" (Denzin and Lincoln 1998:185). Therefore, qualitative research often applies a constructivist paradigm as the assumptions of a constructivist paradigm and qualitative methodology correspond (ibid).

The paradigm and the aim of the study determine the choices of approaches and methods by which the inquiry is conducted. In addition, the paradigm in which the researcher believes in, or relies upon in regard to beliefs and assumptions concerning the conduct of the inquiry, has a crucial influence on the outcome of the study. A paradigm is "the human construction that defines the worldview" (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998:185) or "the basic set of beliefs that guides our action whether of the everyday garden variety or action taken in connection with a discipline inquiry" (Guba, 1990:17).

This research adopts a constructivist paradigm and humanistic stance. These direct the epistemology of the study in an interdisciplinary, transactional, interactive and subjectivist direction – the ontology towards a relativist stance and the methodology in an empirically close direction.

2.2 A Constructivist Paradigm and its Implications for the Study

In the 1980s, a breakthrough occurred within the marketing research field in regard to the use of qualitative research methods. Until recently, marketing research has strived to position itself as a science that draws upon positivism. Positivism is concerned with how things really are, and thus assumes that there exists a reality out there (Guba 1980). The positivist sciences – such as physics, chemistry, economics and mainstream psychology – are commonly perceived as hard sciences or value-free objectivist sciences (ibid).

As the scope of marketing started to expand and its social dimension was increasingly acknowledged, the need for a variety of methods other than those assuming a quantifiable approach emerged. Initially, however, even qualitative research was defined within the positivistic paradigm (Guba and Lincoln 1994:9). This meant an attempt to do good positivistic research with less rigorous methods and procedures.

Bohm (1998:xiii) has criticised research that draws upon a positivistic stance, especially when it comes to the formation of theory, which he argues should be a creative process. Therefore it is not sufficient to perform repetitions of theory in science. He claims that:

> "But rather it is necessary to strive for fundamentally new perceptions and formulations, however radically they may alter existing paradigms".

Assumptions are one central aspect of the paradigm that reflect its essence. For example, Morgan and Smircich (1980:497) claim that "all scientific activity is based on assumptions". The core assumption in constructivism contradicts the view of objective knowledge and truth (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998). The core assumption is that knowledge and truth are created, not discovered by the mind. Hence, the pluralistic aspects of reality are emphasised: "Reality is expressible in a variety of symbol and language systems" (ibid: 236). Thus, reality is according to Denzin and Lincoln "constructed and expressed by language, labels, action and routines" (ibid: 221-250), and the truth-value lies in the construction. However, Denzin and Lincoln (2011:9) claim that still today "the positivist and postpositivist traditions linger like long shadows over the qualitative research".

Where positivism assumes that the world consists of an objective reality, constructivism assumes local, specific and constructed realities. According to Guba (1990), the discourse of traditional Western science, which supports and reinforces a way of looking at the world that is antithetical to the constructivist inquiry, is destructive towards human dignity and agency. It separates the knowledge from the known. Guba continues that "we have deluded ourselves that the discourse of constructivism could resemble the discourse of other approaches to science" (1990:82).

Denzin and Lincoln (1998:243) define a constructivist paradigm by stating that "what is real is a construction of the mind", and that the constructions can be multiple and often conflict with each other. Constructions are attempts to make sense of or to interpret experience, and most are self-sustaining and self-renewing (ibid). Thus, if we start from a constructivist paradigm, we end up with findings that reveal a contextual depiction

(of sophisticated constructions of perceptions of subjects in the context explored, on which there is a consensus about the reality) in this specific context. The findings might or might not also apply to other contexts. However, the general truth-value of the findings is irrelevant. What is essential is that the findings contribute to extending our understanding of a certain phenomenon.

The constructivist paradigm has been called the alternative paradigm in relation to the positivist paradigm (Guba 1990:17-27). The constructivist paradigm has an established position as one of the four major interpretive paradigms that give structure to qualitative research; positivist and post-positivist, constructivist-interpretive, critical and feminist-poststructural (Denzin and Lincoln 1998:26). Constructivism takes various forms and can be approached from different angles. This study can be described as critical in regard to service research, in the sense that it deviates from its common managerial assumptions.

Thus, the chosen research paradigm reflects the researcher's perception of reality, which has a major impact on the choices of methods, the interpretation of data and the conclusions made. A paradigm has been defined as a cognitive roadmap (Kuhn 1962). In qualitative research that follows a constructivist paradigm, the researcher has a central role because the following aspects are taken into consideration:

> The researcher's theoretical conception of the research interview; the researcher's subject positions in relation to the project and participants; and methodological examinations of interview interaction to inform research design. (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998:1)

Thus, inquiry applying a constructivist approach is marked by multiple uses of the term and its particular meaning is shaped by the intent of its user. A researcher who relies upon a constructivist paradigm does, however, "always seek to understand the complex world of lived experiences from the perspective of those who live it, as the world is perceived or constructed by those who live it" (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998:221). This study, which describes an employee discourse on motivation, does so by drawing upon employees' experiences. By analysing these experiences, the study extends the understanding of employee motivation, and thereby initiates an alternative discourse within service research. According to humanistic principles, to further understanding requires consciousness (Rowan, 2001).

2.2.1 Consciousness of Experiences

To access others' experiences is complicated. Experiences are not always on the conscious level of their "owner". To be able to describe one's experiences, one needs to become conscious of them. Therefore, humanism places consciousness in a central position when exploring experiences. This in turn requires an understanding of how consciousness "works" and what it is.

Interest in consciousness "has soared within different fields of research since the 1980s" (Wilber, 1997:71). Wilber's integral model of consciousness (1997), which draws upon 12 distinct schools of thought and offers a synthesis of these, provides a wide scientific grounding of the concept's theoretical underpinnings. The integral model of consciousness represents the third and fourth force of psychology[10] (ibid). In science, the consciousness concept has basically been approached from two perspectives, either in terms of ideology or in terms of different levels of consciousness (Rowan, 2001;

[10] Humanistic and transpersonal psychology.

Wilber, 1997, 2000). These views see consciousness from different (yet all relevant) individual and collective perspectives: As functional schemas of the brain/mind or intentionality, anchored in first-person accounts, or as anchored in neural systems, neurotransmitters, and organic brain mechanisms, or as primarily anchored in an individual organism's adaptive capacities (materialistic), or as embedded in networks of cultural meaning (social), or as a developmentally unfolding process with a substantially different architecture at each of its stages of (spiritual) growth (Wilber, 1997, 2000).

Wilber's integral model of consciousness depicts these views as developmental processes of consciousness occurring in four different fields; the intentional field, the behavioural field, the social field and the cultural field. The integral model draws on the strengths of the different views, and incorporates and integrates their essential features. The model covers both what consciousness is, how it comes into being and where it is located. The depiction of consciousness as appearing in these fields incorporates and integrates its essential features, as seen in different approaches. Most research on consciousness within an organisational context refers to this model. Central to this study is the notion of the relation between consciousness and experiences and the context. Further, the notion that consciousness appears collectively in organisations, but also on an individual level, and refers to both being conscious about something (i.e., mindful about) and being conscious as a form of individual life-awareness is of interest. Thus, being awake and alert to inner and outer worlds, and that a state like this relates to authentic motivation is recognised in the exploration of motivation.

Location of Consciousness

As to the location of consciousness, the integral model accepts that consciousness is anchored in the physical brain, but sees it as equally anchored in interior intentionality but not located there, because consciousness is also fully anchored in cultural meaning (the intersubjective chains of cultural signifieds, without which there is simply no individuated consciousness). Without cultural practices and meanings, individual intentions do not and cannot develop. One cannot generate meaning in a vacuum, nor generate it with a physical brain alone, but only in an intersubjective circle of mutual recognition. (Wilber, 1997)

Consciousness is also embedded in, and distributed across, the material social systems in which it finds itself. It is not just in chains of cultural signifieds, but also in chains of social signifiers. Without the material conditions of the social system, both individuated consciousness and personal integrity fail to emerge. In short, consciousness is not located merely in the physical brain, in the physical organism, nor in the ecological system, nor in the cultural context. Rather, it is anchored in, and distributed across, all of those domains with all of their available levels. Thus, consciousness cannot be pinned down with "simple locations". Consciousness is distributed, not just in spaces of extension, but also in spaces of intention. Consciousness is not located inside the brain, nor outside the brain either, because both of these are physical boundaries with a simple location, and yet a good part of consciousness exists not merely in physical space but in emotional spaces, mental spaces and spiritual spaces, none of which have a simple location, and yet all of which are as real (or more real) than simple physical space (Wilber, 1997:7).

In this study, consciousness of experiences that embed issues influencing motivation appeared on a conscious level, with and among the participants, as these experiences

were identified and reflected on during the empirical sessions. Typically incidents, positive and negative, in value practices that employees experienced as critical were noted and reflected upon. This way issues that influence motivation became visible and located in the participating employees' and my "collective and shared consciousness". The consciousness that appeared during the empirical process may have been anchored in any/some/all of the levels the integral model notes. Its location is however not of major significance in the view of this study while consciousness and its location was not the unit of observation but rather a mean for advancing understanding. The character, meaning and influence of consciousness is however noted as central to this study, as it relates closely to its humanistic approach.

I analysed the identified issues by labeling and categorized them, following constructivist GT principles, into the demotivating and motivating factors (depicted in tables 5 and 6) as the empirical process was going on. The motivating factors that have been categorised did appear gradually, at times first as a hunch, perhaps as a feeling of unease expressed by someone during the empirical sessions (in case of demotivating issues), or a positive emotion in relation to some issue. These identified issues would gradually, during the course of the research process, take "shape and form" and be labelled and later categorized and noted as demotivating/motivating factors. For instance, a bundle of "administrative issues" that caused confusion among employees were eventually labelled as power struggle and negative energies (demotivating factor 2.c.3).

2.2.1.1 Individual Consciousness and Self-awareness

Another aspect of consciousness relates to becoming aware of individual internal aspects and the self. This means that the core of the self in relation to individual experiences needs to be "detected" by becoming self-aware. This kind of consciousness is thought of as a process of becoming, as a human being (Assagioli, 1974; Ferrucci, 2002; Wilber, 1974, 1979, 1997; Rowan, 2001). Motivation (i.e., what energises a person to action) is always in relation, not only to the environment, but also to the inner realms of individual experiences.

Thus, self-awareness is central to consciousness, as it appears in the individual in relation to experience, and when it appears understanding is advanced. Therefore, consciousness is basically impossible without self-awareness. In light of this, and in the view of this study, consciousness also refers to becoming self-aware, i.e., becoming conscious of "what motivates me" (the employee). In this study, self-awareness refers to a process of becoming conscious about the self in emotion work (in value practices), through reflecting upon experiences. Thus, it is assumed that individual consciousness (about issues that influence on motivation) appeared, through reflection and insights, during the inquiry process because of the reflective stance inherent in dialogue as an inquiry method.

Hence, in this study consciousness refers to both individual understanding, i.e. becoming aware of experiences, and collectively constructed understanding about individual and collective issues embedded in experiences.

Individual consciousness within a work context has received growing research attention lately. However, the focus has mainly been on the impact of managers' (see e.g. Young 2002) and entrepreneurs' (Chin, Raman, Yeow and Eze, 2012) consciousness level in relation to their work performance. Research findings claim, for example that CEOs at

higher levels of consciousness are more effective problem solvers for their organisations and experience greater levels of self-fulfilment (than CEOs operating at lower levels on the spectrum of consciousness) (Young, 2002). This view of consciousness refers to different levels of individual consciousness, where high levels of consciousness refer to restful alertness (Schmidt-Wilk, Alexander and Swanson 1996:431), silent wakefulness (Schmidt-Wilk, Heaton and Steingard, 2011) or being mindful (Kofman, 2006) characterised by deep psychological rest. In this study the self-awareness aspect is not in focus, nor is it explored per se regarding its meaning for work performance, but its influence (i.e., that it exists) is noted throughout the study. Consciousness, as for self-awareness, is assumed to be a requirement for being able to articulate what individual motivation draws upon.

Clearly the line between individual consciousness and collective/group consciousness is blurred in this case. Especially since the sessions were of dialogic nature. Individual consciousness about issues, in relation to the self, was something that I as the researcher could note "in the moment" during the empirical sessions. For the analyses this meant that something of interest for the study appeared to conscious level.

The employees' particular state of consciousness (as for self-awareness) was not considered as some kind of prerequisite for participating in the process, while the research process itself advanced consciousness by bringing experience to the fore. Capturing experiences that embed issues that influence motivation is possible with appropriate research design and methods, such as humanistic action research. By applying methods (such as SSM) that encourage dialogue and reflection, and by placing the "experiencer" at the centre, consciousness was advanced.

2.2.1.2 Implications of Consciousness for this Study

The implications of consciousness as a mean to identify issues that underpin motivation is noted in respect to:

a) Consciousness as being central to the humanistic worldview: Consciousness builds on experiences, intentions and self-awareness embedded in (and in relation to) social structures and culture, and reveals what being human is. In this light, being human is a process of maturing, becoming conscious of the centre point of "personality", the I or one's authenticity (Rowan, 2001; Wilber, 1996; Assagioli, 1974) in relation to meaning (Frankl 2006), and as an aspect of the whole. This implies responsibility, which translated to practice can be taken to mean that "if we take responsibility for ourselves, we are fully human" (Rowan, 2001:115). Thereby, as put by Wilber (1997, 2000), consciousness is a state of being (human) and a process of becoming with specific universal stages. In this sense, consciousness reveals something about motivation, because by becoming conscious we can understand what genuinely "moves us" (our reasons, desires and willingness to act). In this study, it refers to employees' reasons, desires and willingness to act (in value practices), and becoming aware of issues, embedded in experiences, that underpin motives to act, by identifying and reflecting upon them. When collectively reflecting upon motives to act, the motivation concept becomes a socially constructed concept that relates to experiences, in a context.

b) Consciousness as a phenomenon has certain implications for doing research and places some requirements on the researcher, and thus determines, to some extent, the outcome of the study. Namely, consciousness has an implication for the researcher as well in that "a humanistic approach to science comes from this particular state of

consciousness", i.e. the experience of the real self. This implies "authenticity, which emerges through self-awareness (beyond self-concepts, images and sub-personalities) and also refers to (taking) responsibility" (Rowan, 2001:116). Ultimately, it refers to an attitude about doing the research and of getting into one's own experience and trusting it (ibid). This implies that doing humanistic action research means not only getting involved in the process, but also doing it consciously, in relation to one's own authenticity, which places the motivation or inspiration for doing research in an important position. This view of consciousness also implies approaching and relating to the research setting with humanistic attitudes, and exploring what is to be explored from this particular standpoint, sharing experiences and becoming conscious, together with the participants during the process.

The integrated view of consciousness implies that there is more to consciousness than the socially constructed aspect, i.e. the cultural field that methodologically draws upon social constructivism (Rowan, 2001). In this thesis, consciousness is understood to exist in a sphere, appearing in individuals and collectively shared between people. Of interest is to capture issues embedded in experiences that underpin motivation, and to become conscious of these. Thereby, consciousness occurs as a process of becoming and advances systemic thinking, and simultaneously depends on it.

Consciousness seen in this way is central to experiences and how one perceives experiences, i.e., how we experience and construct reality and what we are able to perceive reality. For instance, whether we are able to experience our reality in a holistic manner, "three-dimensionally", from various perspectives, even as a hologram, or do we have a more narrow scope of perceiving our reality using only our basic senses and leaning more on assumptions as "truths". Consciousness, seen in this way is about experiencing with all the senses and "above" the senses, which in itself implies a higher level of consciousness (see Wilber, 1982). Hence, consciousness implies becoming conscious of our constructions, embedded in experiences. This view on consciousness did underpin the empirical sessions and I strived, cautiously, to tease out the participants' consciousness (about their experiences and issues embedded in these), encouraging them to reflect more and "wider". In practice this meant using various inquiry "techniques" during the empirical session.

2.2.2 Experiences and Constructions Underpinning the Employee Discourse

In regard to experiences, humanism assumes the individual to be a holistic being, and therefore sees the construction of reality not as being only a matter of the mind, but the result of using all senses. Thereby, rationality is not stressed. On the contrary, humanism draws upon the assumption that the individual constructs his/her own reality based on a variety of internal, interrelated processes based on cognition, emotions, sensations and intuition, which underpin experiences. The humanistic stance takes a systemic approach, which means that the individual is seen as a part of the whole.

Therefore, as the individual exists in an environment, it influences the individual's experience, and some experiences are co-experienced, i.e., shared with others. Issues can be experienced beside others, seemingly independent of others, but still under the influence of others. Therefore, individual experiences are also social constructions. To what extent is difficult to determine, especially without advanced self-awareness. Thus, in line with the thoughts of Berger and Luckemann (1991), who see reality as socially

constructed, this study assumes that the environment in which the individual employee exists plays a significant role in regard to experiences and influences his/her constructions of reality. In order to describe an employee discourse on motivation, social constructions, inter-subjective meanings and symbolising activities that are constitutive of social life (Denzin and Lincoln 1998:212) are of interest in the attempt to capture experiences underpinning motivation.

Thus, in this research process, the outcome (i.e., how the employee discourse on motivation is described) is not determined by an objective force from outside (methods), but rather constructed jointly by all the participants in the process. Exploring the participants' individual and shared experiences about the past, the present and the future experienced as the sensations, reflections and attitudes brought to a conscious level during the action processes, is information that builds the foundation for the analyses. Discussing and describing the empirically grounded employee discourse on motivation and combining this with relevant theoretical informants through abduction is the underpinning of the HSL framework and its PI-model.

2.2.2.1 An Abductive Approach

The abductive approach is the core of this study's research strategy. Abduction is an approach whereby empirical processes interact with phases of theory exploration. Abduction refers to systematically combining empirical findings and existing theoretical frameworks in case studies aiming at theory construction (Dubois and Gadde 2002).

Basically, abduction can be understood as a combination of induction and deduction, whereby theory is used, but as an informant. For example, a relatively unexplored phenomenon within one field of research requires an inductive approach in approaching the issue, and theories from another field might offer insight that builds a foundation for the conceptualisation of the explored issue (Dubois and Gadde 2002). This applies for the current study, while for instance motivation was a rather undefined and unexplored phenomenon, within IM, from the employees' angle. Service research lacked an employee discourse altogether. Therefore, abduction was a relevant choice.

The aim with an abductive approach is not confirmation of theory as in deduction. Rather, the aim is to discover new things, and theory is used to build an understanding of the new things, and to expand the knowledge. In applying an abductive approach to case studies, the process is characterised by non-linear proceeding in the research activities (Dubois and Gadde 2002). This implies that theory construction is built on empirical findings that build foundations for preconceptions of a phenomenon identified as answering a research question. Corbin and Strauss (1990) emphasise that the ongoing scrutinizing of various literature fields keeps the theoretical sensitivity stimulated.

Hence, initially this research was to some degree inductive in the sense that the phenomenon was unexplored within the service and IM field. However, following abductive principles other theoretical fields were brought in at an early stage of the process and served as theoretical informants.

2.3 Research Design and the Research Process

Assuming that reality is constructed and constantly reconstructed, and that it draws upon experiences, requires methods that enable identifying relevant (in this case relating to motivation) experience of those living in a specific context. Therefore, the qualitative approach is common in research that draws upon a constructivist paradigm. "Qualitative researchers are committed to an emic, idiographic, case-based position, which directs their attention to the specifics of particular cases" (Denzin and Lincoln 1998:10). To frame the employees settings in which experiences are identified, this study applied action research in cases.

According to Gummesson (2001), a case study approach and an interactive design require that the researcher becomes an integral part of the research process, and that the research should follow a humanist, hermeneutic and phenomenological paradigm. This implies that the researcher's personal approach and pre-assumptions to knowledge creation impact the outcome of the process.

Bohm (1998) in turn, states that science is a creative process, a process that can be compared to that of making art. In his view, the driving force in doing science is the urge to learn something new, to "perceive new orders of relationships and hinges on a sensitivity to differences and similarities" (ibid). Moreover, he argues that relying on a mechanistic approach is insufficient (ibid). An urge to understand and learn more did encourage me further as the process advanced. Initially the plan was to do one case study, but as an opportunity opened for the second case and I understood it would further the understanding of employee motivation, the second case was included in the process.

2.3.1 Action Research Applied for the Current Study

The research is designed as case studies, applying action research as the method. The inquiries consist of two case firms, which frame the empirical settings. Action research is applied to solve "real-life problems" in the cases. The specific implications for doing humanistic case studies function as guidelines for conducting the inquiry.

It has been argued (Gummesson 1988) that case studies enable the researcher to retain a holistic and meaningful picture of the characteristics over real-life events. Yin (1994:13) defines a case study as an "inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context". In action research, the aim is to create understanding as well as solve a real problem. In this research, the real-life problems concerned challenges (initially identified by management) 1) in regard to implementing marketing strategies and 2) to live up to marketing ideas in value practices.

According to Gummesson (1988), doctoral theses within the Nordic School research tradition are often based on cases. According to Yin (1994), case study research may be the most appropriate research method in understanding organisational phenomena. According to Strauss (1987:215), "qualitative research almost always includes real-life data cases". Case data, or illustrative data, is used to give a sense of reality or to build "verstehen" (ibid). When the researcher has little control over events and seeks to answer questions of how and why, case studies are the preferred strategy (ibid: 3). Case studies allow the researcher to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics over real-life events and a holistic view of a process (Gummesson, 1988; Yin, 1994).

Yin (1994) argues that this strategy is appropriate especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and the context are not clearly evident. Different types of case studies and the use of them have been defined. Gummesson (1988) distinguishes between case studies aiming at general conclusions or specific conclusions. The former accordingly consists of several cases, studying the same kind of processes in various companies, whereas the latter is conducted in a single case. A distinction between exploratory, descriptive and explanatory case studies is also made (Yin, 1994), and the purpose can be to generate theory as a means of initiating change (Kjellen and Söderman, 1980).

Given its stance this study applies humanistic action research.

2.3.2 Humanistic Action Research

Humanistic action research takes a humanistic stance, and thus a subjective position (Flood 2001:137). Drawing upon the reasoning of Maslow (on scientific principles that reflect a humanistic stance), Rowan (2001:116-117) has summarised 10 core ideas (in comparison to traditional research) that articulate the basic humanistic principles to be taken into account by anyone studying people in the conduct of humanistic action research.

Among others, the principles note the following: a) Re-humanising what is explored. In this study, it implies seeing the human aspects of both the employee (as a subject) and the context in which the employee works; humane aspects of service provision. b) Taking a holistic approach (vs. reductionism), which implies approaching a person as a whole rather than some split-on effects of a person, and grasping "the wholeness as such and focus on the relations of each constitute with the whole and each other" (Winter, 1998:42). c) I-Thou (vs. I-it), which implies the "necessity of approaching humans in a manner different from physical things" (Winter, 1988:44). In this research, it means gaining distance to see employees as "operant or operand resources", because the connotation of these refer to things (assets or resources management can draw upon for purposes of functioning effectively, e.g. in effectively providing customers with resources to integrate into their value creation). Further, this implies appreciating that understanding of the phenomena explored emerges in subject-to-subject relations, i.e., in the relation between researcher and those who participate in the inquiry. Therefore, the researcher cannot approach the explored objectively, because his/her assumptions and outlook on life influence the outcome of the study. d) Emphasises first-person experiences and sees the world as experiences, and is therefore interested in first-person knowledge, which requires the researcher's engagement in real-life settings. In this research, it implies being involved in the cases.

Applying these principles of humanistic action research to the cases of the current study means that the research process can best be described as "a process of jointly becoming conscious". This refers to consciousness emerging reciprocally between the researcher and the participants in the process.

According to Rowan, humanistic psychology has promoted a view on research that emphasises that researchers should not hide behind roles, "take reflexivity seriously, and not exclude oneself from the research process, i.e. put the real self into the research process" (2001:120). This implies characteristics such as openness, authenticity and non-defensiveness (ibid).

Humanistic action research has also been referred to as value-based science (vs. value free) (Rowan 2001). Humanistic inquiry believes that science can widen our understanding of why, and even discover the values by which people "should" live (according to humanistic principles). In this study, it implies that the factors that are found to influence employees' motivation, based on their experiences, are considered relevant and can even contribute to service management. That is, if employee motivation is considered to be significant.

2.3.2.1 The Research Process

The research process has been longitudinal and guided by an abductive approach. The journey took off initiated by the notion that implementing the loyalty program in Case Firm I was complicated. Therefore, I set out to explore why the implementation of relationship strategies fail. Little had been explored on this particular issue at the time of beginning this research.

Thus, I jumped into the empirical world with the intention of finding an answer to this question, with a real-life problem to be solved. My history with the firm provided a good pre-understanding of the case. Good access to the empirical world encouraged an open-minded approach, letting issues; new questions and answers emerge as the process continued. The first phase of the case was characterised by "strolling around" in the firm, discussing with its people in different locations in the organisation, on different levels, just to find out "what this seems to be about". Obviously, I had some presumptions because I had experienced the value practices myself, from different angles. In a way, the research process is best described as a journey in familiar, but unmarked waters with unknown depths.

The CEO and the quality manager were the contact persons in Case Firm I. They were attentive to the employees' situation in value practices and had a good ear for their needs. The initial discussions with the CEO and quality manager, in combination with the findings from the pilot sessions, resulted in the decision to include employees as "problem owners" and thus co-designers of the actual case process. The process came to be called, as suggested by the participants, *The Unified Seal*. This name indicated the employees' need for unity and a visible and congruent foundation for value practices. This is how the perspective changed (from a somewhat managerial oriented) to an explicit employee one. The focus was first and foremost put on employees' experiences, and the exploration turned towards finding the underpinnings of employee motivation, as experienced by employees. For three active years, I was absorbed in the case, living the case, roaming around in the organisation, jumping between employee and managerial locations and perspectives. There was always something more to find out.

As the first case approached its ending, the second case took off. It was preceded by my participation in a two-year long training process in the firm. This provided both pre-understanding and access to the case. In the second case, the HRD director, who was the contact person, was attentive to the employees' needs and driven by a strong customer focus. Departing from this "position", i.e., employees in customer service, and continuing on the findings from Case I, the second case was designed. It was called the *Customer Care* process. This was an intense, absorbing two-year long empirical phase, followed by a more abductively intense period, which in turn was followed by a more intense finalising action phase, "verifying" the previously found. This is how the employee discourse on motivation gradually appeared on a conscious level, through a

process of co-experiencing, with varying degrees of intensity, with all those people who were somehow involved in the process.

As a researcher, I have had the role of: 1) encouraging and facilitating employees to access experiences that were meaningful in the view of this study, 2) structuring the material in an organised and relevant way, and 3) summarising the findings of the process in an illuminating way through abduction. The second has been the most challenging and time-consuming.

2.4 Analysing Case Studies

The analyses conducted in this study that underpin the development of the understanding of employee motivation draw upon constructivist, evolved grounded theory (GT) principles, Soft Systems Methodology (SSM) and systemic constellations analysis. The evolved, constructivist form of GT has contributed with a structure to the analyses for the entire research process. It draws upon traditional grounded theory features, but admits the research so to adjust the process according to the need placed by the research, as well as the researcher's choice of the ontological- and epistemological stance-point. The GT inspired approach was chosen as it provides clear guidelines for analyses.

In qualitative research, the analysis begins on day one when the research process is initiated, e.g. by posing a research question, which in this study was, "Why does (internal) implementation of relationship strategies fail"? If the process is abductive, the analyses continue until the final dot is put into place. Thereby, the analysis in this work is longitudinal in its real meaning.

The structuring of the analyses in this research follows mainly constructivist grounded theory principles in line with the ideas of Charmaz, (2000, 2006) and others who suggest evolved versions of GT. The evolved versions draw upon traditional GT principles as to "data collection", coding, memoing, suggesting working hypothesis and generative questions, categorizing and constructing empirically grounded concepts for the purposes of conceptualising an empirically grounded theory. The evolved versions, such as constructivist GT, do however deviate from traditional GT in their ontological stance-point, i.e. in adopting a constructivist stance as opposed to the traditional somewhat more positivistic stance.

Thus, from its initial phases through the finalization principles of constructivist grounded theory has provided a structure for the analyses process. This has, in particular, helped to advance second order systemic understanding of employees' motivation to live up to value promises. The aim has been to capture and categorize employees' experiences and, based on this, to construct an initial theoretical framework that is empirically grounded. Following GT analyses principles has enabled the framework to emerge from the empirical material. This way of empirically grounding the theory under construction, rather than the researcher imposing it, is according to Goulding (1999) one of the advantages of GT inspired analyses processes in qualitative research.

Finally, at the end of the analyses process systemic constellations analyses were conducted for the purpose of advancing a higher order systemic understanding and to depict and emphasise the invisible dynamics of the interplay between the categories which were developed throughout the analyses. Systemic constellations analyses were

conducted by portraying the categorised motivation factors as elements in constellations, and were discussed in relation to the generative questions (proposed earlier in the research). In the following section, the general principles of GT are discussed, and where after, the constructivist form of GT is discussed in more detail.

2.4.1 Grounded theory

According to Strauss and Corbin (2007), GT is a general analyses methodology for qualitative research intended for developing theory which is grounded in data. Theory evolves during the actual research process through continuous interplay between analyses and data collection. The GT process is structured in phases of "data collection", memoing, coding and categorization as an iterative process. Data collection and analyzes and theoretical sampling, in which decisions about what kind of data is further required is determined by the theory which is being constructed (Suddaby, 2006). These phases form the backbone throughout the analyses process, during which constant comparison between themes and categories that emerge out of the data occurs. According to Packer-Muti (2009: 141) GT provides frameworks by which data can be broken down into manageable pieces and the researcher can begin to conceptualize in "the direction the data points". According to Glaser (2002), GT considers multiple perspectives among participants (in the research). By conceptualizing, the researcher, who has captured the perspectives, raises these perspectives to a higher abstraction level.

In GT coding and categorization occurs throughout the analyses. This builds the bases for further analyses of the empirical material. GT is described a qualitative method where the aim is to "provide insight, reveal meaning and acknowledge the possibility of multiple answers to problems". GT has been used as a methodology in research areas, where already some knowledge exists of some phenomenon, to deepen the understanding or, to provide fresh insights on existing knowledge. In GT, theory and knowledge are used as if it was another informant. GT is about conceptual leverage, and therefore, the use of it requires an understanding of related theory and empirical work of the phenomenon being studied. (Goulding, 1995)

The core meaning of GT, as defined by its founders, is that the theory is grounded in the data (Strauss, 1989). It is not a specific method or technique, but rather a style of doing qualitative analyses (ibid). However, it includes a number of specific features: theoretical sampling and certain methodological guidelines, of which constant comparison and coding are central. The major stages in the process consist of coding the material in categories, analysing and combining it with other categories as well as with existing theories and finally, conceptualizing the categories on a higher abstract level (ibid).

GT builds on the assumption that social phenomena are complex (Strauss, 1989) and therefore the methodology emphasizes the need for developing many concepts and their linkages in order to capture the variation describing the phenomenon under study. In this research the conceptual development follows this logic and has evolved during many research phases. Even if the study consists of two cases it is the same phenomenon that has been explored, in a similar but separate setting. The study started off from the initial research problem noting challenges in implementing relationship oriented marketing strategies. Management in the case firms experienced this, and current research in relationship marketing made notions about this problem. Simultaneously, in the case firms, employees in customer work experienced difficulties

in keeping promises made to customers (in particular if strategies/concepts/campaigns changed frequently).

Coding of the material

In applying a GT for analysing the empirical material the process is referred to as coding (Strauss and Corbin, 1990:57). This is the process of breaking down the empirical material, conceptualizing it and putting it back together in new ways and, is the central process by which theories are built (ibid). The process does not follow any strict rules; rather it builds on a suggested set of procedures and techniques, which form the backbone for the coding process.

In the process of coding, "it is however necessary to follow the coding paradigm" (Strauss, 1989:27). The coding paradigm implies to look for conditions, interaction among actors, strategies and tactics as well as consequences when coding a phenomenon in terms of building an understanding of what it is about (ibid). The conditions are issues in which the phenomenon is anchored (expressed by because, since, as, etc.). Statements indicating the result of something can trace consequences. Strategies, on the other hand, are issues indicating how something happened and how interactions occur between and among actors in the process (ibid). The coding process starts by initial coding aimed at opening up the inquiry (ibid). This implies that initial conceptual labels are used but are still in a trying phase, and the researcher begins to build an impression of what this is about.

In this section I discuss the application of constructivist GT inspired ideas and logic for the analyses of this study. This clarifies the congruency between the constructivist stance-point, which this study draws upon, and, the applied form of GT. This is vital as traditional GT does, according to some, have positivism inherent (see e.g. Charmaz, 2008: 401), which stands in contradiction to a constructivist stance-point. It is however noteworthy that Charmaz (ibid: 399) claim that Glaser and Strauss' original conception of grounded theory assumed a social constructionist approach to the empirical world, but simultaneously, "their research reports emphasised generality, not relativity, and objectivity, not reflexivity (ibid).

2.4.1.1 Constructivist Grounded Theory and its Function in the Analyses

According to Charmaz "a constructivist grounded theory assumes that people create and maintain meaningful worlds through dialectic processes of conferring meaning on their realities and acting them" (Charmas, 2000: 521). That is, it does not assume a truth out there to be discovered and the existence of a grand theory (ibid). It rather assumes *many* realities to be discovered. Further, it assumed that these realities are embedded in action. And even further, a constructionist form of GT takes a flexible epistemological stance-point to the research process, and emphasizes "both method and content emerge during the research process rather than being preconceived before empirical inquiry begins" (Charmaz, 2008: 399). Thus, adopting these forms of evolved GT releases the researcher from the rigorous and strict implications of traditional GT procedures.

The aim of the constructed theory according to constructivist GT is to further understanding of a certain phenomenon in studied life (Charmaz, 2000), by capturing the many realities that people experience when being involved in a context (in this case employees' experiences in value practices). A constructivist approach addresses mainly

what and how questions, whereas a social constructionist approach to GT allows also why questions (Charmaz, 2008:397). In this study both types of questions have been posed.

Among the founders of GT, a critical stance towards the evolved versions is however notable. In particular, Glaser (2002) seems reluctant to accept other applications than the traditional one and argues against a constructivist form of GT. Indeed, Glaser (ibid) claims that a constructivist grounded theory is a misnomer, which in assuming the constructivist stance-point, deviates from the traditional GT logic. Glaser (ibid) in fact claims that GT is subjected to default remolding by the manner in which Charmaz (2000) (among others) has treated it and molded it into a constructivist direction. He argues that GT should stay clean and unpolluted. As a counterargument to this, Fendt and Sachs (2008) remark that Strauss and Corbin initially did suggest an open-minded discussion on the applications of GT in order to stimulate, not to freeze, the use of it into rigid procedures and evaluation criteria. Moreover, many qualitative researchers do currently advocate for the evolved versions of GT, and e.g. Locke (2001) and Goulding (1998) have suggested less rigid forms of GT. As Locke (2001) has pointed out in practice, most researchers do not apply GT in its pure form. Fendt and Sachs claim that: "GT in its pure form is complicated, procedural and somewhat mechanistic" (2008: 444). They further note (2008:447) that, "although originally conceived as a response to positivism grounded theory methodology, in its more orthodox form assumes an unbiased and passive observer". This seems inherently incongruent with evolved constructivist and constructionist forms of GT.

In practice however, from the beginning of the 1980s into the current, evolved forms of GT have entered the qualitative research arena. Researchers have adjusted the ideas and processes of GT to fit a research strategy that e.g. adopts a constructivist ontological stance-point (Charmaz, 2000, 2006, 2008; Mills, Bonner and Frances, 2006). Indeed some current researchers strongly argue that GT, as the foundation for qualitative analyses "instruments", indeed is applicable regardless of which ontological stance-point, a positivist or constructivist, the researcher draws upon (Scott and Howell, 2008). Such an instrument may "work well regardless of the researchers perspective as long as the perspective remains consistent" (ibid: 3). Felds and Sachs (2008: 447) point out that GT should, as all other good scientific methods, be "allowed to mature with its time". They continue that currently, decades later from the original conception of GT, when qualitative research no longer needs to justify its worth and suffers "less of inferiority complex vis-à-vis 'hard' disciplines" (ibid: 250), this is what should, and is happening with GT. As Suddaby (2006: 239) notes, Glaser and Strauss initially already seemed to "reject positivist notions of falsification and hypothesis testing". Accordingly, Suddaby (2006: 634) argues that GT is "less appropriate to use when you seek to make knowledge claims about an objective reality".

Felds and Sachs (2008) are in line with e.g. Charmaz and Annells (1996) and others, such as Lincoln and Guba (1985), who have contributed to the development of GT in a more flexible direction. They suggest that GT can be used in a variety of ways and "how to use it should be shaped in important ways by the personality and experience of the researcher" (Felds and Sachs 2008: 448). They point out that a "researcher that has more experience or simply a personality that is more intuitive and better suited for conversational exploration is better served by a less rigorist version of GT" (ibid). A highly important question to consider is, according to Suddaby (2006), what kind of theory the researcher has set out to develop.

Moreover current proponents of evolved forms of GT do also claim that the traditional and orthodox form of GT, which assumes the researcher to be an unbiased and passive observer, is not only rigid, but it does contradict actions research (Felds and Sachs 2007: 448). The GT applied for the purposes of this research draws upon the constructivist form as to ontology and epistemology. It also applies a constructionist form as to the application of different research methods. A social constructionist approach to grounded theory "not only is a method for understanding research participants' social constructions, but also is a method that the researcher constructs throughout inquiry" (Charmaz, 2008: 397). This implies that the research strategies take form during the process and how the methods are applied emerge through interacting in the research setting, with the data, with colleagues and the researcher (ibid). To what extent "depends on the researcher's epistemological stance and to research practice" (ibid: 398). In this form of GT, *action* is in a central position (ibid), and is thus also applicable to case studies where the researcher has an active, participatory role (not merely observing). According to Charmaz, a constructionist form of GT allows the research to also answer why questions, not only what and how questions, which traditionally have been typical for qualitative studies.

To conclude, representatives of the evolved version of GT describe it as a popular evolving research methodology, which currently accounts for a range of ontological and epistemological underpinnings (Charmaz, 2000, 2006, 2008; Mills, Bonner and Frances, 2006). On a general level grounded theory can be seen as a methodological spiral that draws upon the positivistic influenced, traditional GT ideas developed by Glaser and Strauss and its evolved version that adopt a relativist, and reflective stance-point (Mills, Bonner and Frances, 2006). Consequently, the constructivist version of GT adopts a view on reality that "denies the existence of an objective reality" (Mills et al, 2006: 26). On the contrary, it draws upon constructivist paradigm and its ideas of reality, as expressed e.g. by Cuba and Lincoln (ibid). The constructivist paradigm, "is a wide-ranging eclectic framework" the purpose of which is to serve as a replacement for conventional, scientific or positivist paradigm of inquiry" (Schwandt, in Denzin and Lincoln, 1998: 242)

Constructivist GT, thus, is committed to the ontological stance-point that "what we take to be objective knowledge and truth is the result of perspective", and that "knowledge is created, not discovered by the mind" (Schwandt, in Denzin and Lincoln, 1998:237). It adopts a relativist ontology, which implies that "realit*ies* exist in the form of multiple mental constructions, socially and experientially based, local and specific, dependent for their form and content on the person who holds them (Cuba, 1990: 27).

2.4.1.2 Application of Constructivist GT-principals in this Study

To this study a constructivist form of GT has, in particular, contributed by providing comprehensive principles for the analyses strategy and thus facilitated the structuring of the longitudinal analyses process. Following the phases of "data collection", coding, categorization and constant comparison as an iterative process, has functioned as a backbone throughout the analyses, even in the juxtapose between the cases and the inclusion of a new method. The analyses throughout the research draws upon the logic suggested by Charmaz (2008: 401), that grounded theory strategies are just "strategies for creating and interrogating our data, not routes to knowing an objective external reality" and that "the researcher and the researched co-construct the data – data are a product of the research process, not just observed objects of it" (ibid: 402). As I see it, the GT principles first and foremost provided a structure for how to proceed

with the analyses as the understanding of the phenomenon explored advanced. It also facilitated "keeping the process together" and yet letting the process take its form and include other methods such as SSM principles for designing case two.

An important backbone in the process has been the formulation of "working hypotheses". The general GT analyses principles as to making such working hypotheses (= assumptions) that function as tentative, initial answers to questions, pushed the research further. In contrast to the common use of the concept hypotheses in positivistic oriented work, (which assumes the truth can be detected by observation, and testing will follow) working hypotheses in constructivist GT means that hypotheses are contextual and represent the peoples' construction of reality (in this specific context) (Charmaz, 2008). These tentative answers provide further direction for the research.

According to Fendt and Sach (2008), GT offers a means of abstraction of subjective experiences into theoretical statements, i.e. expressed as working hypotheses. These "working hypotheses" are not to be "tested" in a positivist manner, and are not to be taken as assumptions about truths reflecting a grand theory found in the empirical world (by the researcher). Rather these working hypotheses are reflections of the experiences of the participants in the process and in the process of categorization. To be more precise, these working hypotheses represent reflections (of employees' experiences) that the researcher has grasped by being involved in the process and included in situations where consciousness about "issues" has appeared. Hence, the working hypotheses (presented in section 2.4.4.1) represent shared and "typical" issues that appeared into common consciousness (among the participants) during the process. These working hypotheses form the foundation for the core categories that were developed as the study advanced. These have, throughout the process, been further explored through abduction, using relevant theories as informants. These working hypotheses are expressions of consciousness that appeared during the workshops when experiences were shared about "what genuinely motivates us" while reflecting upon reasons, desires and willingness to act. This implies that consciousness came into being during the process, considering the fields on consciousness suggested in Wilber's (1997) integral consciousness model (the intellectual, behavioral, the social and the cultural fields of consciousness). To conclude, I have strived for a process characterised by reflexivity, which is typical for a constructivist form of GT (Charmaz, 2008).

In conclusion, the constructivist GT form offered general structuring principles to follow throughout this study. My personal experience is that these have facilitated the research process, and have not been in any contradiction to my constructivist ontological and epistemological stance point. As Fendt and Sach (2008) emphasize, the evolved version of GT is in particularly an appropriate method for the development of understanding and new insight into social phenomena. This study strives to offer new insight by describing an alternative discourse, the employees', as opposed to the traditional managerial one, in a service context. In the following, is a brief example of how "what employee motivations in value practices is about" was explored.

2.4.1.3 Employee Motivation - What is it about?

Throughout the study categories and their properties have been "under construction". Brief examples of the coding and categorization work is provided here, and discussed in

more depth in section 2.4.4.1 regarding the working hypotheses, and in Chapter 3 regarding the actual coding.

Applying GT principles for the analyses means a constant movement back and forth between the data collection, coding and categorization, which in general, is typical for abductive work. Based on these phases, concepts that are empirically grounded are suggested. In this thesis the developed framework strives to describe an employee discourse on motivation, which means that it draws upon their experiences in their practices (realties). The categorization of the empirical material draws upon the employees' and my consciousness about their experience, and the coding, categorization and conceptualization of these. Thus, the developed framework strives to express their "map of reality" (not a common reality), as closely as possible using their language as much possible, and thereby making it their discourse.

The approach of the process is abductive, even if it departed somewhat in an inductive manner due to paucity of research and literature that recognises an employee perspective within the fields of service research and in relationship marketing literature. These lacked an employee discourse in general, and consequently on motivation as well.

According to the GT principles it is vital, throughout the process, to ask questions of the empirical material about the phenomenon being studied, its properties, dimensions and paradigm components. Labeling the material means taking apart the material and giving the issues a name, i.e., an initial concept. This implies that rather than just summarizing the empirical material, you initially analyse the phenomenon you note.

While working with an initial concept, the question "what does this seem to be about" is constantly asked. After labeling the issues they need to be organized into categories. During the research process we may come up with dozens of concepts. Labeling is done based on the attributes or characteristics describing the categories (which may consist of several initial concepts).

An example from this study follows: An issue which already appeared during the initial phase of the study, concerned the "foundation" for customer service in service encounters. Initially this issue was labeled *service flow*, which had many attributes and characteristics. Later it developed into a core category *service chain* (motivating factor 1.b.3, table 6). This category (together with others) underpins the actual final core concept of the HSL framework; *social and service competence*. Service flow was an early in-vivo label. The issue kept appearing throughout the process and was referred to in slightly different manners. As this "service flow issue" kept appearing during the it was explored in more depth. When elaborating upon this it turned out to be about employees' need for an unbroken chain of internal services that underpins emotion work in service encounters. The likelihood for employees to succeed in keeping promises rested on this. Employees found it motivating when this kind of service chain (with different attributes) existed and functioned, as it facilitated their work.

At first this seemed to be a typical "external motivating factor", such as service systems and processes, which are commonly discussed within service literature, i.e., a typical managerial issue. However, as the elaboration on this issue deepened it seemed according to the employees, to relate strongly also to internal factors such as individual communication skills and manners. This was one significant issue which repeatedly appeared in the discussions: "Manners" was something employees requested from their superiors and colleagues. Eventually this issue was categories as two separate but

related motivating factors; a functioning service chain (1.b.3) and internal service mindedness (1.c.2). These significant factors contributed to the HSL core concept *social and service competence*.

As said, categories may have many characteristics and attributes: A service chain did also relate to the possibility for employees to participate, to co-create promises and to use their knowledge and skills in managing practices. In particular its social aspect was considered important. On the other hand the lack of it had the opposite effect. For instance, no matter how well designed service processes or novel IT systems were, their worth of facilitating employees in their work to live up to promises was not considered high, if they were experienced as inapplicable, imposed and not functioning. In practice such systems or ideas were experienced as de-motivating. *To impose (coerce) ideas to practices* became one initial label that described such issues. This initial label underpins some of the eventually categorized factors.

Another example of the initial coding of an issues and its contribution to constructing a concept is the *leadership issue*, which repeatedly appeared during the empirical sessions. Mostly this issue seemed to generate strong feelings, which indicated de-motivation. Elaborating upon what this seemed to be about employees expressed concern about, and at times dissatisfaction with, current *leadership styles*. Simultaneously, the need for being able to participate (instead of being managed or lead, etc) was expressed. The leadership issue was initially coded as "lack of leadership". When the analyses advanced and more empirical understanding was gained, this was categorized as the objectifying and paternalistic stance (de-motivation factor 1.c.2, Table 5). This category, together with others, eventually influenced the HSL principles (Table 9) and the suggested co-enabling, which is the underpinning idea of the HSL.

2.4.1.4 Units of Observation

The significant issues, in regard to motivation, embedded in employees' experience have been identified and analysed, i.e., coded, arranged, rummaged, re-arranged, categorised into factors and scrutinized against the chosen theoretical informants. Throughout a conceptual development of this kind, the researcher functions as a highly integrated analysis tool. To make this process as transparent as possible, the units of observation (depicted in Table 1) and the units of analysis (depicted in Table 2) have formed the backbone of the process. This has provided a structure to the analyses that others can follow.

The empirically identified issues have been arranged in accordance with the units of observation table, which has three levels and three variables. All issues that were identified during the empirical process have been categorised according to the table. The distinction of the empirical material into the different levels draws upon how employees spoke of, or otherwise expressed the factors. Level 1 depicts issues revealing something about "in general" or "the culture" (how we do things) in the firm ("in our firm it is like", "we in general", etc.), and how commonly the issue was spoken off. The most often expressed issues were eventually categorised as core factors. Altogether, five de-motivating core factors were defined. Level 2 depicts group level issues ("in our group/department") or less common but still significant issues. They were included here as properties to the core factors, i.e. they reveal more specific features about the general core factors.

Table 1 Units of Observations

Units of observation: ⇓(level on which expereinces have been identified	Variabl-es: ⇒⇒	A. Content = Marketing ideas, Value promises: that employees experienced having and influence on motivation	B. Process = Factors in regards of management that employees experienced having and influence on motivation	C. Context = social and psychological factors in value practices that employees experienced having and influence on motivation
1. Factors on general organisational level (culture)		1a. Issues in regards to content on a **general** level that employees experience to have an influence on motivation.	1. Issues in regards to management on a **general** level that employees experience to have an influence on motivation.	1.c Issues in regards to psychological and social issues in value practices on a **general** level, that employees experienced to have an influence on motivation.
2. Factors on group level (e.g. sub-culture)		2.a Issues in regards to content on team/group level.	2.b Issues in regards to management on group/team level.	2.c Issues in regards to psychological and social issues on group level. .
3. Factors on Individual level (personal issues).		3.a Issues in regards to content on individual level.	3.b Issues in regards to management on group/team level.	3.c Issues in regards to psychological and social issues on individual level.

Throughout the analyses, during the different phases of the research, the empirical material has been reflected against the variables and levels depicted in the table. It is important to note that the analyses did not proceed in a linear manner. In accordance with the abductive nature of the research, a back and forth movement in the material took place throughout the entire research process, for both empirical and theoretical informants. The units of analysis are depicted in Table 2. The abductive analyses of the empirical material (categories) and theoretical informants begin from the ontological units as depicted in the table, and are discussed in terms of stance and mode, applying a systemic approach, as the table reveals.

2.4.1.5 Units of Analysis

Table 2 depicts the units of analysis that the empirical materials as well as the theoretical informants were analysed in relation to. Employees' experiences as to mode and stance they find motivating are discussed in relation to the managerial modes and stance in practice and theory, both in regard to IM and the theoretical frameworks applied in the abduction.

Table 2 Units of Analyses

Units of analyses; i.e., Which units in being that are explored.	1. Employees' experiences, departing from value practices as the locus for employees' experiences. Determines criteria for choice of theoretical frameworks applied in the abduction; Prerequisite is congruency with the stance of the study, i.e., a humanistic stances and recognitions of employees' subject position in experiences. 2. Psychology theories: How the theoretical frameworks approach questions of ontology, i.e., that of being and how reality is constructed, and what emphasis human experience in the context explored.
Stance towards employees	Empirical material: **Employee discourse:** Expressed as factors that articulate how employees prefer to be treated, e.g. appreciating their ideas and intentions are identified, i.e., what employees find motivating **Management discourse**: How management discuss employees; the attitude towards employees management express. Theoretical material**:** Stance, i.e., attitude towards employees in literature; How employees are discussed, focusing on the underlying attitude. E.g. acted upon as objects or included as subject in practices; it vs. Thou.
Mode towards management and practices, the manner in which things are assumed to be done/occur, i.e., the manner of management	Empirical material: Employees: Employee preferences in regards to working mode and management, i.e., "How we prefer to work, what we find motivating, inspiring. Management level: Assumptions about mode of management and mode towards employees , i.e., how resources are to be managed and the role employees have in regards to management Management theories: Assumptions about mode towards management in literature
Core categories and properties in the light of the humanistic co-workership.	Discussing the core categories and properties of the empirical material in the light of the core principles of humanistic co-workership principles, i.e., the PI-principles; Power sharing, integrating experiences, creative working mode, relations and responsibilities and employees as subjects in practices.
Motivational factors in relation to value practices seen as constellations.	Conducting systemic constellation analyses by portraying the core categories and properties as sub-constellations and examining how these, as elements in constellations, relate to each other and form patterns and entanglements that influence on SEs' motivation to live up to value promises.

Humanistic management and co-workership both stem from practices, experiences and relations. The psychological streams applied as theoretical informants begin with the individual's experience as the ontological underpinning, and explore human optimal functioning assuming human potential and growth (differing from traditional clinical research in psychology, which applies experimental methods, a positivistic stance and departs from pathology, see e.g. Seligman, 2004).

The unit of analyses refers here to the *aspect of experiences* that are analysed. Following a humanistic stance the proper ontological unit to focus on are experiences. Consequently, how employees experienced the stance and mode of management was

analysed. Drawing upon the categorised motivating/demotivating factors and discussions on mode and stance of management conclusions about motivation were made.

Further, the chosen theoretical informants adopt a stance and mode that reflect those factors that the employees found to be motivating (revealed in the empirical categories). Drawing upon the stance and mode of management the chosen theories (humanistic management and co-workership), are summarised jointly as the core principles of humanistic co-workership, the HSL-principles.

These HSL principles form the underpinnings of the fourth aspect of the PI, which suggests a re-direction of management towards practices. It suggests a broadened and alternated perspective to the TPF. The fourth aspect of the PI reveals a second order systemic understanding of factors that have an influence on employees' motivation to live up to value promises. Second order understanding is usually achieved by the use of constructivist research methodology (Brinkenkrahe, 2009).

2.4.2 Experiences from the Field

In this section short transcribed extracts from the empirical sessions, that reflect experiences from the field, are depicted. The extracts reveal the empirical grounding of the generative questions and the categorization work. These are depicted here to facilitate the reader to understand the empirical grounding in real life experiences that underpin the categorization work. Thus, these extracts should provide "evidence" of the location of initial empirical indictors, as well as initial categories. More detailed examples of coding is given in section 3.1.1.2.

Generative questions are questions that stimulate the line of investigation in profitable directions and lead to working hypotheses, i.e., tentative answers to research questions and thus these are useful questions that advance collection of certain kind of data (Strauss 1989:17-22). The extracts reveal the nature of the dialogue during the empirical sessions. They also reveal both individual experiences and the "collective train of thought" that underpin the categorization and employees insights (about the issues discussed) that emerged during the session. The participants were encouraged to use dialogue as the method during group work. Thus, the extracts illuminate how consciousness among the participants including the researcher, of issues that became categorized motivating/demotivating factors surfaced during the sessions and how these gave rise to generative questions and carried the process further. The idea of dialogue as a method is to advance consciousness. The workshops were reflective to their nature, which means that collective consciousness could, and did appear.

Dialogue as a method

During the first empirical sessions in case I dialogue as a method was not followed strictly, which means that people at times interrupted and made spontaneous remarks. This resulted in some people talking somewhat more than others. A point was however made to get all people to express their experiences, if not spontaneously then "pushed" by the researcher. In case two the dialogue followed more strictly the rules, and all expressed their views and told about their experiences in turn 0,5-1 minute at a time, everyone having a turn and going in circles. However, spontaneous utterances and talking over, and common babbling, interrupted by jokes laughs etc., did occur during these sessions as well.

The atmosphere during the sessions was relaxed and allowing. An effort was taken in reaching such an atmosphere, as the aim was to get as many experiences out of the sessions as possible. A manager (from various functions) opened each session to indicate engagement on management's behalf in the process, and to "legitimize" it and to give it managerial weight. The managers did not stay for the entire sessions, except for the first one. This is because it seemed that the presence of a manager might have inhibited employees' participation in the dialogue.

The dialogue extract depicted first relates to the generative question 1: Why do they make promises we cannot keep?

2.4.2.1 Extract 1: Why do they make promises we cannot keep?

These dialogues and others alike took place during the empirical sessions, both in case case II and I. These extracts cover mainly discussions of the content (strategies, concepts, promises), and contributed to the understanding of the de-motivating core category; too abstract marketing strategies (1.a.1). This dialogue extract provides the reader with "clean", un-interpreted and uncategorized depictions of employees' experiences. In the extract R stands for researcher and GM + number stands for group member and number indicates a new person expressing something.

Case I, Group 1: Theme: Promises that are difficult to keep

> Group 1: Diffuse promises
>
> GM: Yes it happens quite often... I just heard the other day about a Finnish guy (customer) who ..well was upgrade the previous day and then they spent a day in Stockholm and they expected that they would have the same cabin on return. But they changed boats and no one told them that they actually had gotten something for free ... And then it is the information guys who have to handle this. They (customers) think it's like a hotel, which it is not ... it is at the check-in they decide about the cabins. We cannot do anything about it ...
> GM2: Yes and the check-in should know what sales are up to, and so should all different functions know... what the others are doing...
> GM3: Yes, also when you reserve a table ashore ... now we open half an our before departure, that works...
> GM4: Yes, another case was when one of the ships hade problems ... they called from customer complaints handling and said that something is completely wrong about the arrangement, something was promised to customer ... but it was not like that actually anymore because this was some kind of special arrangement, but the call-center was not informed about this... this is in the system you know and it is so stiff ...
> GM: Yes, extremely stiff.
> GM: We, all of us, should learn to think as customers. When you get the wrong cabin, then the toilette does not work and then you go to a bar and this and this happens etc ... so we should all experience this through the customers' eyes.

The dialogue continues with more examples. This dialogue indicates that it was rather common that employees faced situations where they did not know what was on the agenda, and felt confused and thus requested more co-operation, which they found that underpin good customer service. The next extract is from another group.

Case I, Group II: Not knowing about a marketing campaign

> R: So are you aware of this latest circus campaign?
> GM1: Yes...? uhmm (questioning)
> GM2: What is it about?
> GM3: It's going to be a ski slope down from the higher decks to the promenade ... with the captain and us and all ... (sarcastic humor, facial expression indicates unawareness of campaign)

GM4: It's going to be a duel … (similar expressions as above)
GM5: The seamen will also participate…
GM6: The customers will stand and cheer …
All: Ha-ha
R: I take that as a no?
All: Laughter (and nodding)

This extract indicates that the employees were unaware of the promises related to this specific campaign and its promises. Such unawareness was, in their experience not that unusual and was experienced as frustrating. These two extracts reveal the challenges service employees faced in customer interaction, face-to-face with customers, without knowing what is going on and what precisely they are expected to do.

2.4.2.2 Extract 2: What is all this fuss about?

The dialogue extract depicted here relates to the generative question 2: What is all this fuss about? This dialogue, and others alike from the other groups of case I and case II, contributed to the understanding of the de-motivating core category; objectifying mode and stance (1.b.1), and confusion (1.c.1).

Case I: theme contradicting messages & dysfunctional service chain & agitators

R: So you say the character (=logo) is looking in three directions currently, what does it mean?
GM1: Different messages come form different directions – they don't pull evenly there…
GM2: The communication between see and land has improved, but ashore the right hand does not seem not know what the left hand is doing…
R: How does it impact your work in practice?
GM3: Well… the service chain suffers … and the internal service … it is very important as the foundation for the service-chain.
R: How do you experience the internal service?
GM 5: I experience it mostly as confrontations; it has to do with managers and superiors …
R: How do you mean?
GM 5: Well …e.g. time study men come onboard and check our working hours and how we do our work… and then we have this contract thing, which is not clear … people are put on annual leaves and a lot of odd things!
R: What do you mean by odd things? Does it mean you don't know what is happening?
GM6: Some things we do know, but e.g. last fall all overtime had to be converted into money – now it has to be converted into time… a lot of things are unclear, what you can do with your annual holidays and such … Previously you could take it when it suited you. Suddenly it is very important with all these holidays. Which it indeed is for us, and people are totally panic struck with these annual holidays… e.g. you are told that you have to take your annual holiday now or they'll freeze it … Okay what does this mean? The answer is that I don't' know what it means but …
GM7: It is totally confusing now for everybody… this new contract … It is totally crazy with the labour union and owners sitting and discussing …
GM8: It seems as if no one knows what this means… the labor union knows what it means and it is presumably a good contract for us, but that is not how the management at shipping has interpreted it. To them it is some kind of a pooled contract …
GM9: Well … it is not probably quite like that either because none of the managers are here to make our lives miserable … supposedly it gives us some options …?
GM10: Yes, but they have not understood that … the funny thing about these things is …, … like the contract, how it is written by the labour union for a year at a time, but the other party does not want to have it like that, they'd prefer to have it in quarters…?

GM11: But that seems sensible for everyone and you'll at least have a basic scheme to go by, but of course if you need to deviate from that, you would have to be able to do it … this is new for us all…
R: So this contract, you think and talk about it a lot?

> GMs: Yes, we do. A lot. Everybody talks about it. It lives a life of its own. (All agree and many utterances indicating agreement follow).
> GM: And of course it impacts our work, we are totally frustrated. And a paper that clearly states how this is does not seem to come about. It is exhausting both for managers and us.
> GM: One can sense it, that we get uncertain about this and feel insecure…
> GM: We do have lives outside the boats, too, you know. We need to plan and be able to enjoy our time off duty, and it is important to feel secure about the work. They cannot just whip and batter us all the time like this. My last shift the entire first week was nothing but discussing, discussing, discussing …
> GM12: This worrying thing is one thing …I have worked here for 15 years, and during these years issues like flagging out etc have been on the agenda many times… Still I have always gotten my salary on time, and I think this is a good employer. I have learned not to care about all these rumors, and I don't bother to care. They do exist all the time, all the time …
> R: So it seems that there is some fuss?
> GM: Yes, at times one wonders what all this fuss is about?

So the dialogue goes on, coming to themes like negative rumors and positive rumors, good things that have a positive influence and negative experiences that turn into bad vibrations, leadership and lack of leadership, good and bad atmospheres and how these impact on how people work, and eventually spill over to customer work, and thereby initiate vicious or good circles, and how these have an influence on working modes, and ultimately on motivation. Eventually this discussion led to the generative question 2; what is all this fuss about. The following extract relates to the same question.

Extract 2, also relating to generative question 2, depicts a piece of a personal interview with an employee in case I.

Theme: Agitation and the trade unions role in the internal systemic workings of the firm

> R: So you feel that the trade union has a significant role in the internal workings of the firm then?
> E: Personally I see the trade union as a black troll. In my opinion it has not contributed with much. Especially now when they have changed the spokesperson, when this new person took charge. He was not good at his job, and he obviously has a need to bluster. Now there is this tough triad that has an old-fashioned view on policy making. It has not been modernized. On the contrary there seems to be some regression, against what was achieved during the previous period. It is also our fault. 30% of the members use it completely as their own playground … those who actively take part in their things. It is completely their "own thing". When you read their writings in the union magazine it gives you the creeps. Their ideals make you think of some Taisto Sinsialo Kotka style.

This extract serves as an example of how "fuss" of different kinds seemed to bother employees and interfere with their work in value practices.

2.4.2.3 Extracts 3: Why are we not included?

Case I: About Decision-making & being excluded/included & understanding

> GM1: It is extremely important to achieve a better mutual understanding between different departments. I (waitress) did a course in marketing and they (management) used my assignments (from the course). But I would really want to be more included and work with marketing. I find it very interesting.
>
> GM1: When they make decisions ashore they would do well in coming here and ask us how it (their ideas) would work in practice, before they plan. Perhaps we have better ideas. The co-operation has to work.
> R: What could be done?

GM2: That is not my job. I have tried to take my ideas where they are supposed to go, i.e., to my superior. But I really think they (management from ashore) could visit us and ask us.
GM3: Co-operation, but that's a tricky question to answer … The customer wins when things work smoothly between departments, and of course we ourselves would enjoy work more.
GM4: We need to strive for more understanding on and between all levels…
GM5: Yes, but if you think you belong to the lowest caste … I don't know how the guys get along down there, if they call and they need something …

GM: If the entire chain does not work … well you know … it has to work all the way.

Case II: About us and them, decision-making and power.

Case II: This extract is from a group sessions during in the mid-phase of case II, during which group members (in three distinct groups) present their views on problems with customer care. This extract depicts a session that took place after the initial dialogues, during which everyone shared the personal views on the situation. The strategic supervisor had opened the process and articulated (to the participants of in the CC process) that "voices from the field" were needed and welcome. The aim was to encourage the groups to come up with honest opinions and discussing their experiences. The atmosphere was cheerful and optimistic. After having discussed the situation in small groups the participants came up with answers to the following questions: i) What seems to be the problem and iii) who is the problem owner, and iii) what could be done? The groups were encouraged to work according to dialogic principles, which they had done before, during the dialogue sessions.

Case II, Session A

Group 1: We have these contradicting goals: E.g. between support functions and sales and perhaps between country managers and the SBU managers, the CEO and sales management? Their role is substantial. And then this big picture, well we are here (person shows their position on a drawing) in the borderline between customers and the firm … when we are talking about the needs here on the field they (management/decisions makers) seem to have too little knowledge of these issues amongst them. They do not know the needs we have on the field! Somehow they should get this information from the operational people. Perhaps we could have common meetings or perhaps the upstairs' ladies and sirs would care to pay us a visit and at least at times come down here to our second level and also take a tour to the regions? Well they have been to the regions but not down here on level 2.
All: Laughter

R: You mean like the customer knowledge you have?
G: Yes, they would get it from us if they'd care to listen. And from other sources alike. And what to do about it? Well of course by making these problems visible and talking about these problems. Then it is a different story whether it'll reach them (decisions makers) who are behind so many people. Yes that's another issue. But you always have to try.
R: Well now it is recorded at least.
G: Yes. So it's the country management and the CEO. Those are the most important. SBU management does not have decision-making power. They are the operational level…

Group 2: Now group one did a fine presentation, said the most … talented performers as they are (laughter). We made it look even simpler … We just discussed this one aspect … the co-operation between the SBUs. The solution owners are the CEO, country-managers and the SBU management; they have the most important roles. That is, how sales are noted and how these things are taken care of. I have this figure here … you'll probably not make it out (shows a complicated drawing of the situation)
All: laughter
Group 2 describes the drawing in detail and continues: When we come closer to the actual field here (shows on drawing) it is a question of co-operation between sales groups, area wise. We don't find that as a big problem because the co-operation here between different sales-groups is quite good in the different sales areas. The most important consequence of our solution is better co-operation internally … and better sales then. So here we have the customer (shows on drawing); now the customer would be the company's customer that we together take care of in the best possible way, and all competences are taken into use and no one is jealous of their own work. Briefly put.

R: Thank you, and one group left.

Group 3: Well, uhmm maybe this drawing shows the situation from the upstairs? Ha-ha. I need a handkerchief ha-ha. Well, yes, really …I really would not have to tell you all this (points at the others gesturing that it has been said already). Well the customer (spokesperson turns towards researcher and says: you can write down precisely the same that the previous groups said… you got that. Did you?). That is (here we have, points at drawing) the customers' processes. Of course these are on the shoulders of sales, product management's and group managers' responsibility. But we need more co-operation, common goals between SBUs and that is the sbu challenge, and the internal processes need to be aligned at the customer surface. There … (points on drawing at management) learning new things and most of all the leadership is a challenge, and that is the goal for the managers. We suggest (points on drawing at customers) centers … In terms of work division that of course would be complicated for product managers… Dysfunctional things, we need to unlearn those. The internal sales need to be improved; again that is a challenge for sales managers and thus for sales… It means informing and training the sales management. Also to recognize the customers buying behavior, that is a challenge for sales and sales management and product group managers. And then the issue of throwing the case further inside (to the function/department that has what the customer needs), that is on the dealmaker, the one who did the sale. It is his/her responsibility to move the customer forward inside the company. There. (smile)

R: Yes, thank you!

Short extract form Case II, session B; Why are we not included?

Group discusses strategic goals, promises and the current situation of the firm.

GM1: Well now we are in the same situation as our competitors in regards of self-sufficiency and profitability… not worse, but not better off either. So we need really to consider profitability they say. And these processes, they make processes of everything, buying- sales- customer processes … Interesting, don't you think?
GM2: Yes and also this group thinking, we are a group now and knowledge is transferred between units …?
GM3: Yes, they talked about these support teams…. (All discuss for a while about which people the support teams will consist of)… These teams are supposed to reflect upon how things work in practice then…?
GM4: Yes, but I was just thinking that why are there not people from the lower levels in these teams?
GM5: I was just thinking the same thing!
GM6: Yee, that kind of support team is meaningless… some manager-club that gets together someplace and have fun for a day, occasionally …
GM7: Perhaps they are afraid of loosing power if they let others in and decide …They protect their empires and won't let others in …
GM8: There were talks about field intelligence…?
R: Talking about that (field intelligence) someone had an example?
GM9: well yes, its just that what management decides… erroneously will be correct in the field at the end of the day…
GM10: Exactly…
GM 11: Yes, well once this lower level manager said that you could keep planning for what it is worth, we'll fix that in the field then, make the recoveries and come up with solutions that work for customers. This director was annoyed and then later he was … uhm repositioned, his job description was changed and he quit, and then he called that (lower level) manager and said that god-damn-it you were right. So it really is in the field the real decisions are made, the recoveries and solutions found, but of course one can plan whatever one likes …

These extracts depict, beside the actual issues discussed, how dialogue as an inquiry method worked, and how it served a purpose of elaborating further on an issue that someone in the group had initiated. The idea of dialogue is, contrary to debate, to continue with the own idea about the issue discussed without analyzing the previous person's ideas, but bring forth the own experience or view. When one person stops another continues with an "and" (not a but), even if one changes the subject or theme, which also is allowed.

To conclude, the experiences that employees expressed in the dialogues underpin the initial coding and eventual categorization. The dialogues revealed different issues that gave rise to the generative questions and initiated the categorization. It is important to note that this material and the categorization do not reveal the level of motivation in the case firms. The state and levels of motivation in the case firms have not been analyzed in this thesis. The experiences employees have shared during the empirical sessions and interviews provide with examples of issues that have an influence on motivation in both directions, and in relation to each other. For instance, questions of power as an issue in relation to decisions making, and as the reason for struggle, and agitation (previous extract) seemed to have a de-motivating impact, and initiated the core category 1.c.1., whereas the possibility to participate in planning and decision-making seemed to have a positive impact on motivation.

2.4.3 Soft Systems Methodology

The case design for Case II draws upon Soft System Methodology (SSM). SSM is a case study methodology (a set of principles) that incorporates a futures perspective to the issue under study. This differs from the method applied in Case I in terms of having an articulated futures approach embedded in the case design. SSM offers a clear structure yet enough flexibility to adjust the method to the needs of a particular research setting. This implies that the explicitly articulated presumptions draw upon the idea that our future is formed by our intentions. This guided the second case and was assumed to encourage the participants to focus, and bring forth issues that motivate/demotivate.

2.4.3.1 The SSM Guidelines

SSM offers a guiding framework, an iconic rather than descriptive model, for creating the research methodology (Checkland, 1999: A15). It entails four main activities:

1) Finding out about the problem situation, including culturally/politically;

2) Formulating some relevant purposeful activity models;

3) Debating the situation, using the models, seeking from that debate both

4) Changes that would improve the situation and are regarded as both desirable and culturally feasible, and

5) Accommodations between conflicting interests that will enable action-to-improve to be taken;

6) Taking action in the situation to bring about improvement.

The first phase, finding out about the problem situation, can be done by rich picture building and to further grasp the problem situation the framework to apply is “Analyses One, Two and Three”. Rich picture building was applied as described in the next section. Findings from Case I inspired the properties and the initial framing for Case II. Thereby, there was an overlap between the cases, even if the settings differed.

The point of departure for the processes was the notion, initiated in Case I, that employees are concerned about doing their work well, and that caring for theirs

customers indeed seemed to be a motivator in itself. The pilot interviews conducted in Case II supported this assumption. Thus, the empirical process in Case II draws upon an assumed link between motivation and caring for customers. This framed the exploration. Thereby, the underlying guiding case questions posed to the service employees in Case II were: how would things be in order for you to be motivated to live up to value promises? What work-life factors influence your motivation? How would you improve the customer care?

SSM is a systemic methodology (rather than being simply a method). It follows systemic and constructivist principles, and thereby advances the understanding of second order systemic understanding. It sees reality as a construction of people's interpretations of their experiences, and people's points of view and intentions are central (Flood, 2001). The case problem was stated positively in terms of how can we improve customer care. In particular, soft aspects of customer work (caring, serving and attending to customers' needs) were in focus. The employees' ideas and intentions (of how to improve customer care) draw upon their experience of and competences in customer interaction. Drawing upon the material from the process, factors that employees found motivating/de-motivating were identified.

SSM draws upon the idea that behind each action people perform lies an intention (which is grounded in experience). What then occurs is grounded in practice. SSM assumes that neither observations nor theory provide sufficient understanding of what occurs in certain contexts. Authentic understanding of what is going on in the minds of people is gained by getting involved in social practices, i.e. how people live and work. This way, what is real and meaningful to the people involved may be uncovered (Checkland, 1999).

Therefore, the researcher's participation and "living in" the case is required. The researcher becomes involved in the case. As the case proceeds, consciousness (about the issues explored) is advanced and "appears" amongst the participants in the process.

According to constructivist principles, SSM emphasises and clearly articulates the assumption that it is possible to influence the shaping of the future:

> Believing that we can invent or create the future relies on certain assumptions about the future and our relationship to it. To believe that we can invent the future we must assume that we can influence the course of events by our actions; that what we do matters; that the future is not fixed but open and subject to human choice and intervention. (Graham, 1996:157)

This assumption was followed throughout the empirical processes, and in particular articulated in Case II by choosing SSM as the method.

2.4.3.2 Rich Picture Building

The initial core categories and their properties identified in Case I were the point of departure for Case II. Personal interviews were conducted with employees and managers to find out their perception about barriers/carriers of living up to value promises and "what seems to be the problem" (the SSM question) in relation to that.

The interviews were recorded and the material transcribed. A grounded theory categorising approach was used in analysing and categorising the material. At this stage, only in-vivo codes were used. The categorisation consisted of grouping phenomena with similarities in the attributes. Based on this and following the SSM

guidelines, two challenge maps were constructed; one depicting employees' experiences of challenges (in living up to value promises) and another depicting challenges as perceived by management. The challenge maps summarised the experience and functioned as a foundation for the discussions in the following phases, the group sessions, of the process. The construction of the challenge maps also deepened the pre-understanding of the prevailing conditions in the case firm. During the action process, the participants evaluated and modified the challenge map to describe their experiences. Later, the challenge map was used in the conceptualisation work as an informant.

Rich picture building addresses the problem situation through outlining it and describing it through making drawings. The reasoning behind this approach lies in the logic that "the complexity of human affairs is always a complexity of multiple interacting relationships; and pictures are a better medium than linear prose for expressing relationships" (Checkland 1999: 45). This way, the problem situation is easier to address in a holistic rather than a reductionist way of thinking. According to Checkland, this has proved to be an invaluable point of departure for discussing a problem situation in an explorative manner. This gives a rich picture of the problem at hand, and it is easy to further discuss and debate the problem from this point. In case II, this phase was defined as creating a challenge map for the customer care process.

This was followed by five group dialogue sessions with employees and one with a management team. The categories depicted in the challenge maps were discussed in relation to a set of questions during the dialogue group sessions. The group sessions followed the logics of SSM analyses one, two and three, modified to fit the situation. Analysis one follows the rich picture building by listing the possible "problem owners", selected by the "problem solvers". This phase is the main source of ideas for relevant systems, which can be modelled. The question to ask the person or group intervening in a problem situation in this phase is "Who could I/we take the problem owner to be?" (Checkland, 1999: A19). This may lead to unexpected problem owners as the situation is examined from a holistic perspective. However, it is important to bear in mind, as stressed by Checkland, that "the whole will always remain an unreachable grail" (ibid: A19). Analyses two and three stem from the reasoning that "the social reality is no reified entity out there, waiting to be investigated" (ibid: A19), but is constructed by those involved in a specific context. These analyses are discussed in section 3.2.3.2.

2.4.4 Working Hypotheses, Core Categories and Properties

This section discusses the analysis process concerning coding, making hypotheses and categorisations of the empirical material. In particular, how the categories emerged out of the material; how they were initiated, mainly as in-vivo codes, from the initial phases of finding concept indicators, forming hypotheses and doing conceptual coding based on empirical indicators, to the formation of the categories that simultaneously through abduction emerged into the form they are presented in this thesis.

2.4.4.1 Coding According to GT Principles

According to GT analysis, during the initial phase of the inquiry, making working hypotheses – i.e. tentative, provisional answers to questions – is an essential part of the analysis process (Strauss, 1989:10-14). A table that reveals the working hypotheses of the analyses, from the early phase of the inquiry throughout the process is presented in

this section. Between the formation of these working hypotheses and the established concept is the coding process, the foundation of the concepts. The coding process consists of the analysis phases of data collection, coding and memoing. The entire process is characterised by constantly moving back and forth between these phases throughout the research project. The goal is to generate a theory that as in this case accounts for patterns of experiences, which are relevant for those involved.

The most common issues, embedded in experiences, that appeared during the empirical sessions, and were identified in both cases, constitute the core categories, i.e., main factors. In the units of observation table the core factors are depicted on level one, and the rest are mainly properties of these (or less commonly identified, but still strongly present as phenomenon). According to GT principles, the core categories must be explored over and over again as to the prevalent relationship to the other categories, i.e. making constant comparisons throughout the analyses phase (Strauss 1987:35).

Hence, following a constructivist GT inspired analysis logic means that the working hypotheses in this study consist of assumptions and tentative answers that emerged out of the material, first as hunches and ideas of what it is all about. Gradually, these advanced to their established form as depicted in the table, and then eventually took the form of categories/factors and properties that form the underpinnings of developed conceptual HSL framework and the re-direction of the TPF into the PI-model. Thus, these initial assumptions depicted in the table 3 are the foundation for the developed HSL framework. These working hypotheses became gradually "verified" as to their existence (not all initial assumptions/hypotheses matured into noted factors). In light of the constructivist research paradigm, this implies that these factors describe one "truth", or perception of issues existing in the context explored from a specific perspective. These further understanding but are not generalizations, nor is there an attempt to generalize in this study.

Table 3 **Working hypotheses/assumptions of the study**

Initial phase of study: Exploring complications related to implementation of marketing ideas (loyalty program and service logic)			
Hypothese number	What is it about?	Conclusion:	Category/Properties
Initial working hypotheses:	Traditional implementation of marketing ideas (in particular of affective value promises) impinge negatively on employees' motivation: Complications in regards of implementation => Employees experience that marketing ideas are too abstract. Employees remain unconscious of value promises, and thus unable to live up to them.	Initial phase: Consequence of employees being unconscious of value promises and/or lack understanding of value promises results in the promises having little operational relevance for employees. Conclusion: traditional implementation complicates living up to ideas and	Core categories 1.a.1 Too abstract marketing ideas/ unconsciousness of promises (DM) 1.c.1 Confusion (about code of conduct of business) (DM) Core Categories

Hypotheses I	People dislike being managed. Being managed implies being bypassed and excluded from development issues of own work. Employees prefer to participate.	promises. Being managed de-motivates When bypassed experience marketing ideas as abstract, impossible, diffuse	1.b.1 Objectifying mode of management (DM) 1.c.2 Objectifying stance towards employees (DM)
Pilot and early phases of empirical case processes Conceptual development: Co-mode suggested to TPF: Imposing de-motivates.			
Hypotheses I a	(A) Marketing ideas and promises that are ungrounded in practices remain distant to service employees	Possibility to participate motivates	1.a.1 Authentic promises, when ideas emerge from practices, motivate. (M)
Hypotheses I b:	(B) Traditional Implementation ("on" employees) of marketing ideas impossible. I.e., employees are not included in planning	Implementation ignores human functioning principles and employees' experience and perceptions	(M)1.b.1 Agency to participate (M)
Hypotheses I c	(B)"Implementation" objectifies (by imposing) & (C) Implementation mechanistic, ignores the social aspects of work-life	C: When implementation applied marketing ideas/promises lack relevance/meaning for employees and are distant form value practices, and not anchored in practices.	
Hypotheses I c	(C) Objectification stance towards employees de-motivates		2.c.2. Power struggles de-motivate (DM)
Hypotheses I b&c	(B&C) Mode of managing influences on motivation: Managerial elitist stance and mode de-motivates	C: Traditional Implementation leaves employees unaware and indifferent to new ideas coming from "above".	1.c.3 Management resist changing stance and mode of managing (DM)
Hypotheses IIa	(A,B,C) Employees possess customer power		2.c.3Gaps in Maps of reality and no pro-social behavior evokes negative energies that have a negative influence on motivation. (DM)
Hypotheses IIb	(C)Employee participation in creation of promises	C: Managers resist including service employees in	

	motivates	development work C: Employees mobilize customer power and refuse adapting to managerial ideas	
Hypotheses IIb	IM theory adopts objectifying stance	C: Power sharing and integration motivate.	
Hypothese IIc	In practice employees wish to participate and enjoy serving customers	C: IM lacks insight about motivation mechanisms, motivation discussed and defined in passing, out of an managerial mode, in the IM discourse	2.4.c. Rude behavior and lack of manners de-motivates (DM) 2.c.2 Negative tone of communication (DM) 2.b.2. Mandate to participate in content development motivates (M) 2.b.3 Practice competence valued (M)
Co-Mode and Stance; 4th PIC Aspect: Co-active managing of service practices and co-active stance towards employees foster motivation			
Hypothesis III a	People vary substantially in what motivates them. Motivations is socially and practice contextual The more autonomy driven a person is the less manageable (s)he is.	C: Employees motivated by human interaction C: When social environment supportive of social competence = > Fosters motivation	2.c.4. Too little internal service mindedness. (DM) 3.c.1 Indifference and resignation (DM)
Hypothesis III b	”Rude” management de-motivates.	C: Bad manners spill to working environment	
Hypothesis III c	Employees thrive of serving customers	C: Fulfilling altruistic need motivates	2.c.3 Need to serve (M)
Hypothesis III c	Self-knowledge important motivation factor		2.c.4 Negative energies (DM)
Hypothesis III b	Tone and mode of communication influential	Negative communication tone & dysfunctional	

		communication mode de-motivates	
Concept 2: Service and Social competence fosters motivation			
Hypotheses IVa Final Hypotheses	Extrinsic motivation factors "circulate" in the social systemic spheres Employees are intrinscally motivated to serve customers	Living up to promises is less complicated if value practices managed co-actively Employees motivated to live up to promises but experience it as complicated	1.b.1 A forum for idea Exchange and dialogue (M) 1.c.1 Unified congruent, "we" as foundation for practices (M)
5th PI Aspect: Systemic consciousness of promises			

This table provides an overview of the working hypotheses, i.e., the research assumptions that (drawing upon the employees' experiences) provided tentative answers to the questions during the course of the research. These assumptions underpin the *employee discourse on motivation* which this thesis strives to describe and reflect in the HSL framework and its PI model. The table does not cover the process fully, and the process was clearly not linear in the manner the table depicts. The aim by presenting this table is to illustrate the manner in which the understanding developed, and to give some idea of how the working hypotheses, i.e., the assumptions, formed underpinnings to the categories.

In regards to the process of coding, categorising and eventually conceptualising, the basic idea of GT is to first conceive, then elaborate and finally "verify" the concepts, which are empirically grounded.

During the initial phase in Case I, three generative questions emerged, articulated by the participants in the empirical sessions, which also guided the analysis of the material. Service employees articulated these generative questions during the empirical sessions, e.g. such as "why are we not included in the planning" and "why do they make promises we cannot keep". These generative questions initiated the further exploration of mode of management, and eventually led to the two core categories, B1 and C1, which depict central factors that employees experienced as de-motivating – "objectifying mode and stance of management" and confusion (about code of business conduct).

It was around in-vivo expressions and utterances that the material started to "organize itself", which is typical in GT analysis (Strauss 1987). Hereby, the tentative answers were conceived and further elaborated upon. These were then further scrutinized during the following phases of the empirical process and were simultaneously explored through different theoretical spectacles and illuminated further through abduction. The initial working hypotheses together with the TPF functioned as framing for the following empirical processes of Cases I and II.

To depict how these core factors and their properties, which articulate experiences (identified as issues) that underpin motivation, form patterns that interact reciprocally, these were finally analysed as constellations. In these systemic constellations analyses, portraying the core factors and their properties as elements in constellations, reveal a) the prevalence of the core categories as these are placed as the "root-cause" in relation

to their properties. In these analyses, the core factors have been related to the different properties, also cross-variably, which means that the core factors (categories) of variable b is related for instance to properties of variable c. b) The reciprocity of the categorized factors. According to systemic principles, it is ultimately in the reciprocity, relationship and balance between the issues, (i.e., in this case the motivating/demotivating factors) in a constellation, that determine the workings of the system. This way of portraying the factors and their properties reveals their systemic relation.

2.5 Systemic Constellations Analysis

According to systemic principles, a constructivist approach provides a second order understanding of a phenomenon (Birkenkrahe, 2009). Seeing systems as constellations advances higher order understanding. Applying systemic principles to a system places the focus on the human aspects of it. Thus, to advance the higher order systemic understanding of employee motivation, constellation analyses were conducted.

The aim with the constellation analyses, they way they are conducted in this study, is to advance higher order systemic understanding by a) acknowledging the workings of systems and b) exploring the reciprocity of core factors and the properties in relation to the four generative questions.

This aim expressed in more detail was to:

1) Portray the categories (de-motivating and motivating factors) as elements of constellations.

2) Make the relations, patterns and entanglements between the categories visible and examine their reciprocity.

3) Make unconscious and invisible issues visible.

4) Advance a higher order systemic understanding of factors that influence service employees' motivation to live up to value promises.

When the identified issues that were categorised as the core factors and their properties – were portrayed as elements in constellations, recognisable patterns between them can became visible. For example, when two seemingly independent factors, such as *management resist changing mode and stance of management* (1.c.3) and *service employees not able to serve well* (1.a.3), were examined as core categories and/or properties of a constellation related to each other, unconscious patterns, relations or entanglements, may emerge. When these are made visible they seem obvious. This helps people involved understand how, e.g., these two in fact are interdependent as well as their reciprocal influence. This enables making decisions about corrective action. In this example, as the two are de-motivating factors, entanglements between people involved may become visible. In practice, entanglements – complicated or compromising relationships – imply negative emotional involvement and hence, "fuss" that may emerge. This fosters de-motivation.

Four constellation analyses were conducted, and are discussed in Chapter 3. Three of these analyses depict de-motivating constellations; one depicts a motivating constellation. These constellations portray the issues that became categorised into factors and thus depict "collectively" experienced issues.

Examining the core categories, as reciprocal issues or elements in constellations, non-linear cause-effect (the cause/effect not being predetermined) relations, patterns and/or entanglements become visible and this furthers systemic understanding. For the purpose of analysis, an adapted version of a systemic diagram by Horn and Brick (2009: 15) showing the simultaneous and reciprocal effects of the elements in a constellation is used, placing the generative questions in the centre of each constellation.

The systemic analyses conducted in this study are not to be confused with personal constellations interventions. Doing constellation interventions are systemic group interventions using spatial representations of the system elements (Birkenkrahe, 2009; Horn and Brick, 2009; Green, 2003; van den Berg 2007) as experienced by one of the persons involved. In the systemic constellations analyses conducted here, the "spatial representation" is done using the diagram (on paper), and I chose the elements. This does not imply that the analyses are less relevant, but the analyses depict my view of the constellation.

It is important to note that the arranging of the categories and properties in the cause-effect-cause positions was in these analyses done by me, and might be different if done by another person. The factors are not arranged in any specific order into the diagram and the positions are not locked, but function as examples. The positioning here as such is irrelevant for any other purposes than depicting the working of the constellation, and revealing the systemic relations between the factors. Further, as the study has been conducted as action research, I as the researcher have been highly involved, and thereby this constellation reveals an involved and informed person's experience of these constellations.

2.5.1 The Proceedings of the Systemic Constellations Analysis

In brief, systemic constellations analysis , as applied in this study, proceeds as follows:

a) A chosen set of core categories and their properties are portrayed in circular images as constellations consisting of six elements (factors/properties) where one element is positioned as the root cause and one element as the root effect.

b) Each constellation is related to one of the three generative questions. Note that the generative question is not predetermined to a specific constellation, but each of the generative questions could be asked for all three constellations presented here.

c) The initial non-linear cause-effect-cause, etc. logic of this particular constellation is discussed as to the cause-effect of the particular setting of the elements (factors/properties) in the portrayed constellation.

d) The relations between a set of three elements are discussed in more detail. The relations between the elements are discussed as to de-motivating entanglements and patterns that can be detected. Experiences from the field, i.e., citations from the empirical material, are used to articulate the meaning of the categories

e) Each constellation is discussed relating to the core principle of constellation work, as described below.

The categories and properties portrayed as elements in constellations are illustrated with citations from the empirical sessions. This is done to illuminate the underlying construction of the categories, i.e., the kind of experiences the categories represent.

The principles of systemic constellations adapted for organisational purposes (Birkenkrahe, 2008; Green, 2009; Horn and Brick 2009) function as guidelines for discussing the portrayed constellations. However, the principles are not restrictive as to making conclusions. It is important to keep in mind that the interpretation of the principles and the meaning the different authors give to these principles seem to vary somewhat, but they all draw upon the original work of Hellinger who developed the principles (for family intervention purposes). These principles are:

1) The principle of belonging (systems existence), implies that everyone in the system has a right to belong to it. This principle is violated, e.g., if an employee is excluded by not being properly acknowledged for his/her efforts. In organisational constellations, this principle is examined by asking; who is missing, ignored, forgotten, marginalised or excluded? 2) The principle of time order, which honours the time the members have spent as part of the system. This principle is examined by asking; is the past honoured or acknowledged? Are people treated as objects or with dignity? Is length of service acknowledged? 3) The principle of inverse time order (the reverse of that mentioned above). This principle is examined by asking: do those with privilege and power accept their responsibility to those they serve? For example, new, spin-off systems have weaker borders and need stronger protection. 4) The principle of responsibility, which demands that outstanding achievements are acknowledged, emphasises systemic leadership in also acknowledging unofficial leaders. This principle stresses that competence has the higher position, and can be examined by asking; "who feels responsible for the entire team" (group, function, organisation, etc.). 5) The principle of higher ability supports the development of the abilities/achievements of the individual members. Asking if there is a balance between what people are asked to do and the reward systems can examine this principle. 6) The principle of respect is examined by asking whether recognition is given to those people, at all levels, who go the further mile.

It is however important to note that the literature on constellations for organisational purposes seems to depart from a managerial approach aimed for managers, or "for anyone in a position of responsibility in industry or government" (Horn and Brick 2009), which traditionally is thought of as being the managers. Thus, these principles adopt a managerial perspective, but seem to advance systemic understanding from any perspective. In this case the aim is to advance systemic understanding of employee motivation, from the employees perspective. However, it is assumed that doing constellation analysis this way also furthers managerial (managers') understanding of employee motivation.

2.5.2 The contribution of the Study; Describing the Employee Discourse on Motivation

The term discourse can be confusing as it "is used in various ways within the broad field of discourse analysis" (Fairclough, 2012: 453). In general, discourse refers to written or spoken communication or debate, formal discussions of topics in speeches and writings and connected series of utterances. Social practices are also aspects of discourse. At a concrete level, this refers to social events, which are articulations of diverse social elements, including semiosis, which might include elements such as activities, social

relations, objects and instruments, time and place, social subjects with beliefs, knowledge and values, etc. and semiosis (ibid). Thus, in social practices where interaction occurs, non-verbal communication influences how discourse takes form. It is the social practices in value practices – in relation to motivation that have been explored in this study, as experienced and expressed by employees, and therefore the outcome is the employees' discourse on motivation in value practices.

Non-verbal communication is a form of semiosis (ibid). During the empirical session, the non-verbal communication was expressive. In general, non-verbal communication has many dimensions to it, e.g. the tone of the communication and the bodily expressions. During the empirical sessions, the atmosphere, which underlies and embeds utterances, was also informative. Thus, the substance of the communication, especially the non-verbal, is impossible to completely express and reproduce even by the use of exact citations of utterances made by individuals. Therefore, the citations do not always fully catch the intended meaning. In addition, the atmosphere during the sessions was communication in itself as it reflected current issues on the agenda in the firms. Non-verbal communication cues such as smiles, laughs, nodding, frowning, exchanges of significant looks, use of sarcasm, etc. did stress or dilute utterances, but are impossible to depict here without picturesque language and detailed stories, or spatial dynamic settings of the constellations. However, the atmosphere and non-verbal communication cues have influenced the categorisation, and in this respect the reader is left with the researcher's judgment as the research tool, as to the relevance of the categorisation.

Discourse draws upon a multitude of heterogeneous forms of verbal utterances and semiosis that constitute our social world. The discourse of this thesis strives to reflect the employee discourse, and does perhaps use a more humane language than the language commonly used in service research. It may seem alien and distressing for some, but it strives to be more humane and less strict and technical. This is argued to be relevant as the thesis strives to illuminate employees' authentic lived realities, grounded in their work-life experiences, with the emphasis on systemic and thus humane aspects. This description of an employee discourse on motivation, by giving an authentic voice to the "owners" of their motivation, is the main contribution of this thesis to service research and IM.

To become conscious about experiences, and thus understand their underpinning mechanism may have emancipatory effects. This refers to "emancipating people from the determination by habit, custom, illusion and coercion which sometimes frame social practice" (Kemmis, in Reason and Bradbury 2001:92). Thus, describing the employee discourse on motivation may contribute to advancing consciousness of a need for an employee discourse within service research. If put into practice such a discourse may advance emancipating service research from its current somewhat managerial hegemony and elitist stance.

Marketing research is little influenced by discourse analyses (Skålen, 2010), and therefore Skålen outlines a discourse analytical framework for marketing research. This framework suggests the following key-notions; turning points, significant changes in marketing discourse, problematisation; the occurrences that lead to a turning point, articulation; which redirects the meaning of marketing discourse, nodal points; the privileged signs of marketing discourse that give it coherent meaning, hegemony; the world-view inherent in an articulation that dominates marketing discourse and deconstruction; the activity of displaying that the hegemony of marketing discourse is

contingent and that it can be articulated differently. These work well to articulate the contribution of this study.

In this work the employees' discourse that is described is done so in relation to the managerial discourse, it is embedded in and departs from. The assumptions of the managerial discourse do in practice embed employees' work-life practises. The two, employees and management, are currently commonly still discussed in opposing positions. In service research, (as the discussion in Chapter 4 reveals) employees are by and large placed in a subordinate position. Employees seem to be regarded as an important, but "silent resource". In practice employees still seem to lack, or have only limited, agency to express opinions in regards to their own work and the development of practices.

Seen in light of the discourse analytical framework Skålen (2010) suggests, the contribution of this study is summarized in relation to the key notions, expressed in the left column of the table, of his suggested framework as follows:

Table 4 Key notions of the employee discourse

Key notions	The Employee Discourse
Turning points	This study contributes with a turning point to service research in suggesting an employee discourse. This turning point is anchored in previous turning points in service research. Previous paradigm shifts in service/marketing research and literature relate to the *relationship approach*, followed by the *marketing-as-practices* and *value discussion* that note *employees as value construction/ value destruction facilitators*, i.e. employees *articulated* (SL) and *unarticulated* (SDL) function and role in value practices as value facilitators.
Problematization	The problematization in this study draws upon the notion in the literature of motivated employees, as a prerequisite for "customer service work", and notes a lack of research and literature on employee motivation within its frames. In particular it notes that employees have no or little agency to express themselves in regards to motivation in the managerial discourse, as a flaw and problem.
Articulation	The service (managerial) discourse articulates a need for motivated employees in relation to e.g. value creation but fails to articulate the meaning of motivation in relation to practices and employees experiences. Motivation remains a normative prescription, and a somewhat empty concept. In addition the managerial discourse assumes that managers can order employee subjectivity towards motivation.
Nodal points	Motivation as a concept needs to be given meaning. Current motivation science suggests motivation is a subjective and autonomy seeking, emotional and mental, intrinsic process. Therefore to give motivation, as a concept, meaning, given that employees are regarded human beings (which this study assumes), the subjects that need to be motivated need to express, and articulate the meaning of motivation, because the concept "employee motivation" is within the domains of employees.
Hegemony	The relation between motivation and the subject, i.e. the employee in the managerial discourse is hidden because the employee is discussed as an object in literature, and often treated as an object in practice. The subject is silent in the service discourse. Silenced or perhaps just ignored? Thus the managerial discourse is hegemonic towards employees.
Deconstruction	By describing the employees' discourse on motivation, as experienced by employees, in the value practices context, a deconstruction of the managerial hegemony is initiated, because motivation becomes owned by the subject, and contrary to previous assumptions in the literature management cannot control and manipulated employees, given that motivation really is considered significant. Employees determine themselves what motivate them, in a given context, and that is beyond control of managers.

Thus the employee discourse that this study describes contributes by deconstruction the service management discourse in questioning that what is "treated as taken for granted, self- evident and given by nature" (Skålen, 2010: 107). I.e., the current managerial discourse in service research, which draws upon an vast body of research informed by managerial assumptions, in relation the non-existent employee discourse, reveals its' inherent managerial hegemony.

Currently as marketing-as-practices is a prevailing view and underpins the value discussion, which dominates the marketing discourses, it seems highly relevant to balance the discourse; to deconstructing it by introducing new elements, in this case with input from value practices and the employees that live these practices. One specific example of deconstruction is to question the myth of *change resistance* among employees, i.e. change resistance as something inherent, given by nature that exist in employees that managers are supposed to "manage".

The employee discourse described here may advance the release not only of employees from suppression, but also managers from superiority. It is also possible consciousness of the inherent mechanism of employee motivation, will discharged service literature from the assumptions of *management and control*, which seldom seem to be functioning means in human interaction. The initiation of an articulated employee discourse, by problematizing the lack of it in service research, is thus suggested to be a turning point in service research, perhaps towards the human service logic that this study suggests. Describing the employee discourse on motivation can be seen as initial steps in deconstructing the prevailing managerial discourse in relation to employees.

3 THE EMPIRICAL GROUNDING OF THE EMPLOYEE DISCOURSE

This chapter answers research questions one, two and three and depicts the empirical grounding of the HSL and its PI model. It departs by first discussing the empirical grounding of the initial working hypotheses that emerged out of the empirical sessions that covered problems related to implementation of marketing strategies and ideas. It exemplifies the initial coding, which also describes how the coding occurred in general, throughout the course of the analyses process. It then presents and elaborates on the initial working hypotheses of the study.

Second, it depicts the theoretical grounding of the initial working hypotheses, i.e., the theoretical sampling, which was directed by the emerging theory, by discussing theory on implementation, strategising and contextualization. How these were used as informants in the abduction is revealed. The discussion then returns to the empirical grounding and reveals the study's turning point, i.e., how the empirical material directed the shift from a more general research approach, towards exploring what motivates employees to live up to value promises, from an explicit employee perspective.

Third, it explores management's perceptions of problems related to implementation and employee motivation. It then presents and discusses the identified issues categorised as demotivating and motivating factors, depicted in tables 5 and 6. The discussion is finalized by systemic constellation analyses of the demotivating and motivating factors, portrayed as elements in constellations.

This discussion strives to depict the empirical grounding, and the manner in which theoretical sampling, and the use of theoretical informants occurred during the course of analyses and thus how the employee discourse on motivation that this thesis describes, is grounded. Extracts and citations from the empirical sessions are presented throughout the discussions to demonstrate how, why and from where early concepts and categories were derived.

3.1.1 The Empirical Grounding of Initial Working Hypothesis

The empirical grounding of the categorised demotivating and motivating factors, and their properties, are depicted by a comprehensive discussion on the initial working hypothesis of the study, which was formulated as follows; "Traditional implementation of marketing ideas may impinge negatively on employees' motivation". This example illuminates how the analyses proceeded and how working hypotheses emerged out of the empirical material, throughout the course of the analyses. Goulding (1999) emphases the importance of, when using GT as the analyses method in theory development, not only to demonstrate how early concepts emerge, but also how these were abstracted, and how compatible literature is incorporated.

The initial working hypothesis in this study was initially coded during case one. During case II it formed a tentative presumption, and underpinned the analyses. The initial working hypothesis was supported by employees' experiences also in case II. Issues that were captured in both cases at an early phase of the research indicated that the mode and stance in which implementation occurred, and new strategies, concepts and ideas were introduced, per se increased the challenges for employees to live up to promises.

Drawing upon the issues the employees articulated during the empirical session it seemed that the managerial mode and stance did leave employees with a feeling of "promises are impossible to keep" (initial category, maintained its status and became factor 2.a.1), because the stance, by and large, was experienced by employees as excluding.

3.1.1.1 Empirical indicators of the initial working hypotheses

At an early phase of the research process some specific issues started to emerge during the empirical sessions, as well as out of the (transcribed) material when exploring it between the sessions. These were coded as initial categories. These issues related often to emotional states employees experienced in value practices. Here the initial categories are marked with italics.

One frequently appearing issue was the mention of a state of *confusion*, which seemed to relate to *information* of varying kind (vague, to much, fuzzy).

Confusion and information related to unawareness of promises (consequence), which seemed common. Gradually a picture of the "*implementation challenge*" (initial core category) started to take form, as an image of interrelated issues. Both these appeared at an early stage of the research, and later these categories became "verified" as demotivating factors, (verified in the sense that they did appear in a variety of context and in different groups). Thus, I started to explore these (empirical indicators) further in relation to *motivation*, yet another category that appeared early during the analyses. At the point were a number of initial categories had emerged I started to look for how employees expressed connections between the categories.

The material revealed that employees experienced "*implementation*" mainly as *information* that was coming from above (from managers), in a "to inform" manner. It was at times experienced to occur in a somewhat arrogant/annoying stance, as is revealed in the following citations:

> "The way of informing, it is mostly a paper machinery"
>
> "The thing is that they first announce the concepts to the press, and then employees onboard are informed"
>
> "It seems as the information is becoming more and more blurred, more papers and information… it is confusing … and the employees do not feel well if they cannot do their work"
>
> "Plenty of non -targeted information, statistics no one reads"

One reason for unawareness about strategies, etc., was apparently the selected mode, i.e., "traditional" implementation. Employees experienced *strategies as too abstract,* and *promises as fuzzy* and, at times*, impossible to keep*. This combined with the notion that employees experienced the *communication as dysfunctional*, e.g., the obtrusive communication mode seemed to reinforce the feeling of unawareness of what was promised.

When listening closely to employees it seemed that when *implementation* followed "*traditional linear*" models and modes that separate (strategic) planning from practices, and thus distinguishes strategic- and operational-level work as two separate phases, a gap between planning and practices emerge, which reinforced employees' *confusion*.

Further already the initial analyses indicated that in the employees' experience, *participation* in *developing ideas* and *promises* would reduce this kind of confusion. *Unity* and the need for unification of the firms' action towards customers were other issues that appeared in both cases, which seemed to influence motivation positively. These were empirical indicators of motivating factors that became code and included in initial concept models. This was the initial step in coding, i.e., the discovery and naming of categories such as *confusion* and *information,* which appeared frequently and seemed to make a difference to the participants. Thereafter I started to look further into these issues, looking for conditions, consequences, interconnection and strategies, i.e., a coding paradigm.

3.1.1.2 The mode and stance of implementation and confusion

Here the coding is exemplified in more depth. Following GT principles conditions, consequences, strategies and interaction (the coding paradigm) are marked in the citations, and the categories are marked again with italics. The intention is to depict the manner in which the coding and thus categorization advanced throughout the analyses.

The "mode" of how ideas and value promises were introduced and communicated to employees was one of the initial categories that emerged out of the material. The mode seemed to have an influence on employees' awareness of promises and whether employees experienced any motives to act upon them. The following short extract (Case II) depicts a common experience, i.e., the employee being more or less totally unaware (at the time) of a current brand promise:

R: Are you aware of the marketing strategy and the promise "first choice"?
Employee: No. (laughter, little embarrassed)
R: It was launched last February …? (Approximately a year ago)
Employee: Okay?
R: But it does not affect your work then?
Employee: No … not really … (conversation continues and employee shifts subject)

In this situation the sign of embarrassment (consequence), and the frank answer of not knowing (condition) about this particular brand promise indicated an unawareness of it (consequence). This clearly had an emotional and cognitive aspect to it, and the "does not relate to my work" as "confessed" by the employee, seemed to be a strategy to cope with emotions of embarrassment or confusion and also a consequence of not understanding the promise. Also the "okay?" indicated a "not my concern" (another initial code). It seemed rather clear that this person lacked a motive to act upon the particular promise discussed (consequence).

This was interesting, as the person seemed motivated towards work in general; "*positive motivation*" (another initial category coded prior to analyzing this piece of empirical material) and mostly employees spoke very positively of customers and their willingness to serve them. At an early point *serving customers* was coded as an initial category. It is highly likely that this person had been informed about (interaction) the promise and the strategies it drew upon, but still had no conception of it (consequence). This particular promise seemed to have no relevance to this employee who worked in customer service because he lacked notion of it. Thus, ungrounded promise (consequence) became another category. Drawing upon this and similar material an initial relation between motivation and informing was noted.

Having noted that employees with similar experiences, did not seem demotivated in general, and showed no signs of cynicism or "change resistance"[11], but still were confused about the ideas "*coming from above*" (management) a relation between demotivation and information was noted in the conceptual indicator model. A relation between *motivation* and customer *serving customers* was also note in the model. It was highly interesting to note that on a general level, the participants showed signs of motivation (positive emotions) in particular in relation to serving customers, but not in relation to living up to promise.

The comments below reveal similar experiences:

> "Some promises are impossible to execute (consequence). Maybe it is that too much is promised to the customers (condition)?" (Employee, Case I)

> "Marketing comes up with all kinds of ideas (condition) … there should be time to digest all ideas and enact them (interaction)… now the seal is confused (consequence)" (Employee, Case I)

> "The red thread is lacking (condition), ashore they really do not know what they are talking about (condition), and their advertisings and sales arguments … (condition) Well, these expectations that they build among customers are hard to keep as the red thread is lacking (consequence)" (Employee, Case I)

And

> "We lack cross-functional knowledge (interaction/condition) and specific knowledge (condition), or then perhaps we cannot promise anything because we do not know what to promise…(consequence)?" (Employee, Case II)

Such *unawareness of marketing ideas* (initial category) and promises and/or experiences of *impossible promises* (initial category) and *confusion* (initial category) about what should be promised turned out to be rather common among employees, even if they had been *informed*. In both cases, information, as a part of implementation, was generously provided. It seemed, however, that <u>how</u> information was provided had an influence on the experience of being aware or not. This was coded as *the mode*. Indeed, employees experienced that they were more or less flooded with information (condition), but its digestion failed (consequence). Unawareness of promises was experienced as *confusing*, and this influenced *motivation*.

Training, on the other hand, was something employees experienced that could foster motivation, if it was of the "the right kind". For example, without proper training, employees found it challenging to live up to whatever was promised:

> "The trainings (strategy) should provide us with tools that help us keep what is promised to customers" (consequence) (Group work conclusion during empirical session, Case I)

Being included in the development of ideas, i.e., agency to participate was another commonly experienced motivator:

> "At best, when you get people to develop things themselves (condition) they will then gladly do those things (consequence). But when it comes decided upon already (condition) and stated that beginning from some specific date we'll do in this or that way it's really hard to make it work (consequence). That is … you cannot start doing new things just like that … (condition) but it requires a longer process (strategy) to make it work and to see whether it is doable at all. If we were allowed to think and participate in development (condition), then things would work smoothly (consequence)" (Employee, Case I).

[11] Change resistance seemed to be a somewhat common assumption among managers if new ideas encountered obstacles (among employees) during phases of implementation.

Further, contrary to being included and having the right to *participate*, it seemed that employees strongly experienced that imposed ideas, coming from above, *excluded* them from their own work. Solely being *informed* about *already decided* upon ideas seemed to be without effect as the ideas lacked the grounding among employees, and thus a motive. The types of experiences that were common and appeared frequently in the empirical material, such as different aspects of informing / providing information/ imposing ideas was scrutinized closer.

Imposing vertically

An imposed idea, as a category, clearly had an relation to how "informing" occurred, i.e., *the mode of implementation*. When employees experienced they were merely *informed* (property to mode) without being included (condition) they found it *obtrusive*. Such imposing was noted to occur not only from the "top down", but also horizontally, between functions, also by employees themselves. The following citations illustrate an example of this type:

> "I feel bad about one thing we did ... it was a system we designed once, ... it did not bend, it was inflexible, but we just decided (strategy) without asking those who were going to use it (condition) , and this caused quite a few fights ...(consequence) I have a bit of a bad conscience (consequence) about that."

Thus, imposed ideas, both vertically and horizontally, seemed to be a factor having a negative impact on motivation (conclusion). A consequences of this was *failed implementation* (an initial category), which related to *complications* in living up to promises. Such issues did according to employees reflect to customers (consequence) in face-to-face service encounters.

In the extreme, the effects seemed to be experienced among employees as *sore points* in customer interactions. These were manifested as (negative) co-experiences of unease, (mainly on the employees' side) and possible discontent (on the customers' side). Such *sore points* would constitute a *shared negative experience* between the employee and the customer. Thus, employees in these customer interactions became *problem owners* of the issues related to the problems of the implementation of marketing ideas, as they were experiencing the immediate effects of these, while being direct *responding parts* to the customers' experiences. Such direct co-experiences between employees and customers were far from managerial perception, as they had less contact points with customers. This is illustrated in the following citation:

> "Let's say that we need a system for planning that would let sales know about new products (strategy) ... systematically ... I don't mean that the product manager would have to run around the country and tell about new products ... but we would need to plan how every human being in sales would get to know what they need to know (condition) ... I have run across this problem when they launch new products (strategy/others) and the customer calls and says he read from the paper about some new stuff (consequence). And then there is panic.... (consequence) is the magazine already in distribution, where, who gets it (conditions)? And then you search for it (strategy) and information about the product. I really dare say honestly that with 50,000 items, I have learned only half of them and I have been in this house for 20 years!" (Employee Case II)

This type of complications relating to implementation, as experienced by employees, placed the focus of the study on both promises and employees' motivation, and the relationship between the two. Based on these kinds of "promise related implementation challenges" that were identified, the initial working hypothesis was defined. This initial working hypothesis is discussed in regard to its theoretical grounding, i.e., how theoretical sampling occurred and advanced the analyses.

Unawareness seemed to impact on motivation because employees in practice had experiences of ending up in *uncomfortable situations* in service encounters because they were unable to live up to what was promised. This was experienced as *stressful*.

To be allowed to *participate* in development, on the other hand was considered advantageous, and a *basic level of awareness* of new ideas etc. was considered imperative. Relating to this *internal co-operation* was emphasised:

> "In my opinion the cooperation between the product managers and salespeople is missing (condition). I think that the product manager should have some kind of training and have internal sales responsibility (strategy)... the sales manager should sell and market to the salespeople (strategy) – that internal customer-ship – I think that is missing almost entirely (consequence)." (Employee, Case II)

In practice, the concept of implementation seems to be in common use and, to some extent, may still follow traditional distinct phases. If implementation is adopted according to somewhat traditional procedures, employees may remain, as employees' experiences indicate, in a confused state. The employees' confusion is then reflected in customer interactions. If, in line with the current value discourse, employees are supposed to act as value facilitators and are confused about the value idea and its promises, it may complicate emotion work in value practices in accordance with the ideas. The employees' conception of their "customer value facilitating role and activities", i.e., matching marketing ideas, may remain blurred.

If implementation in practice meant merely informing about and thus imposing ideas (in the experience of employees), this seemed to create and reinforce a gap between plans and what actually occurred in practice. Ultimately, this put employees in the "line of fire", encountering disappointed customers in contact-points. This was experienced not only as uncomfortable, but demotivating.

This discussion has strived to depict how initial coding occurred and how an initial concept-indicator model was constructed. A great many of such concept indicator model were constructed throughout the analyses process. These directed the coding of the empirical indicators that appeared during the earlier phases of the research, and new concept indicator models, as to factors and properties, were made throughout the study. At the beginning the coding was open and unfocused as issues emerged out of the empirical material numerous were coded as initial categories. As Goulding (1999: 12) claims the researcher "may identify hundreds of codes which could have potential meaning and relevance". The codes are building blocks of theory and those that seem relevant become selected to be further explored (ibid). This is how the analyses process proceeded and out of the initial numerous categories the number of codes was reduced and grouped until the relevant categories became categorized as demotivating and motivating factors (see Tables 5 and 6). During the analyses and the memoing phase many "maps" of the initial categories were made. The material was explored as Goulding suggests (ibid) in regard to; what is happening in the data, what is the basic socio-psychological problem, what accounts for it, and what patterns are occurring here.

3.1.1.3 Theoretical Grounding of the Initial Working Hypotheses

This section discusses the theoretical grounding of the initial working hypotheses. According to Goulding (1999) GT analyses include theoretical sampling, i.e., finding theoretical informants that illuminate the emerging categories in relevant ways.

Initially "the researcher will go to the most obvious places and the most likely informant in search for information" (ibid: 9). This is precisely what occurred in this research when theories of strategy implementation were used as an initial theoretical informant. This provided with some relevant information, simultaneously as the empirical process advanced, pushed by the emerging theory. Here this informant is discussed by briefly elaborating on the meaning of traditional implementation, which should illuminate how this informant contributed to the analyses. Another theoretical informant that was applied was strategizing literature.

The empirical and theoretical anchoring did not proceed as separate phases, but were highly intertwined. During the first phase of the research implementation literature was highly present in the analyses even if they are here discussed separately. The coding and categorization of employees' experiences was throughout the study done by constant, simultaneous scanning of literature for illuminating answers as well as search for other relevant, compatible literature, as informants.

To implement

The root meaning of the verb 'to implement' refers to enforcing and executing (Collins, 1984), and implies acts and performance necessary to carry agreed proposals or projects into effect or ensure them being put into action (Webster's New Dictionary of Synonyms 1984). This implies the use of authority and the use of executive power, as well as other means given to maintain order and security (Collins, 1984).

It seemed that the more "affective" the promises, the more complicated its implementation was: Consequently the more affective the promise, the more challenging for employees it seemed to live up to, in particular if they lacked a clear perception of its meaning (which seemed to be rather often). For example, if the firm communicated to its customers that "our employees create a wonderful atmosphere", and placed fuzzy and implicit expectations on employees' performance in regard to this promise, or employees were unaware of the promises made by other functions, delivery, and "value facilitation" was endangered. Drawing upon the employees' experiences it seemed that one reason for complications regarding implementation was the process itself, i.e., the mode in which the process was managed.

Traditional implementation, i.e., converting the strategy into plans and, thereafter, the planned levels into coordinated action programs, specifying schedules of actions, goals and quotes, the checkpoints and the milestones for various units of a firm is traditionally seen as a distinct phase of strategic work is strategy literature. Implementation according to its traditional definition is about translating strategies and plans "into resource budgets in terms of men, materials, money and space needed to support the programs. The action programs and the resources form the basis for profit budgets – measures of the net costs – accomplishment effectiveness of the proposed performance levels" (Ansoff, 1967:6-7, quoted in Mintzberg 1994: 67). This draws a sharp line between strategic work and operations. The literature on strategy is still dominated by views that separate formulation from implementation, predisposing focus upon top managers (Jarzabkowski, Balogun and Seidl, 2007).

Within the marketing research field, implementation of marketing strategies had received scant attention as a separate research topic focusing mainly on the content of strategies (Bonoma and Crittende, 1988). As a consequence of this, the implementation process has been poorly understood within the marketing field (Noble and Mokwa, 1995), and insights into marketing implementation processes were hard to come by.

Literature was originated by non-marketing disciplines and was directed toward midsize and large organizations. Therefore, deploying market plans and attaining objectives were considered fundamental challenges (Sashittal and Wilemonn, 1995). It was claimed that the insufficient knowledge on marketing strategy implementation led to execution problems, e.g. management by assumption, global meritocracy, empty promises marketing and program ambiguity, ritualizations, politication, unavailability (Bonoma and Crittende, 1988). Within service research Heskett and Sasser (1997) emphasised two important missing elements in the concepts of strategy as defined by Porter, claiming that people and organisation are elements missing in the traditional view on strategy.

A major advance in marketing strategy implementation research occurred when Noble & Mokwa (1995) shed light upon the importance of the processual perspective of marketing strategy formulation. They claimed that the habitual mode of executing marketing strategy eventually shapes the formulation of the strategy, and this cannot, according to them, be neglected in the implementation phases. This notion implies a relationship between the planning and executing phases of the marketing strategy process. It is important and impacts on its outcome and that formulation in the ultimate follows an emergent rather than linear nature. This is consistent with current suggestions in strategy-as-practices research (Vaara and Whittington, 2012).

At the point of departure for this study, just a few researchers had explored the specific challenges involved in implementing relationship-oriented marketing strategies. A growing need for acknowledging the "translation process" in particular in regards to relationship-oriented strategies was noted, because of their complex nature (Noble & Mokwa, 1999; Piercy, 1998). Indeed, according to Colgate and Dananher (2000), it was essential to recognize that well intended relationship oriented strategies may fail because of poor implementation and therefore the implementation, or translation process required careful attention. One alarming notion they found was the evidence of the fact that unsuccessful implementation may even be harmful to the firm (ibid). In 2002 Rigby, Reicheld and Chefter identified major implementation pitfalls of relationship oriented strategies; a) implementation of technology before creating customer strategies, b) rolling out crm before changing the organization to match, and c) in general relying to much on the technology. In 2007 Osarenkhoe and Bennani, explored implementation of crm strategies and concluded that customer relationship management is a strategic business- and process issue. It is, according to them, a continuous learning process, which sets different requirements on its implementation that deviate from traditional implementation. This notion linked marketing strategy implementation to the meta-level as expressed in e.g., strategy-as-practices.

Thus, the term implementation traditionally draws sharp distinctions between planning and enacting. In practice, as the employees' experienced in this study show evidence off, this seems to complicate the situation for employees in value practice. Implementation as a concept in its traditional meaning seems less applicable in service contexts because of its definition and connotation, while service production and consumption literally merge into one phase in the total service process (Grönroos, 2000). Therefore, the nature of "implementation" differs in service contexts, particularly if there is little or no product present in the total offering, or the offering is more experience dependent. Clearly, if employees are supposed to "do" the promise, i.e., live up to it and facilitate customers in value creation/formation, they need to know what they are supposed to do and what the promise is about.

The traditional view on implementation has been questioned as practice has shown that implementation of ideas may be complicated because "somehow no one ever came to grips with how all this translation of plans into action is supposed to take place" (Minzberg, 1994:62). Because, as he argued, "strategy making must above all take a form of a process of learning over time, in which at the limit, formulation and implementation become indistinguishable" (Mintzberg *et al*, 1998:208). Also, Martin (1998) questioned implementation as a method of translating strategies into practice. They argued that implementation as a means of translating strategies into operations applies a mechanistic and narrow perspective with rather obtrusive control mechanisms and the process relies on giving orders, surveillance and rules, or a division of labour. "Pre- and post-implementation matters, such as the suitability of structural, processual, cultural and human characteristics in relation to the object for implementation" are in their opinion ignored (ibid, 1998:430). Gioia and Chittipeddi (1991) raised the question of the need for a shift of focus in strategic work, from the content to the process. They claimed that a shift in strategies implies a change in organisational culture as well.

Currently the research on strategizing, as a translation process, offers new insight into strategic work. It differs from generally accepted thinking about strategic management and offers new insight on strategies-as-practices, including traditional implementation (Denis, Langley and Rouleau, 2007). In particular it offers distinctive insight into how managers practically construct links between daily micro activities and macro structures (ibid). A strategy-as-practices view, is informed by different theories underpinning the definition on practices and strategists, e.g., network theories, conventionalist theories and social practice theories (Denis, Langley and Rouleau, 2007), and Reckwitz's (2002) definition on practices (Jarzabkowski, Balogun and Seidl, 2007). Such research has mainly focused on "managerial elitist"[12] actors, i.e., such as managing directors, senior managers, chief executive officers etc, whereas other actors have received less attention.

Strategy is considered to be a social practice and enacted enactment through a set of social interaction routines and conversations among managers (Jarzabkowski, Balogun and Seidl, 2007). In the strategy-as-practices discussion three central aspects are discussed and defined; practices, praxis and practitioners are (ibid). Practitioners are those actors that draw upon the praxis and practices to which they contribute (ibid), and commonly in the research practitioners are referred to as the managers. Even if other than top managers are noted as significant actors, operational employees, such as those that participated in this study, have not been given much attention in this research stream. It may be because it has been considered appropriate to let managers define what activity is strategic, which grants managers strategic agency (Jarzabkowski, 2003), and as Jarzabkowski (2005) and Jarzabkowski, Balogun and Seidl (2007) point out, it may be considered that employees lack the strategist function as intentional strategic actors, even if unintentionally doing strategically significant work. Hence, they have not been considered interesting prime actors from a strategic perspective.

Thus, according to the praxis in strategy-as-practice research the actors who have been of interest have mainly been managers, even if the definition of actors is somewhat diffuse. As Jarzabkowski *et al* (2007) claim; "empirically the question of what strategists do will be tied to how researchers define their interest in who is a strategist". In addition, research has mainly remained on the macro level of firms and less focus is put on human action. Therefore by incorporating other actors than

[12] A concept coined by Pettigrew (1992), quoted by Samra-Fredericks (2000)

top manager a contribution towards humanising management and organization research could occur (ibid). Further, by incorporating lower level employees as well as top managers it would be possible to grasp a wider range of practices, e.g., a specific, wider range of know-how (Balogun, 2006). This is done in the current study, and in line with the view of service research where employees are noted as significant part-time marketers (Grönroos, 2000) and customer interaction as strategically important, employees can indeed be considered "strategists" because of their significant position in customer interaction and the practice expertise they behold.

However, in regard to theoretical informants, strategy research was not considered a stream that offered useful insight to this research, because of its preoccupation with the managerial level. Even if strategy-as-practices research suggested that employees might be incorporated as units of analyses in research, it does not seem to have occurred. Strategy practices are considered "discernible patterns of actions arising from habituated tendencies and internalized dispositions rather than from deliberate, purposeful goal-setting initiatives" (Chia and Mackay, 2007: 217). In this literature the patterns of action that are explored are those of managers. Even if the word combination *strategy practices* could imply the inclusion of strategically significant practices, such as customer work, strategizing in its current definition seems to be reserved for the organizational elitists actors and their strategy practices. The *unintentional* (Jarzabkowski, Balogun and Seidl, 2007) actors i.e., employees' and their experiences are not, it seems, commonly considered significant in the strategic research.

However, in practice, as the cases of this study indicate, a different approach may be applied (by some "strategist" such as CEOs, development directors etc.) in including unintentional strategic actors, i.e., employees as strategists, or as providing input in the strategic process.

As the focus in this study is on employees and their experiences, not managers in the first place, the analyses could not be further informed by strategy literature. It was elaborated further drawing upon a) literature on contextualization, as a distinct stream of research on change, and b) the employees' experience analysed in particular in relation to the first generative question "why do they make promises we cannot keep".

Skålen (2000) and Skålén, Quist, Edvardsson and Enquist (2004) suggested that translation of strategies into practice occurs by contextualization. They found that without contextualization change programs in organizations are unlikely to succeed.

3.1.1.4 Contextualization, the Translation of Ideas to Practice

Contextualization concerns the manner in which "the majority of the co-workers in an organization understand and define a concept or change in terms that are shared and accepted" (Skålén, Quist, Edvardsson and Enquist (2004). In contrast to strategizing, contextualization includes explicitly also other actors in the organizations than the management level. Skålen *et al* (2004) found that contextualization is a perquisite for strategic change programs such as QM or HRM (which were the explored ideas in their study), and claimed that without some kind of contextualization strategic ideas may fail to materialize.

Their notion "that it is sometimes difficult for employees to understand and make sense of the somewhat general ideas that HRM and QM stand for" (Skålen *et al* 2004: 2) is

consistent with the findings of this study about employees' experiencing marketing ideas and promises as fuzzy. In addition Skålen *et al*, note, drawing upon Bordie and Brunsson, that practices rest upon institutionalised processes and structures. Therefore, implementation of ideas that are new to the organization may be difficult to implement since the world of ideas and world of practices may differ. This view is consistent with the employee's experiences of complications "after" implementation because when ideas were created in other functions, the ideas did not always, in the employees' experience, seem to fit into practices. Thus, implementation in its traditional meaning, in regards to making employees act upon ideas, seemed to be entangled with impossibilities. Therefore implementation in its excluding mode seemed to have a negative influence on motivation.

In defining contextualization, Skålen *et al* draw upon the idea of sensemaking as defined by Weick. Sensemaking has been defined as placing stimuli into some kind of framework (Starbuck & Milliken, 1988 in Weick 1995:4), or a process in which individuals develop cognitive maps of their environment (Ring & Rands, 1989 in Weick, 1995:5). Weick concludes that sensemaking is grounded in both individual and social activity (ibid:6), and is about a process that leads to a shared meaning.

Contextualization deviates from the logic of traditional implementation as it considers employees' needs for understanding the ideas they are supposed to act upon. Thus, contextualization is quite divergent from implementation, where management authority and control seems to be the prevailing underpinning mode by which implementation, according to traditional strategy literature, is conducted. In the case firms the mode by which implementation occurred varied. It occurred to a large extent by informing, but involved also training, kick-off etc.

Implementation, in the case firms, was elaborated upon with managers in both cases by discussing their current IM processes, because IM according to the TPF covers implementation of marketing ideas. It turned out that IM was perceived differently, and seemed to lack an established conceptual shared definition, among the managers it was discussed with. The reported state of IM varied, not only between the cases (obviously), but also depending on how IM was perceived by different actors within the firms. In Case I the loyalty manager expressed their current situation:

> "Relationship marketing needs to be done both externally and internally. We have been focusing on the external customers, but the same rules apply to the internal customers, we need to treat our people as internal customers".

And,

> "We have not really started the IM yet, our focus has been on creating the strategies and communicating to customers, now we have to start the internal marketing work".

What exactly these different phases (external and internal) referred to is not elaborated upon in depth here, but what seemed rather clear is that employees were not included in regard to creating the ideas, but seemed to be thought of as the objects for the second internal marketing phase.

The CEO expressed her concern about the situation as follows:

> "The challenge is to get the people aligned with this vision. Most of our employees do not really know our basic values yet... How could they perform in accordance with those? The vision and the values go hand in hand, and should be at a conscious level among the employees".

This reveals the CEO's "employee inclusive" stance, which was new to the firm and its people, managers as well as employees. This view deviated from the previous norms and standards in the firm as it suggested some level of "strategic agency" to employees, not determined by hierarchal positions, but by practice expertise and experience. Some other managers shared this stance, e.g., the loyalty manager, quality manager, line manager to name a few, as well as managers onboard the ship. The loyalty manager who was well aware of the challenges related to implementation of the loyalty program expressed this as follows:

> "We should work based on the values and the this vision, but… The majority of our people do not yet know the four major cornerstones for the operations (the values), which makes it hard (for them) to work accordingly … We should all learn to think like this and when you share (the ideas) it is easier .. you are a part of the team, and you speak the same language. This is what it is about, being a part of the team.. doing it in co-operation, all equally important no matter what position you have."

In Case II IM was described as something" everybody does", i.e., the product managers, sales managers, marketing people and the communication department. The communication department was responsible for informing organizational members about strategies, new concept and latest products, and all news about the firm. The personnel magazine and the intranet were used as information channels, in which the relevant information of any kind concerning the firm was available. This ensured that the employees were well informed about what was going on.

In addition, the erstwhile personnel director considered strategic development as a significant HR issue, and emphasised the integration of strategic work into HR. Others in the management group supported this work and "people issues" were emphasised. The focus was on committing and involving the personnel in strategically important work. In its stance this work differed somewhat to previous common procedures in the firm. The following citation, uttered by the development director at the opening of one of this research's empirical sessions, reveals the stance towards employees as "strategists" at the time:

> "This time the strategic process proceeded as it did…. How many of you participated? Only half of you?[13] That is not good – all of you should participate. It is not a question of doing it if you like to! No, everyone is obligated to participate because you have the customer knowledge, and we need to have this knowledge available when strategies are made." (BD director, Case II)

In later discussion with the marketing manager, during evaluations of the *CC process*, the manager perceived the IM process as follows:[14]

> "Now it could be around 70% (in relation to 100 = good) and the situation at the time for the research process it was maybe around 50%, and this is a very rough, non scientific estimation, and of course you always have to improve on this, and you can always get better."

The issues employees experienced in relation to implementation, seemed to relate to the mode of the process, i.e., what occurred in terms of informing etc., and how it occurred (in a linear manner), what seemed to be the socio-psychological problem (the stance), what patterns are occurring (employees were heaped with information and nevertheless remained unaware of the meaning of strategies). It is noteworthy that in both case firms an "employee-inclusive" stance seemed to be emerging and explicitly uttered by some at management level, even if not perhaps shared as a norm, and thus

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[13] Employees replied by raising hands.

[14] Employees' participation in IM was not discussed. The discussion concerned how the firm was "doing" IM in general.

not integrated in practices as yet. However, in case the managers' stance was experienced by employees as hegemonic and order-giving, it impinged their motivation in a negative direction (which does not imply that it was always the case). This notion is supported by resent literature on consciousness in organizational settings. A managerial mindset that draws upon control, authoritative modes and hierarchy is seen as ontological arrogance and unilateral control (Kofman, 2006:112-114). In such environments, people behave in defensive, manipulative and fearful ways (ibid).

In practice, employees seemed to experience both the mode and stance of traditional implementation as insufficient in translating ideas to practice, and this impinges negatively on motivation. This seemed to be because the understanding of the ideas was not ensured. In addition, and as important, employees' need to be able to participate seemed to be ignored. If implementation occurs in a traditional linear (informing etc) mode and in an arrogant, hegemonic stance, it is perhaps not difficult to understand that this may *per se* hinders information "to reach" the intended "audience", as people get offended, and glide into defence and thus block, or shut down their receptors. An "it does not concern me" attitude may in such situations be both a consequence, and a strategy to cope with arrogance. Considering the issues employees experienced in regards to implementation in the light of contextualization, i.e., considering that employees have a need to understand new strategies and ideas, supports the essence of employees' experiences. Consequently, without such translation confusion may emerge.

Hence, at the early phases of the research the initial underpinnings of the developed framework were 1) The empirical material, i.e., employees being highly concerned of not being able to participate in development of what they experienced as their work, i.e., service encounters and the activities that underpin these. 2) The idea of contextualisation i.e., recognising and emphasising the need for shared understanding of ideas was incorporated into the emerging framework. The adductive work did also embrace the reasons put forth in previous research in regards of challenges in implementation of marketing strategies. In particular the notion made by Sasser and Heskett (1987) that the "people issue" has been overlooked within research on marketing strategy implementation was relevant.

Based upon the following the first hypothesis (Hypothesis I) was defined as "People dislike being managed": a) Informed by the contextualization concept as suggested by Skålen *et al* (2004). b) Drawing the notion in the empirical material that a need for contextualization exists when new ideas are introduced. This concerned the stance and mode of management, which seemed to have a significant influence on employee motivation. c) Drawing upon the humanistic approach and its emphasis on experiences and consciousness. Being managed implies being bypassed and excluded from development work in regards to one's own work. Based on this tentative aswer (assumption), the research process advanced answering the suggestive questions one and two: 1) Why do they make impossible promises, and 2) Why are we not included? By answering these questions, factors that employees experienced to influence on motivation were identified.

A suggestive conclusion was then made; traditional implementation and traditional management may have a negative influence on employees' motivation (to live up to promises in value practices), as these to their underpinning assumptions fail to consider the need for contextualization, and do have a mode and stance that is excluding of employees. However, contextualization did not seem to fully cover what employees were experiencing: Their sincere wish to be included in creating promises and development work.

The empirical categories that emerged directed the theoretical sampling further in regard to the use of theoretical informants. In GT analyses, according to Goulding (1999), theoretical sampling is not determined to begin with, but is directed by the emerging theory. Following this principle humanistic management and co-workership were incorporated as informants. These were found to be compatible literature that offered insights that reflected the issues that were identified and the emerging categories that were being coded (and gradually developed into the demotivating / motivating factors): Humanistic management in particular for its practical ontology and humanistic stance, co-workership for its mode in regard to work. These theoretical fields are discussed in detail in Chapter 4. Next the "turning point" towards the explicit employee perspective and motivation as the central theme is discussed in more detail.

3.1.2 The Turning Point - Whose Reality are we Explicitly Looking at?

Change was a constantly recurring issue during the empirical session. It seemed to relate to many of the emerging categories, which as such is not surprising, as implementation is about introducing new strategies etc. and thus imply change. What was spectacular, however, was perhaps the emotional intensity the participants showed towards the issue. The positive attitude among employees towards change in general surprised me, and the frustration and confusion as to how (mode) change occurred was evident:

> "Changes… Well when they (management) make these changes sometimes you wonder why they don't ask us anything, because we do the work, and we know, but always someone else decides … and sometimes we get the information very late … some new thing should be working like yesterday and we get the information today…" (Employee, Case II)

In situations of change, when the aim is to, in some respect, transform organisational practices, employees are still in practice and in current theory sometimes assumed to "suffer from" change resistance. In the light of the discussion above such "change resistance" may have several reasons that do not necessarily relate directly to employees and their attitudes, but can be caused e.g., by the lack of contextualization as suggested by Skålen *et al* (2004).

In the cases of this study employees seemed in practice to experience both unawareness of promises as well as confusion about strategies, and what was expected of them. Still they seemed motivated in general. Exploring these issues in more depth revealed a relation between motivation and change, but also a relation between demotivation and keeping promises. The following extract depicts a fairly common experience among employees:

> R: So does this latest "thing" the "XXX" promise then affect your work?
> E: "No … not really. I do the kind of work that I am on my own … own clique or I don't know, well you know … but changes, everything changes in a fast tempo and it's how it is today, it would be more frightening if nothing would happen. Yes, it is a sign of life, changes in companies nowadays; it is a sign of progress, a sign of life." (Employee, Case II)

When discussing change in general with employees there were no real signs of resisting ideas as such. It seemed rather to be about being confused, and even more about being unaware of ideas and expectations on performance. However, the reasoning about employees resting change seemed rather well-established among managers. Change resistance seemed to be a common construction in the managerial discourse in practice, with some level of established truth-value. Employees' "change resistance" seemed to have become some kind of a scapegoat. When referring to "employees

resisting change", managers seemed to refer to some kind of general state of unwillingness to change, employees "suffered from".

However, exploring employees' experiences regarding change and whether they resisted it revealed a different picture: The "resistance" seemed clearly to be relative to "blurred ideas", embedded in states of confusion, and the stance by which employees were encountered by some managers. Furthermore, employees, in their turn, experienced that managers were the ones resisting change. Looking at change resistance from the employees' perspective, "management resisting change" (demotivating factor 1.c.3.) became categorised and eventually noted as a core factor. It was frequently referred to, and was experienced as a highly frustrating issue among employees. According to the employees' experiences, managers often seemed to ignore their ideas, refusing to note these ideas as valuable for development purposes. Thus, looking at the issue closely "change resistance" became a question of perspective, relative to whose angle things were explored from. Employees mostly seemed very eager to contribute with ideas and concerned about finding solutions to practical problems in customer work. Hence, grounded in the manner in which managers according to the employees ignored their competences, they experienced that managers' resisted change. This really seemed to be a problem for the employees, and it seemed to relate to motivation.

Thus, scrutinizing closely the relations between the early categories implied a substantial gap between employees and managers in regard to how "realities" were experienced, and consequently the *gaps in maps of reality* category (2.c.1) was eventually coded. It seemed that employees were at a disadvantage in regard to interpretations about socio-psychological issues that concerned them. It seemed that they lacked ownership of their work and a voice in regard to how they experienced e.g., change. Rather than discussing the issues from the employees' perspective it seemed common, both in theory and practice, to make conclusions by observing employees behaviour from an a priori determined angle, without asking them. Based on this coding the perspective of the study took a turn, and set out to explore the employees' experiences about what motivates them to live up to promises in value practices. Thus, the initial question remained but now explored from another angle, departing from practices, taking the perspective of the "owners" of these practices.

Traditionally, management literature approaches organisational issues from a managerial perspective. Bearing in mind that methods and methodologies have their "raison d'etre" in terms of interest guiding their quest for knowledge (Kemmis, in Reason and Bradbury, 2001:93), the traditional interest of service research, which is a managerial discourse, is consequently mainly managerial. In accordance with the interest of this study, which adopts an approach that deviates from the managerial one, a familiar phenomenon such as change resistance may find other than the obvious (managerial) explanations. Hence, "change resistance" as experienced by employees, was located with managers, not with employees as commonly assumed in managerial literature. When management reasoned that "employees sometimes resist change" (Cases I and II), employees seemed to think the opposite; i.e., management resist change. However, given their traditional organisational hierarchical position, employees had a "weaker voice" and less official power, i.e., agency to express such concerns. In addition there is little mentioned about management's change resistance in the managerial jargon.

To conclude, at an rather early point of the research the analyses directed the research towards paying closer attention to employees' experiences explicitly. The empirical

material indicated a relation between failed implementation (i.e., employees not being aware of promises) and motivation. Therefore, I began exploring employees' experiences of motivation with systemic principles as the guideline, stepping into the cases together with the employees, and living in the cases for a while. The employees' experiences indicated they clearly had a somewhat marginalized position. This gap, and in particular noting the employees' perspective, seemed ignored in research and practice. The logic seemed to follow what current management literature assumes i.e., employees are followers, subordinates to management and thus expected to follow the "chain of command", which consequently left employees hushed.

This discussion has strived to depict the manner in which the analyses advanced and how the emerging categories directed the research further. At this point it has to be mentioned that an extensive amount of material was analysed. This included field notes, transcribed interviews and group sessions, memos, diagrams and conceptual maps etc. In research like this it is impossible to provide full evidence of the findings in "a manner that is immediately accessible to the reader" (Goulding, 1999: 18). By discussing the coding, as done here, I have strived to provide an as clear as possible picture of the logic of the analyses that underpin the HSL framework and its PI model.

About the categorised demotivating and motivating factors

The issues that employees expressed revealed their experiences which gave rise to the generative questions and initiated the categorization. It is important to note that this material and the categorization do not reveal the level of motivation in the case firms. The state and level of motivation in the case firms have not been analysed in this thesis. The experiences employees shared during the empirical sessions and interviews provide examples of factors that have an influence on motivation in both directions.

Even if factors that have a demotivating influence were observed, it is not implied that the motivation among employees in general was poor in the case firms. Evaluating the level of motivation is not the focus of this study. In general, the level of motivation seemed to be "good", but a lot of issues did impact on motivation nevertheless, and the constellations in practice consisted of both demotivating and motivating factors.

According to humanistic principles experiences are contextual. To be able to relate employees' experiences and to understand the context in which these were experienced, the management's perceptions of what seems to be the problem, as to implementing new ideas and what in their view influences employees' motivation, provides a relevant reference point. This is obvious because the managerial discourse underpins the social structures that embed employees' experiences. Therefore management's perception of what seems to be the problem is discussed next.

3.1.3 Management's Perceptions on "What Seems to be the Problem"?

This discussion draws upon themes that emerged out of the transcribed empirical material on discussion conducted with managers throughout the study (coded according to GT principles). Related to this, management's perception of employee motivation is also discussed. Numerous themes emerged during the analyses, but only the core categories are discussed here.

This discussion reveals social structures in the firm that management believed influence implementation of new strategies and ideas, i.e., change in general, as well as

employees' work in value practices and employee motivation. These issues framed discussions on "what seems to be the problem" that were conducted with managers.

The aim of the discussions with managers was to reveal their perception of the mode of management, i.e., how management "is done/should be done", and the stance management adopts towards employees. 'Mode' refers to the manner in which something is done, occurs or is experienced, i.e., how we do management around here. 'Stance' refers to the attitude management adopts towards employees and value practice, i.e., how we think of employees and their work in value practices.

In describing the employees' discourse on motivation, it is relevant to understand management's perceptions of mode (of management) and stance (towards employees) even if employees' experiences are in the limelight, because motivation is seen here as contextual. Employees' work-life practices are, in general, influenced and determined by managerial control and, therefore, employee motivation, at least in regards to extrinsic factors, are relative to the local mode of management and the stance that management has towards employees. Therefore, relating and analysing employees' experiences to management's perceptions may advance understanding of employee motivation.

Case I

Manager's perceptions of mode of management and stance towards employees in Case I are presented as common themes that emerged during the discussions with managers. These themes presented briefly here draw upon: a) Discussion with 11 managers on-board the ship and ashore in different functions in the firm (the CEO, line director, loyalty manager, quality manager, marketing, shipping and personnel directors, and managers from all three functions onboard, one restaurant manager) during the pilot phase of the process. b) Discussions with these managers that occurred during the action process. c) The ship management group meetings that I attended during the process.

Five main themes emerged out of the material. Three themes reveal factors that underpin social structures, which in the view of the managers reinforce traditional modes of management. The fourth theme was perceived to be a symptom of demotivation among employees. The first three themes are: 1) history and shipping traditions, i.e., the legacy of longstanding hierarchical management; 2) hierarchical organisational structures that influence the social structures that underpin practice; and 3) the trade union. The fourth theme "on everyone's lips" was the amount of sick leave among personnel, which according to some made the alarm bells ring as it probably indicated some form of demotivation.

Among the managers with whom discussions were conducted, most seemed to be aware of issues that complicate employees' work in value practices, and that the three themes mentioned above are of the kind that they may complicate the implementation of new ideas.

Theme 1: History and shipping traditions were perceived to have a strong influence on practices in general. Their established, quite ridged, norms and values were a legacy with both positive and negative effects. Seen from the employees' perceptive, these traditions did, as some managers pointed out, stand in quite strong contrast to the needs of the hospitality service on board, i.e., restaurants and hotels and the practices of these. For example, the need for accurate timing of information about new campaigns and concepts, and the promises communicated to customers about these

were challenging to meet. The traditional "information route" was perceived to impact on how new ideas reached the operational level. If the traditional and official "chain of command" was followed, with the captain being the decision maker, it could in practice slow down the internal information flow. This could result in new ideas reaching customers before they reached the employees who were supposed to enact these ideas. In addition, the ship management group evaluated new ideas from marketing ashore. The operational employees did not have a role in this evaluation, which also impacted their implementation.

Theme 2: A hierarchical organisational structure was a common theme discussed during the sessions. This theme relates closely to the shipping traditions with almost military-like organisation in hierarchical functions. In terms of safety, this was required, but in terms of customer service, it was perceived to reflect upon the practices in less favourable ways. It reflected a caste like mind-set of social-status. The interaction between different castes, or tribes, was traditionally sparse. This reflected upon the exchange of ideas, and required cooperation underpinning the service chain. This complicated the situation for employees in contact-points, as they should, as expressed by the line director:

> "Now it is like the service chain does not work so well ... the idea is to have a chain that does not break, now ... well I almost need to put the customer into the lap of the next person to take care of the customer and put his arms around the customer so she feels that she is well taken care off... you see it quite often in the service chain, it is broken, there is no stream to it.... The customer should float around in Vaseline." (Manager)

Theme 3: The trade union with its established position did impact decision making, officially and unofficially, on many levels. The trade union was the personnel's advocate in terms of general labour rights (as to wages, holidays, etc.), but had less, or no interest, it seemed, in employees' actual work in value practices. According to some managers, in practice this, at times, meant quite a "stubborn" stance (in dealing with things), where the rights served neither employees nor the conduct of business in general. This was considered to be a consequence of a bundle of issues.

Theme 4: The amount of sick leave was frequently mentioned during the discussions and was on the agenda of the ship management group. The amount of sick leave was perceived as a symptom of demotivation among employees. As an issue, this was taken to be serious and the need for corrective action was recognized.

Theme 5: Customer complaints was the fifth commonly discussed theme. The type and amount of customer complaints was discussed. Customer complaints did, in the view of the managers indicate something about complications in service encounters and in value practices (as defined in this study). Typical complaints were about some specific incidents during one of the service encounters on a cruise or in check-in. Quite a few of the complaints concerned how employees served and treated customers, and these could refer to both technical and functional aspects of quality.[15]

The mode of management in the firm seemed quite traditional and hierarchical, also in the view of managers. The stance that managers applied towards employees varied from "modern" and co-active to more traditional. Some were in favour of including employees as much as possible in decision making, whereas others had not given much thought to it. However, a distinction in the "caste system" as employees expressed it,

[15] Having previously worked as the "complaints handeling person" in the firm for some time, I was fairly familiar with the type of complaints. During the research process I had access to current customer complaints, which served as background information.

i.e., those that think and decide and those that enact and do, was obvious and noticed also among some of the managers and perceived as troublesome. In addition, there seemed to be a common concern about employee motivation among managers. To conclude, much that complicated employees' the work in value practice did, according to managers, seem to be inherent in both organisational and social structures.

Case II

Drawing upon the categorization that was done during case one, as an initial reference point, Case II set out to explore management's perceptions of challenges, particularly those embedded in social structures, which underpin complications for employees acting upon marketing strategies and ideas in value practices.

Eleven discussions with managers in different positions in the firm took place during the pilot, prior to the actual case processes that occurred with employees. Again, discussions with managers were done in order to understand the context that "surrounded" employee motivation.

The challenges managers perceived in Case II are depicted as a drawing, according to SSM principles of rich picture building (to determine the problem, rich picture building was used as explained in Chapter 2). The transcribed interviews were analysed according to SSM principles, and later the drawings were used in the following discussions, when the issues were discussed in more depth.

The larger circles in the drawing depict the core themes. The smaller circles are properties of the larger ones. As the figure reveals, the issues exist in a constellation and no linear cause-effect relationships are revealed in the drawing. All issues somehow relate to each other on some aspect. Therefore, antecedents to some core variable would be hard to determine as the categories may function both as cause and effect in a non-linear manner.

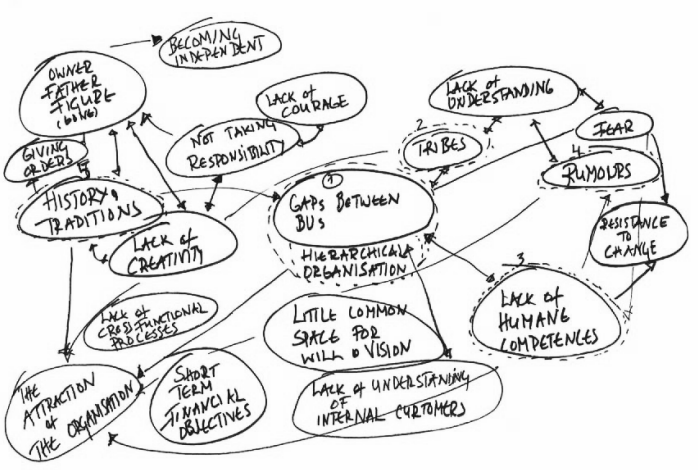


Figure 2 Case II: Management's perception of "what seems to be the problem"

The core themes or categories as illustrated in the drawing are those that were emphasized more in the discussions. Which came first, the core themes or the property, is uninteresting and difficult to determine; they simply exist in relation to each other and feed each other. The arrows indicate expressed and emphasized relationships. Once identified and illustrated in the drawing, all categories and properties were then elaborated upon in terms of what might be the roots of these, where these issues appear, how they appear, etc.

As the drawing reveals, the core categories are: 1) Gaps between different SBUs and a hierarchical organisation; 2) Tribes inside the firm; 3) Lack of human competencies; 4) Rumours; and 5) History and tradition. These were perceived as also influencing the attraction of the organisation (outwards, customers and other stakeholders), which in turn had spill-off effects inwards, and constructed a circular movement, i.e., a constellation.

The core theme of the entire drawing, gaps between different SBUs, is positioned at the centre of the picture. It primarily relates to properties such as lack of understanding of internal customer-ship, lack of shared understanding, lack of cross-functional processes, fear among employees, lack of courage among employees, etc. Studying the drawing, and reflecting on it, best reveals the big picture, because it should be easy to understand as it (should) "makes sense" in describing the managers' "down to earth" experiences of what was going on in the organisation. Of course, this summary does not claim to represent an all-comprehensive "truth", but simply a representation of the constructions of those involved. Depicted as a challenge map (see appendix 3) provides an useful framing of employees' practices, i.e., the context in which employees' experiences are explored. It reveals the context in which employees' motivation is studied, because it mostly is management, due to power constellations, that sets the official tone of the work-life atmosphere in an organisation.

It is also interesting to note that the issues perceived by managers were not all that different from those experienced by employees, expect on one major point: Managers did not seem to note objectification as an issue having an influence on employees' motivation. They did, however, perceive the "order-giving-culture", which to some extent relates to objectifying, as a problem. During the discussions, and afterwards when closely analysing the material, I noted the scope of the distinction in an *'us vs. them'* stance among managers. With a close examination of what was said, and how, and what was left un-said, this theme emerge as an underlying one, even if not explicitly vocalised that often, it was frequently implied.

> "Yes it is precisely that... empowerment. To get the people with you ... it is very simple this ... perhaps it is that we have a different history than Sweden, they have not been in war for a very long time. But we have constant "information bombing" about our wars... This and that war and all that goes with the wars ... so for our freedom you need to bow and be satisfied. Perhaps our (Finnish) leadership is a war legacy, you give orders and orders come from superiors because that is in our history, and it takes a long time for this to change. But perhaps gradually..." (Marketing manager, Case II)

In this case, there was also variation in how management perceived the line between "us and them". Some were very articulate about this line between them; those who work and us in management. Others were more inclusive and saw the "folks" as a 'we', which the citation below depicts:

> "Yes, we need to take care of people internally first, because this is the foundation for customer care. This is like rings on the water, it starts from within, when we are satisfied and its good, then it is easier to work with customers.... Teamwork, an understanding of the team tasks, what I do,

> what the others do, how we co-work, why am I needed, respect, information, communication, to know where we stand and dialogue when it comes to development". (Marketing manager, Case II)

Analyzing the managerial discourse of both cases the "us vs. them" stance and its distinction in managers and employees, seemed to underlay the other themes.

3.1.3.1 What seems to be the problem – us vs. them?

The themes as to mode of management and stance towards employees depicted above are those most commonly discussed among managers in both cases. The themes that managers brought to the fore were quite similar in both cases.

Analysing the management's discourse in relation to complications in implementing marketing ideas and the employees' situation in value practice revealed that the common mode of management seemed to follow quite traditional norms of management. This implies, in the view of this study, that the context in which employee motivation has been explored accordingly, is embedded in rather traditional norms. As said, a distinction in *us vs. them,* i.e., managers and workers, was notable in the discourse. In addition, the existence of different 'tribes' inside the firm seemed to further complicate it for employees in value practices. The 'us vs. them' distinction is, according to some of the managers, by tradition a deeply rooted Finnish cultural legacy, with inherent underpinnings of disciplinary means of control.

> Manager: … so it is the territorial thinking … that is more typical in Finland than in Sweden.
> R: You think?
> Manager: Think. It is! Our organisations are much flatter in Sweden. This might annoy some that maybe think this is bull, but we have flattened the organisations (in Sweden) and, therefore, you need to be attentive and listen to your folks. And that is not how it is in Finland where it is management by perkele. (Manager, Case I)

<u>Us vs. them</u>

Some of the managers were concerned about this distinction, whereas others seemed to have adopted it as a fundamental underpinning of their mode of management and stance towards employees. In the view of some, the partition in us vs. them and in 'thinking and doing' seemed to be established in terms of truth-value. Perhaps, as suggested by some managers, it was an embodied cultural legacy, with well-grounded manifestations in practice, whereas others perceived it as a problem and questioned it. The perception as to accepting or questioning this varied between managers. The first perception is exemplified by the following citation:

> "Our ships are the floating laboratories, the task for the marketing is to come up with new ideas and the task for the staff on-board is to enact them". (Marketing manager, Case I)

Whereas the CEO was of the following perception:

> "We need to get the entire staff involved in this (the loyalty program). The best ideas are born in the field, which in our case means the ships and service personnel and seamen. That is where the service meets the customer". (CEO, Case I)

In Case I, the CEO at the time seemed conscious of the distinctions in *us vs. them* and its impact, and was concerned about breaking old habits of disciplinary control. Getting employees "involved and engaged" did in practice break many boundaries and hierarchical norms (at higher hierarchical levels). It contributed to reasoning that was new to the firm. A CEO spending time in the field and being present among employees

was new to the firm and was one way of bringing in change. Other indications of a questioning and habit breaking managerial mode were interventions, such as the action research process (conducted within the frames of this study), which was perceived to contribute to finding out how to get people more involved. Among employees, the reaction towards this was positive. In addition, many employees seemed to appreciate the presence of the CEO "on the floor".

Awareness among management in general about the influence of such distinctions seemed to be growing. Individual, rather wide, differences among managers were clearly notable. The communication tone and mode was discussed by some:

> "You have to talk with the people not to the people.... And I know this is hard for Finnish management, to go to the employees and try to explain why we are going to do certain things". (Manager, Case I)

Thus, both an inclusive and an objectifying mode gave indications about varying ways of approaching employees. Clearly, the managing modes varied between individual managers. Those who themselves had experience with practical fieldwork in customer service seemed to pace and understand employees' experiences better:

> "It is obvious that if you keep the operational level aside in decision making they are excluded, and that is always negative. That's human ... people always complain about things that come from outside, when one is not included, whether it is something good or bad. If it is bad, it becomes some steps in the worse direction if they (employees) are excluded. Even if you take just one member of a group to participate in decision making so this person is the spokesperson for the group.... It is really strange that this has not been understood (among management)". (Marketing Manager, Case II).

HR, which in practice is often a co-partner with marketing in regards to IM issues, was perceived as important. Therefore, the management mode that HR adopts was experienced as influential, e.g., towards the end of Case II, notions of HR failing to consider employees as humans, was identified:

> "HR is really though in our firm – an extension of the employer. They talk beautifully, but act hard. They are too much into business – they take a standpoint to such things that they do not understand. The wellbeing of the individual looks good on paper but does not show in practice. The organisation has grown and we've gotten new tools, administrative tools. But there is not much empathy. They are pointing fingers. You always feel a bit guilty when you talk with them". (Sales manager)

The managerial discourse and the variety of perceptions underpinning practices gives some indication of the employee-manager constellations and the relationships in these and, thus, the mechanism underpinning the employees' experiences. The factors that employees experienced exist in constellation spheres, where they together with the actors, e.g., employees and managers (and customers), form living systems. In case an 'us vs. them' was the prevailing experience among service employees, a negative influence on motivation seemed to be inevitable. The citation below reflects such an experience.

> "I was just thinking that when we are discussing the development of customer care and asking myself then why are we discussing the SBUs and I was just thinking from the express point of view that no SBU or CRM system will save us, hallelujah". I think that the only way for us to develop (our business) is goal-oriented close leadership which would mean that we have motivated people and we would establish real deal centers at XXX where one person takes care of the whole staff's wellbeing". (Employee, Case II)

As stressed by managers in both cases, the history and hierarchies were perceived as challenging, but also as an asset. History and hierarchies are interrelated and it is

perhaps partly in these that the distinction of workers versus managers has its underpinning. As such, a distinction may be neutral, and may be there as part of the "organisational process". Nevertheless, it seemed to have an influence on employees' motivation. It may be grounded in current mainstream management literature and its prevailing general partition in management versus workers (employees), as opposing parts. That view draws upon earlier traditions of blue- and white-collar workers in factory settings, but currently still applies in service organisations, such as hospitals, call centres and other service industries (Huzell, 2005).

To analyse the managerial discourse on employee motivation in more detail is beyond the scope of this study, while the employee discourse is in the limelight. However, doing so and following critical discourse analyses would provide a more detailed depiction of how managers define employee motivation and how their discourse on motivation reflects existing managerial practices. This would make comparative analyses between employee and managerial discourses possible, which could reveal diversity between the two. The aim was, however, merely to identify management's perceptions of the challenges related to implementation and employee motivation on a general level. Therefore, analyses of the management discourse remain on a relatively general and rather shallow level in this thesis.

In the discussions, henceforth, managers' perceptions are noted by relating employees' experiences to managers' perceptions, when it serves an illuminating purpose.

3.2 Factors that Employees Experienced as Demotivating/Motivating

This section discusses employees' experiences that were identified as critical issues, coded and eventually categorised as demotivating and motivating factors. Thus, these factors depict what motivates employees to live up to value promises. These factors are depicted in two tables: 1) demotivating factors in Section 3.2.5.2; and 2) motivating factors in Section 3.2.5.3 as the core factors and their properties.

Table 5 Demotivating factors

De-motivating factors			
Variables > (Nature of issues) Levels (scope and location of issues)	A. Content Marketing ideas (strategies, concepts and Value promises)	B. Process IM management	C. Context Social, Psychological and Customer Interaction factors
1. Organization	(d-M)1.a.1 Too abstract marketing ideas. 1.a.2 Employees unconscious of value promises. 1.a.3. Employees not able to serve customers well. *These are about lack of connection between content and practices in the firm and a shared, common sense that promises should be kept.*	(d-M) 1.b.1 Us vs. them: Objectifying mode and stance of management. 1.b.2 Informing in objectifying mode. *These are about neglecting humane aspects in work-life, and not treating employees as subject in their work.*	(d-M) 1.c.1. Confusion (about code of conduct of business). 1.c.2. Objectifying and Paternalistic stance towards employees. 1.c.3 Management resisting change (in regard to stance and mode of managing). 1.c.4 Disintegrated logical levels. *These are about unconsciousness of systemic workings and social and psychological aspects of work life.*
	1.abc Dysfunctional Communication (2.a.1, 2.b.2, 2.c.2)		
2. Group	2.a.1 Fuzzy, impossible promises d-M. 2.a.2 Not enough information about marketing ideas & value promises. 2.a.3. Information aspect of communication (too much/too little). *These are about not contextualized promises. Ideas imposed. Too little or too much information.*	2.b.1. If/when a lack of agency to participate is present. 2.b.2 Negative/oppressive mode of communication. *When/if communication occurs "from above" and when/if the mode of management is excluding. When/if service employees are bypassed and objectified. ("Message to objects" style communication).*	2.c.1.Gaps in Maps of reality. 2.c.2 Negative tone of communication. 2.c.3 Power struggles and negative energies. 2.c.4 Too little internal service mindedness. 2.c.5 The "moomin valley syndrome". *Is about administrative and social structures that separate and foster divergent views on reality, negative tone in communication and lack of social competence and bad manners.*
3. Individual	3.a.1 Meaningless ideas. 3.a.2 Value promises not anchored in individual work context. *Is about personal lack of feeling of connection to content (marketing ideas & value promises).*	3.b.1 No space for individual valuation of value promises. *Is about not being included in own work, as to being able to decide if a promise is doable or not (can I personally keep this value promise?).*	3.c.1 Indifference and resignation. *Is about a feeling of "I cannot influence" and "what I do and say does not matter anyway" so I just work here.*

When reading the table the nature of the research process has to be kept in mind. The experiences that underpin the factors were identified as issues employees experienced as critical in value practices. This implies that the factors are seen as actual in employees' fields of experience in their work life, as they uttered these. However, due to the experience-based and dialogic nature of the process, these identified factors are also influenced by the semiosis, i.e., the emotional states employees showed during the empirical sessions, as experienced and identified by me in the role of the researcher. These insights and emotions showed in the employees' semiotic discourse and their semiosis. Semiosis is also considered in doing textual analyses on processes of social change (Fairclough, 2012). Also, as the issues were identified, described and initially analysed during the empirical sessions by reflecting, in dialogue upon them, they initially appeared to conscious level during the sessions, and became "shared" to some extent between the involved ones already during these sessions. The sessions were recorded and transcribed, and the transcribed texts were further analysed, and coded etc. In the following sessions the already analysed material then served as entry points to the "next level" of discussions.

A notion about the nature and scope of the factors

The factors depicted in the tables vary as to scope and nature. Some factors, and their properties, have a general nature, and cover all three variables and more than just one level. For example, dysfunctional communication as a general theme was experienced 'on all three variables' and could be general, functional or inter- and even intra-personally located. Dysfunctional communication has been categorized as to its different aspects, i.e. its nature. Communication as to content is categorized as *not enough/too much information*, and reveals the informative aspect of communication. Communication as to process is categorized as *communication modes*, and reveals the process, or the aspect of "how communication as a process occurs". If communication occurred in an objectifying mode (employees as objects), it seemed to have a demotivating impact. Communication as to context reveals the attitudinal aspect of communication. This is categorized as *the tone of communication*, which in case it was negative, seemed to have a demotivating impact. In the table below, communication is 'captured' on level 2 (group), because mostly employees discussed it in somewhat local terms (team, department etc.) even if referring to communication in general terms as well.

However, the impact and 'location' of communication, and most of the other factors, is best described as existing in the organisational sphere, appearing on the different levels (of the table), taking different shapes and having a systemic influence. In a similar manner, some of the other categories were also identified as appearing in different locations. To depict all the locations of each category in a table would, however, expand its scope unnecessarily. Hence, even if the categories are depicted as separate issues with a specific nature, scope and location, the systemic impact of them is vital to understand. The systemic influence of the categories and that they (all) are intertwined is depicted in Section 3.4, which discusses systemic constellation analyses.

Demotivating factors on level 2 in relation to all variables (a, b, c) are about fuzzy value promises and notions about employees experiencing that they were being excluded from work where their input is needed, such as development tasks. Further, social entanglements and the lack of internal service mindedness as experienced by employees, reinforced 'gaps in maps of reality' between functions. These are factors that were experienced to impinge motivation negatively. Such factors seemed to underpin states of confusion and other negative emotions, and thus these had direct as

well as indirect effects on motivation. If practices were influenced by 'schizophrenic impulses' (different messages from different influential sources, e.g., different functions) even collective demotivation could occur.

Demotivating factors on level 3 in relation to all variables (a, b, c) are about individual experiences of meaningless value promises. This implies that the value promises have not been personally (on an individual level) valuated and 'approved'. This may be caused by unconsciousness of promises, i.e., not being aware of and/or not understanding the practical implications of promises, or a general state of confusion. This may also be caused by a dismissal of the promise after evaluating it, of the type 'this promise is no good'. Thus, employees may experience a lack of connection to the content, i.e., marketing ideas, concepts and value promises, and thus lack motivation to act upon these.

3.2.1.1 Demotivating Factors on Organisational Level

In this section, the demotivating factors and properties are discussed. The main factors that comprise issues that service employees experienced as demotivating on a general organisational level were:

Variable a (content factors): Too abstract marketing ideas and unconsciousness of marketing ideas in general, such as concepts and or campaigns. In particular, if/when value promises were not articulated separately to/with service employees as to their meaning, the ideas were experienced as abstract. This was confusing and, thus, demotivating.
Variable b (management/IM process factors): Objectifying mode and stance of management and the 'us vs. them' issues; these were experienced as obtrusive and, thus, demotivating.
Variable c (social and psychological factors): Imposed ideas and confusion about the code of conduct of business, i.e., a lack of a red thread and paternalistic mode and stance of leadership and entanglements comprise factors that were experienced as demotivating.

An objectifying mode and stance seemed to have the most severe demotivating influences. In practice, when employees did not participate in development work it left them feeling that the ideas were abstract. Employees in both cases experienced that advertising to some extent often "just appeared" in the media, without much or no pre-notice and, thus, in their view an ad hoc manner. When new ideas were introduced they were often just imposed, with little practical anchoring in the employees' experiences. Employees were not given space to properly evaluate the promises as to whether campaigns and value promises, concrete or abstract, were doable. Some experienced a lack of holistic service/product knowledge, impaired sales work and insufficient customer care.

> "We claim that we provide holistic material flow, but we should adapt this to the training then as well so that we actually could sell according to this; only then can I be a smart salesperson and serve the customer in a holistic way, I think that is very important". (Employee, Case II)

The citation serves as an example of a typical experience of confusion about what is expected of employees in customer work. This employee was aware of the 'brand promise', but unaware of all 'offerings' that were made to customer. In practice, service employees were at times unconscious of things that some other function planned, but indirectly or directly concerned these particular employees' work. This could be about

concrete promises, such as special price offers for loyal customers, or abstract brand promises such as “our employees provide a congenial atmosphere during the cruise”.

Another obvious problem that impacted on motivation was the many sources of communication towards and with customers. These were neither always internally congruent, nor congruent with the communication between service employees and customers, and had a negative influence on employees’ motivation:

Context – customers and our offerings:

> “That is the problem. I believe that you can teach people. But people (customers) read very thoroughly what the travel agencies promise and worship what they say. If the travel agency promised something this is simply how it has to be then. For us it would be easier to manage everything here if we knew what they are selling. That is a long chain (of encounters) when the customer starts the cruise. It requires awareness … (both we and the customer) need to know what is supposed to take place”. (Service employee, Case I)

> And: “Well we have this program, and the customers have their cards, but what exactly is the idea with it …? Then they (customers) often forget to show their cards, and we … well, we forget to ask. Besides we have other customers to serve as well”. (Service employee, Case I)

The latter citations reveal a certain confusion expressed as ‘what exactly is the meaning with it?’ To be unconscious of what was expected of oneself at work was not only experienced as frustrating, but also consequently meant that promises were difficult to live up to. Further, service employees experienced that diverse and even contradictory messages about priorities were coming from different departments, “one saying this, the other saying that”. For example, marketing was advertising high quality and the best service simultaneously, while other functions were cutting down on personnel for cost-saving purposes. This, to service employees, was confusing.

> “Now I have to think that if I see this from my perspective, that a customer who pays the minimum … I don’t say it is the worst customers … but the quality (of customers) that comes on board, well it is so very diverse. And a customer that really is looking for high quality is astonished. Those (the less paying ones) bring with them all kinds of issues … They are different, and even if you are in for 100 per cent quality and motivated … Well, I feel sorry for the cleaning staff. It is really hard to maintain a high quality level when what comes on board is of the wrong kind … e.g., the noise problem we have had, but it has improved lately …”. (Service employee, Case I)

The ‘sum’ or cumulative effect of the factors that were experienced as demotivating seemed to reinforce confusion. In particular, the re-occurring process of what was perceived as being excluded and objectified, accompanied by rude behaviour was demotivating. Further, a feeling of a ‘red thread lacking in operations’ as the underpinnings of value practices, and living up to promises (in general and marketing ideas), ‘spilled over’ a confused feeling and a fuzzy logic to everyday value practices and face-to-face service encounters. Further, social entanglements and fuss, and unclear and unshared direction on where the firm was going seemed to feed this kind of confusion.

3.2.1.2 Demotivating Factors on Group Level

The quadrates on level 2 and 3 are properties to the core factors. Level 2 is discussed here as to the communication aspect, as properties to all three variables on level 1 (content, process and context). Thereafter, other properties on the group level are discussed.

Dysfunctional communication was one of the main categories in respect to all three variables as follows: a) The informative aspect about the content of communication; b) The mode of communication; and c) Tone of communication which refers to the social aspect of communication.

a) *The informative aspect of communication* has to do with how information was distributed to the employees and how it was ensured that the information reached the service employees. For example, many employees in Case I felt that when they boarded the ship each one of them 'disappeared' into their own '*Moominvalley*' (property 2.c.5). There they worked in lengthy shifts, i.e., eight days of working/eight days off, minding the business of their own 'valley', focusing on its daily, immediate practices. When they were off duty, they often experienced feeling completely unconnected to work. This *Moominvalley* syndrome did in their view impact on their access to information. Similar tendencies were experienced in Case II, but in that case the amount of information was so abundant that employees felt flooded with information, and could not take in and digest everything:

> "When you define a deal … when you do the deal at the operational level there is a contradiction in how you define it … and you do not always get the information you would need, or at least not the way you would need it". (Employee, Case II)

Employees also experienced that some managers were stingy as to information, or perhaps just ignorant. This aspect has mainly to do with the 'technical quality' of communication, which left service employees with an experience of too much/too little information. This was experienced to have a negative impact on motivation. Whichever the reason was, it left employees unaware of promises, which was noted among managers, as the following citation depicts:

> If the ships are unaware of our service promises … well naturally the reaction is "why would I do this..." (Manager)

b) *The mode aspect of communication* has to do with the manner in which communication occurred in dialogue, or one-way, communicating *with* or *to*; *in dialogue* in a learning mode or traditional *letting know, informing, including or excluding*. A feeling of being excluded in decision making even concerning their own work added to feeling demotivated. This aspect has to do with 'functional quality' of communication.

c) *The tone aspect of communication* refers to the attitude employees were approached with, vertically as well as horizontally, and to the social aspect of communication. If the tone management applied when communicating with/to employees was respectful or rude, and if the tone indicated hierarchical differences or approaching the other as an equal adult, would have a negative or positive impact on the employee's motivation. This aspect also refers to how colleagues encountered each other in everyday work-life and, thus, also refers to the 'functional quality' of communication.

The citation below depicts a rather common experience of dysfunctional, one-way communication. This citation depicts all three aspects of communication: 'Pouring' information on employees, in an excluding manner, results in frustration:

> "But I have to admit that during the past three years there has been this … it's like forced and you have had to force yourself to go by what has been decided, like 'ok let's just do it this way even if it is not working' (sigh) … there is not anymore the … it feels like whatever you suggest to whomever nothing happens that would enable us to work better. Sometimes it feels like it would be nice if someone from IT or any other department came to our department and asked 'how can we help you in this and this?' No one ever came! We are their customers! If the ladies and gents would bother coming down …". (Employee, Case II)

and

> "Well I've said that I can come and talk about our issues, but I don't know where I could go ... And what if we'd go and tell them how to do their job ... accounting ...(laughter)". (Employee, Case II)

The logic of categorization and how the identified issues exist on many levels simultaneously is well-illuminated by the communication property, as discussed above. Communication as a phenomenon was categorized as relating to different quadrates in the Units of Observation (UofO) table, because employees discussed it from a variety of angles with different inherent meanings: communication as informative, the tone of communication and the mode of communication, and all ultimately influence motivation. Thus, *communication* is property to all three core categories. This implies that *communication* (as a property of motivation) takes many forms and shapes and influences employees on a variety of dimensions, such as the three mentioned above. Thus, communication is a firm internal phenomenon that ultimately influences employees' motivation to live up to value promises from several diverse directions and angles and appears in many locations.

Properties to variable c's core factors are: Gaps in Maps of reality (2.c.1); Power struggles and negative energies (2.c.3); and Too little internal service mindedness (2.c.4). These are discussed in the systemic constellation analyses.

3.2.2 Motivating Factors

In Table 5, the main factors depict factors that employees experienced that do / would influence positively on motivation. As above, these are presented according to the structure of the OofO table. Therefore, the three variables and three levels (of the table) result in nine quadrates depicting core factors and their properties. Each quadrate depicts different aspects of employees' experiences as to nature (what is it about), scope (how wide is its impact) and location (on what level was this particular factor identifiable).

Table 6 Motivating factors

Motivating factors			
Variables > Nature of issues Levels (scope & location)	A. Content : What Marketing ideas: strategies, concepts and value promises	B. Process: How, mode Management of value practices:	C. Context: How, stance Social and psychological factors: The stance applied towards employees
1. Organization	(M) 1.a.1 Authentic truthful promises. When ideas emerge from practices: Marketing ideas and value promises grounded in practices as the focal message of promises in general. *If/when sayings are congruent with doings, and communication (towards customers) about promises is truthful (on a general level).*	(M) 1.b.1 Agency to participate. 1.b.2. Having a forum for exchanging ideas. 1.b.3 A functioning "service chain". *When employees have the mandate to be active parts of the different aspects of value practices, also giving and enabling. When they are considered as equals.*	(M) 1.c.1 A unified congruent "We" and reciprocal enabling. 1.c. 2 Good Atmosphere & and adult behavior. 1.c.2 Internal service-mindedness, servility, respect and kindness. *Having a shared view about what needs to occur in customer work that is grounded in service employees´ practices. If/when adopting a positive stance in encountering people. Genuinely respecting and appreciating that people are competent. Treating people as adults.*
2. Group	2.a.1 That value promises reflect local practices (team level) as the focal issue of specific promises and that promises are realistic. *Is about making value promises that genuinely reflect the different department-, group- and team level practices and competences.*	2.b.1 Co-active working mode in teams 2.b.2. Valuation of promises and marketing ideas and reciprocal enabling. *Inclusive working mode within teams. Marketing ideas and value promises reflecting also what specific departments/teams/groups are good at.*	2.c.1. Positive tone of communication. *If/when firm internal communication occurs in a positive respectful manner* 2.c.2 Practice power. 2.c.3 Need to serve customers *Employees mobilize their "practice power" to serve customers well.*
3. Individual	3.a.1 Doable, authentic promises, congruent with individual competences. *Is about promises reflecting also individual competences*	3.b.1 Reciprocal enabling on individual level. *Is about continuously keeping individuals included. A "we support each other, regardless of position" attitude. Reciprocal enabling on micro level.*	3.c.1 Feeling valued and supported. 3.c.2 Consciousness and personal work-related faith and inspiration. *Is about a sense of belonging and finding the personal meaning in work.*

As the table reveals, some of the factors that were identified and categorized as motivating stand in an opposing relation to the demotivating categories (depicted in Table 4). This is because often during the empirical sessions the demotivating factors were related to their counter aspects, i.e., motivating factors. For example, objectifying

mode of management (DM 1.b.1) express factors that demotivate and stand in 'counter-position' to co-active managing of practices (M 1.b.1). The latter expresses factors that employees experienced as motivating on a general level. For example, "when ideas are imposed upon us" was experienced as demotivating, whereas being able to participate and having an agency as equals in terms of (service) competencies and experts of practices, was experienced as motivating.

Motivating factors on level 1 as to all variables (a, b, c) are about co-actively managing and orchestrating value practices, and co-creating promises and having an agency to do so. Orchestrating refers to directing the elements of situations in a favourable direction. Here this refers to taking value practices as the focal point of interest, and the favourable direction refers to congruency between what is communicated and what occurs in value practices, thus adding authenticity to what is being promised. Consequently, this then refers to grounding the elements in practices in a manner that supports and enables living up to these promises. This has to do with enabling employees to live up to promises by letting employees be co-active in the creation of promises.

Co-actively refers to employees having the agency and being included in orchestrating value practices as equal knowledgeable actors. A shared understanding of the realties in value practice may, thereby, emerge. This might, as employees experienced, possibly reduce gaps (which they experienced as demotivating) between what actually occurs/can occur in these and what is being promised. Having some level of shared understanding, especially if managers would understand more about how things are in practice, was believed to diminish confusion. It was assumed that if customer-employee contact-points are taken as the focal point of interest for development work, authenticity of what is being promised would be more likely. This was placed in high priority as employees experienced it as extremely stressful to meet customers face-to-face, and not be able to live up to their expectations. Thereby "*authentic promises*" (1.a.1) was categorized as a motivating factor. In case employees' service competencies, i.e., knowledge and experience, would be considered in development work this would, in the view of the employees underpin authentic promises. From the employees' perspective, this implied in particular being heard, respected and being able to influence decision-making. The factors discussed here are social and psychological factors. In general, 'socially competent' behaviour and attitudes was believed to foster motivation, as it would enable cooperation and the human interaction required for this.

Variable a on level 1 refers in particular to the content and the authenticity of promises as discussed above (1.a.1 mentioned above). Promises, as employees experienced them referred to different aspects of operations, such as the brand promise or specific service promises. Optimal, in the view of employees, would if promises that are made would correlate with actual practice, i.e., if the brand promise was experienced as authentic among employees, or what the firm communicates about 'itself' is congruent with what it stands for in practice. Experiencing promises as truthful seemed to mobilize positive energies and inspire employees who enjoyed serving customers well. Indeed, the majority of employees that participated in this research showed signs of genuine care for their customers. This seemed to underpin positive experiences, and consequently positive narratives, i.e. "it is good to work for this company and …" (continues with positive aspects of working here) in line with:

> "Most of us are proud to work here and feel that we are important for the business. It is like a strong bond to the firm". (Employee, Case I)

This is in contrast to negative narratives, such as, "It is good to work here, but…" (negative aspects of working here) or worse, "It is bad to work here and …" (negative aspects of working here). When brand promises, be it 'best service or first choice' or whatever promises of that type, were experienced as truthful by employees this seemed to serve as a positive motive to act.

A shared consciousness of 'the big picture' in relation to value practices as the locus and promises about these as the foundation for what is promised seemed to be a positive motive. Further, consciousness of promises and their practical implications seemed to mobilize positive energies and motive to act. In general, what employees found motivating was when marketing ideas and value promises were about 'service as it is", contrary to overpromising some ungrounded ideal images of what services the firm offers, and what value this brings to the customers. This was summarized by one of the groups in Case I by the question:

> "Why can't they simply promise things we are good at"? (Group work conclusion during empirical session, Case I)

Variable b on level 1 is about the enabling/management process and both the stance and mode by which the 'orchestrating' of practices occur. What traditionally is referred to as management, i.e. management from a superior mode and stance, following traditional norms was commonly experienced as demotivating. Not surprisingly, its 'counter aspect', i.e. employees being able to participate from equally worthy 'positions' (even if hierarchically subordinate) was commonly discussed and experienced as motivating.

In practice, this implied agency to participate and reciprocal enabling, thus being able to impact on developed services and evaluate ideas coming from outside, such as marketing, is instrumental to motivation. Having a forum where the exchange of ideas, also with managers, could occur would in the view of many of the participants enhance motivation. For example, the kind like the action process of this study was experienced as one such forum, as the following citation reveals:

> "This is really good that we get together and can discuss and exchange ideas like this, we would need more of these gatherings". (Group work conclusion during empirical session, Case I)

During Case 1, I in the role of the researcher, spent quite some time on board the ship during the interviews and empirical sessions, and occasionally stayed over for the cruise. While strolling around the employee corridors, participants from the groups would stop to exchange a few words. On such occasions I received comments like; "Hi coach, when will we have another session"? In general, the participants seemed to find these group interventions a positive experience. The action process seemed to provide employees with a forum they were missing and needed in order to stay 'ajour' with things, and develop ideas. This was categorized as (a property to 1.c) a *forum for exchanging ideas* (2.c.2).

In addition, the underpinning structure for value practices, the 'service chain', which builds upon smooth internal service and internal customer mindedness was, if it worked smoothly, experienced as motivating. When it functioned smoothly, it enabled living up to what was promised. As expressed by one group:

> "The service chain is very important for customer service and internal service is very important for the whole service chain to work". (Group work conclusion during empirical session, Case I)

Variable c on level 1 is about social and psychological factors. In counter-position to the experienced gaps in maps of realties and a distinction in us vs. them was a unified congruent 'we' as foundation for practices. When such a 'we' state was experienced, it seemed to positively motivate and energize, particularly when this *we* encompassed an agency to participate. Further, a good atmosphere and adult behaviour and internal service mindedness, servility, respect and kindness, were experienced as attributes that foster motivation.

Among all the categories, the agency to participate in development work and orchestrating of practice seemed to be the most crucial for motivation. This also seemed to vary among individuals. For some, being heard 'a little' seemed to be enough, whereas others really wished they had the agency to participate and influence more. These categories depict the most common factors. In addition, more specific factors related to team or department levels were identified.

3.2.2.1 Motivating Factors on Group Level

Level 2 covers factors that impact on motivation on a group and team level. In general, these factors are similar to those on level 1 but more specific and concerned the employees' more immediate work environment, i.e., how things were in their own team or department. Communication was a factor returned to repeatedly. Authentic and congruent communication was experienced as motivating in general, but did seem to vary between different teams and departments.

Commonly and locally, an inclusive mode of communication in combination with an agency to participate was experienced as motivating:

> "They should speak our language, the language of the people on-board". (Service employee, Case I)

Even if communication as a separate issue is depicted here in relation to variable c, it concerned all their variables. Communication here refers that which occurs 'outwards' to customers (what is promised), but equally the tone of the internal communication seemed to matter. Ideally, a sound and healthy internal communication, as to tone and mode, should in the view of the employees be the foundation for the external communication. When congruency (between the two) is achieved ('says' equals 'does'), the communication lacks 'schizophrenic features'. Sound communication, without contradictory messages was experienced as a solid foundation for operations in value practices, and thus motivating.

Further, as the cases of this study indicate, employees seem to value having the possibility to contribute not only to the content of the promise but also to how promises are formulated to customers. This is because valuation, i.e., having the possibility to carefully scrutinize an idea, is an aspect of individual motivation (Nilsonne, 2004). If individuals do evaluate promises positively, what is promised becomes 'reality checked' among those delivering the promise in practice. In practice, this means that an individual has the chance to evaluate, e.g., whether he or she is up to creating a wonderful atmosphere, being more, contributing to providing the best service, being the first choice or whatever is promised. Such valuation draws upon not only a co-active mode, but a co-active stance, which in the ultimate (can) enable co-active managing of value practices.

Firm internal reciprocal enabling, it seems, also fosters motivation. This implies that not only the managers enable employees, but employees enable marketing people to communicate authentically. By letting marketing know what really occurs in practice, and what can be done for customers in effective service provision, employees enable marketing to engage in authentic communication with customers by whatever channels they use. Thus, if it is authentic to promise (to customers) that employees create a wonderful atmosphere it can be promised and lived up to. If, however, employees experience that it is impossible to deliver a wonderful atmosphere, because it happens to be experienced as other than wonderful by the employees (in the firm, in a function, in a team), then enabling is basically about letting marketing know that it is a 'no-go' promise.

Motivating factors on level 2 in relation to all variables (a, b, c) are about making and co-creating value promises that genuinely reflect the specifics for different departments, groups and team level practices, and the service competencies employees have in different 'corners' of the organisation, e.g., specialities of the conference department, the spa department, the playroom, etc. When employees had the opportunity to participate in creating promises with specific features that truthfully reflected specific areas of competencies/featrues in service provision, it was appreciated and experienced as motivating. If service employees were invited to create and design 'cross-organisational' events, contributing their skills and expertise, this was also experienced as motivating (as opposed to 'them' imposing ideas that have not been anchored in practice).

3.2.2.2 Motivating Factors on Individual Level

Motivating factors on level 3 in relation to all variables (a, b, c) are about continuously keeping individuals included in service development and, thus, ensuring individual agency to participate. It also reflects such things as keeping the co-enabling process alive by, for example, adopting a dialogic and coaching mode to the processes. Enabling individual employees to share their ideas (without ideas being 'stolen' by managers), and utilizing people's individual competencies were examples of factors that motivate.

What also seems to influence motivation is the level of well-being, and how one relates to the work and finds it meaningful. This is exemplified by the following citation:

> "It is one of the fundamentals that is important from whatever perspective you look at it. It is like the more people feel good about themselves … that shines through to customers. The wellbeing of employees is extremely important in customer service". (Employee, Case I)

It seemed that many of the service employees were motivated and inspired by the service work in itself, as a calling:

> "For me this work used to be a calling, it really gave me much and I really liked it, but now it's more like I am forced to be here. I have been on different boats and now I feel they just throw me around. That's demotivating.... The most important is to be attentive to the customer, listen to people and be in a good mood. You get far by using humour, and by giving customers time. That is important in service work". (Employee, Case I)

and

> "It is that you get to work with people that is rewarding". (Employee, Case I)

Experiences like this indicate that a need to serve others may exist, and fulfilling this need functions as a motive to act. This need to serve, enjoying customer work, and being with people, was expressed by many employees during the empirical sessions on several occasions. This need is therefore discussed in-depth in Chapter 4.

3.2.3 Motivation Embedded in Power Structures

This section discusses the employees' experiences of power struggles related to customer service. Such power struggles could occur when employees relied upon their expertise in serving customers, and what they did deviated from managerial plans.

According to Foucault (1998: 98), power and discourse are mutually constitutive, since power and knowledge are joined together in discourse. According to this view, all practices are believed to be discursive and shaped by discursive rules of formation. Hence, discourses may also reveal informal power commodities, which is something this inquiry identified.

3.2.3.1 Employees and Power

Thus in practice employees did occasionally experience *power struggles*, as a consequence of confusion and 'disagreements' about how practices were best managed. This was categorized as a property to both 1.b 'us vs. them', and 'objectifying mode and stance of management, and paternalistic mode and stance of leadership and entanglements' (1.c). These power struggles seemed to be expressed in many layers and in different manners. A common expression for what this seemed to be about was:

> "It is management by bad manners, perkele and ignorance". (Employee case I)

In practice, triggered by an ignorant management mode and stance, employees mobilized 'practice power', a power employees had acquired by developing their customer *service competencies*, i.e., work experience in combination with service knowledge, a service attitude acquired by experience, education and training. In particular, if management imposed their views onto practices, ignoring, overriding and bypassing the employees' views, expertise and experience about customer service, this power was mobilized. The fact that employees could mobilize practice power revealed informal power commodities.

Mobilizing this kind of "practice power" implied that employees would not instantly adopt management's suggested marketing ideas, but would refuse to obey orders. More interestingly employees could also keep their head and consciously choose to serve customers in a manner they perceived to be best. This occurred when employees faced unrealistic, and in their view, irrational decisions imposed on practices. The use of practice power by employees implies a decision, conscious or intuitive, on attitudinal and/or behavioural levels, to "refuse to adopt" management's efforts to re-order practices by imposing 'from above'. Seen from the service employees' perspective, this can be described as *managing practice* by employees, where they act as *owners* of practices:

> "Let us do our work, what we are good at, serving the customers". (Employee, Case I).

> "Let them keep doing their strategies and such, we take care of the customers, eventually they'll calm down". (Employee, Case II)

Seen traditionally from a managerial perspective, this 'refusal (to obey)' was interpreted by some as change resistance:

> "Some of the employees on operations level resist change". (Management, Case I)

Seen from the employees' perspective, however, this seemed to be more about a healthy self-esteem grounded in experience of taking care of customers in practice. Taking ownership of practices was oftentimes necessary according the employees, because management was occupied with more "abstract strategy making issues", and thus to a lesser extent had dealt with real practices. In practice, such *power struggles*, where two parties do what they find to be best, as here, where one is representing value practices and the other (strategic) management or the like, would in the view of the employees mobilize *negative energies*. Such negative energies were experienced as demotivating.

Nevertheless, drawing upon employees' experiences and the difference between co-existing discourses, power struggles occurred, and were experienced as change resistance by both sides, but from different standpoints.

The employees' experiences reveal that they seemed to have a genuine customer focus, experience and knowledge and often a genuine need to be able to do their work well. However, management did not always recognize this, and/or perhaps held (unconscious?) beliefs about their own superiority in terms of knowledgeableness, which were revealed in their discourse. The managing mode associated with the latter adopts a traditional inherently objectifying view, which service employees experienced as demotivating.

Seeing 'change resistance' from the employees' perspective puts the issue in another light: Assuming they are knowledgeable, experienced and well-educated, service professionals who, if they are exposed to rude behaviour and imposed with unrealistic ideas and promises they would have to 'deliver' express their opinion against an idea, does not imply resistance per se.

What management seemed to interpret as change resistance was in the view of the employees a sound reaction to impossible and/or fuzzy suggestions on how they should do their work. Seen in that light "change resistance" is about having an (rightful) opinion as to one's own work, and taking responsibility for it. This could, perhaps, be annoying for some.

During the empirical session and personal interviews such explicit "change resistance" could not be identified among employees. On the contrary, as illustrated below:

> "I think that the changes (strategies or other organisational changes) that they make are not ad hoc or extempore, everything is very organised and carefully planned, there is a professionalism shining through, it's no gambling … I feel that they know what they are doing (management) … also when they have to let people go, it is not just for the fun of it, sometimes those things have to be done, there is a reason and the decisions are carefully thought upon – then, of course, when they sack people someone else has to do the job, and some people get frustrated and scared while others don't seem to notice much…". (Employee, Case II)

and

> "Changes and new things … Quite a lot around but well it is a sign of life … It keeps us moving forward". (Employee, Case II)

and

> "I tend to have a very high tempo all the time, I do things and I am very inspired … I run …. That might irritate others … Privately I think quite far ahead and I strive to do that at work as well, I

> hope that something in me is moving in some direction all the time ... to plan, to make visions about where I would like to be in one year's time, that motivates me". (Employee, Case II)

and

> "Changes are always welcome, positive changes, when you can tell that there is a real advantage of the change". (Employee, Case II)

and

> "I am open to change; it is our field of business we just have to change all the time". (Employee, Case II)

Clearly, it seemed employees did not resist change as such, but the kind of changes and how 'changes' were 'conducted'. In Case I, employees at times felt powerless, but expressed a need to serve the customers well. They did however feel that imposing 'non-doable' ideas, etc. on them, at times, hindered serving their customers well. In Case II employees seemed more prone to "mobilize practice-power' and "walked over" imposed ideas if necessary. This indicates that they used the power they possess, inherent in their knowledge and competences, and that they followed their conviction in how to best serve their customers.

> "No matter what system, eventually you can always walk over it ...". (Employee, Case II)

Such experiences were rather common and do reflect the reality of practices, which at times seemed to deviate from official power commodities, managerial intention, and also official communication. In practice, this was about human encounters, employees and customers interacting in contact-points, where employees had to deal with the issues like "let's see what I can do for the customer despite lousy systems". This implies that the official hierarchical power in practice is not always the actual power to the extent assumed, in particular not in service encounters where employees stand face-to-face with customers.

Furthermore, the fact that employees in practice gave 'wild promises' to customers, i.e., their own promises, and that employees themselves *are "*living promises" in the way they encounter customers, is a form of practice-power. The fact that promises employees give may and often do, deviate (substantially) from the firm's official promises (which can be highly confusing for customers) is an indication of unofficial power distribution.

In regard to this it is illuminating that previous experimental research has shown that people in general are seldom motivated to keep promises others have made. This implies that if a promise is not a proprietary promise, it does not affect behaviour directly, whereas if the promise is made by the person him/herself, it does. (Vanberg, 2008).

This indicates that the distinction in giving and keeping promises as suggested in the TPF may in practice be misleading if this is taken to be done by different functions in the firm. For instance if marketing is giving promises that front-line employees are to keep issues as the those identified in this study may be experienced by employees.

3.2.3.2 Power Analyses

In SSM, power analyses are central in the "analyses three" phase. Politics and power are "taken to be a process by which differing interests reach accommodation" (Checkland, 1999:50). This view draws upon references to the literature on political

sciences. Thus, politics in this context is taken to refer to the accommodation of interests (often differing). Politics is taken to be a power-related activity concerned with managing relations between different interests.

Taking good care of their customers often seemed to be highly prioritized among employees in the cases. The articulated interest among managers seemed, to a varying degree, naturally be more about profits and serving other stakeholders. Actual customer service in its traditional meaning was generally not a priority issue to many of the managers, even if it was valued as an idea. It seemed that a connection between traditional service, i.e., what occurred in service encounters between employees and customers, and profitability was not noted, or at least not emphasized by many of the managers during the discussion. Employees in their turn frequently discussed the relation between good service and profitability. In practice, employees experienced that management did not always know what was best for customers or the influence of good service on profitability. In their view customer satisfaction suffered if service was bad. Conflicting opinions about customer issues seemed embedded in such constellation. Consequently power struggles about what to do in customer interaction could occur.

According to humanistic management power is about making things happen (Follett, 1924), and thus the fact that employees acted according to their notions of what was best for the customer, even sometimes if necessary bending the rules, is an indication of *co-active power sharing*, (ibid) i.e., power is "located" where the expertise in the practice is located.

To employees, serving and caring for customers was a purposeful act and according to Checkland "there will be few purposeful acts which do not have a political dimension" (ibid).

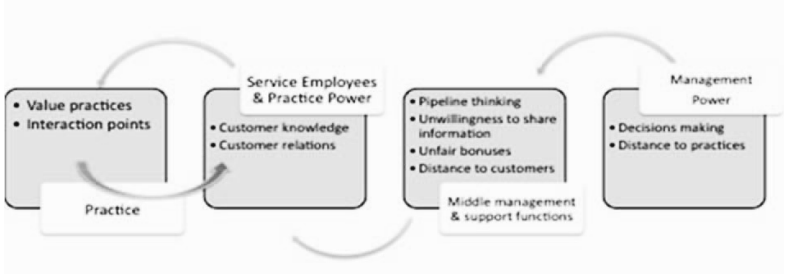


Figure 3 Power Analyses Case II

Checkland claims that there is a political dimension to sports, theatre, health care and management, etc. In this case, the political or power dimension that functioned as a motive to act purposefully among employees is found in the act of serving customers. It seems that if this was threatened, service employees mobilized 'practice power', and even acted 'against' management orders. One way of seeing this is in taking responsibility, in line with what is spoken for in co-workership.

Clearly, if employees evaluated an idea as purposeful, according to their own standards, their attitude towards it was positive. However, if the new idea was ungrounded in

practice and experienced as irrelevant, and imposed, power to act in a more sound manner (in their view) was mobilized by employees. According to Checkland, different "commodities" of power have been observed in different situations (ibid:51), and answering the power question as done in Analyses 3 enriches the cultural appreciation of the previous phases (of SSM analyses).

The power analyses conducted in Case II is depicted in Figure 1. The figure reveals the experienced power structure from the employees' perspective. It reveals the commodities of power on each hierarchical level (i.e., departing horizontally from the left practices; employees, middle management and top management, as described by employees'. This was expressed as illustrations, as depicted in the figure (on white board, here redrawn). The double-headed arrow between practices and employees and practice power indicate the closeness between the two, and how practice power is embedded in practices and the "customer competencies" possessed by the employees. The figure also depicts how employees experienced power "distributed" among different hierarchical levels. That decision making, also about 'local' practices, is located at a level that situated far from practices was experienced as demotivating as it inferred doing the local job well, i.e., serving customers in value practice.

Even if employees were 'empowered' to some extent (as this was on the managerial agenda in both cases), this kind of "empowerment" was not experienced as a real power, i.e. agency to act in practice. The real power in practice seemed to be something that employees did possess because of their customer work expertise and experience. The customer power was there, located with employees, and could not be "given" or "taken away". Perhaps it could be disturbed. In practice, how power was expressed differed greatly between departments. Commodities that employees experienced as keeping power with middle management were information stinginess, or unwillingness to share information and their (managers) distance from customers. Employees experienced that most middle management was located far from practices and customers, but were still in a decision-making position about these practices. These decisions could in the view of employees be unsound and in such cases experienced as demotivating in relation to the purposeful act of servicing and caring for customers.

The empirical material indicates that power, i.e., the possession of competence in some area, is central to motivation. Some employees seemed to be proactive in regards to the power they possessed, whereas others felt confused or resigned. Its impact on motivation may be in both positive and negative directions. It is however interesting to note the existence of such power, and its relation to what commonly seems to be interpreted as change resistance.

In line with these empirical notions the HSL framework and its PI model, incorporates the core principles of humanistic management, i.e., *power sharing and integration of experiences* as its view on power. This implies joint decision-making based on orders informed by practices. This view is congruent with the stance and mode that employees found motivating. This is discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

3.3 The Constellation Analyses

In this section, constellation analyses are discussed. These acknowledge systemic workings and portray the reciprocity of the core factors and the properties, depicted as elements in constellations, in relation to the four generative questions. This advances an higher order understanding of employee motivation in relation to value promises.

The motivating/demotivating factors have been categorized as 'local' according to the UofO table, but in practice they can appear on different levels (organisational, group or individual) and in different locations, e.g., value practice, specific contact-points with customers, service chains or the like underpinning value practices, relationships with managers, etc., simultaneously. Independent of level and location, however, the factors always seem to relate to each other, feeding and reinforcing each other, as the polarities of motivating-demotivating factors discussed above.

The categories are different to their characteristics but exist in a 'common sphere' in dynamic relation to each other, circulating in the organisational space. Seen as constellations, one move or change on some aspects will cause effects on the other aspects, in unforeseeable directions, both positive and negative (which, of course, is relative to what, if anything, is anticipated). For example, in the event that a manager applies a different and more 'inclusive mode of communication', the positive effect may 'spill over' to other aspects of communication. Then, employees are given space to respond and contribute their own views and ideas; hence, the effect of the communication depends on the mode, not the actual facts provided. Thus, even if the same amount of factual information is given within including/excluding modes, the effects may differ significantly.

According to systems thinking, a dynamic equilibrium is what characterizes a healthy system, whether it is a family or an organisation (Napier and Gershenfeld, 1999:313). Similar mechanisms are at work regardless of the type of system or group (organisation, team, family and student groups). According to systems thinking, a "primary purpose of management is to create a workable and utilitarian structure in which various systems can operate smoothly, harmoniously and efficiently" (ibid: 302). The constellation analyses depict how the constellation's demotivating elements reinforce dysfunction, which may foster entropy, and how motivating elements can advance motivation.

The first three constellation analyses depict demotivating constellations. The 4th constellation depicts the interplay of motivating factors . These constellations portray the issues that became categorized and, thus, depict collectively experienced themes that influence motivation.

The constellation analyses reveal that with any change in the system there is a simultaneous and reciprocal change in all other elements (demotivating or motivating factors). Further, constellations should always be done with a positive solution in mind (Birkenkrahe, 2009). The general solution to be kept in mind here is to understand what kind of a constellation fosters employees' service contextual motivation.

All three constellations portrayed here have one root cause and five properties. As all the elements (properties) reciprocally interact with each other and with the core-category, the minimum number of systemic relations possible to examine is 36. A detailed elaboration of all possible relations is not done here, but the three constellations are exemplified with a few relationships as discussed above. All discussed relationships are exemplified with citations from the empirical material to illuminate what they are about, i.e. how service employees experienced the issues.

3.3.1.1 Constellation 1: Why do they make impossible promises?

This constellation portrays core categories and properties related to the generative question 1. This question is placed in the centre of the circular diagram. This constellation analyses 'departs' at the top of the diagram, from the core-category, us-vs.-them; an objectifying mode of management (1.b.1) as the root cause. Objectifying refers to the manner of management; that people are managed as one resource among other resources, and a distinction between managers and employees in superior and subordinate positions. This core-category is placed at the top as the root cause, but is not locked in that position.

Initially, when examining the constellation, the logic is that the more management applies an objectifying mode (cause), the more abstract the marketing ideas remain (effect), the more people are managed (cause), the more negative energies unleashed (effect), the more service employees are excluded from development work (effect), the more impossible the promises feel. However, this is to be seen as a circular image in which the events or issues emerge in different places simultaneously and lead to results, also in various places, as emphasized by Horn and Brick (2009:15). This is indicated by the two-headed and crossover arrows.

The portraying of the core-categories and their properties as elements of a constellation, as done in figure 3, makes it possible to examine the relations between them as entanglements and detect hypothetical patterns (which can be verified by the involved in the situation), and enhances the understanding of the workings of the constellation. E.g. examining the root-cause, objectifying mode and management (1.b.1), which refers to both manner management is conducted, in relation to property 4; negative energies and power struggle (2.c.3), and property 6, impossible promises (2.a.1), exemplified with citations (typical for the category/property that illuminate the employees experiences) gives the following:

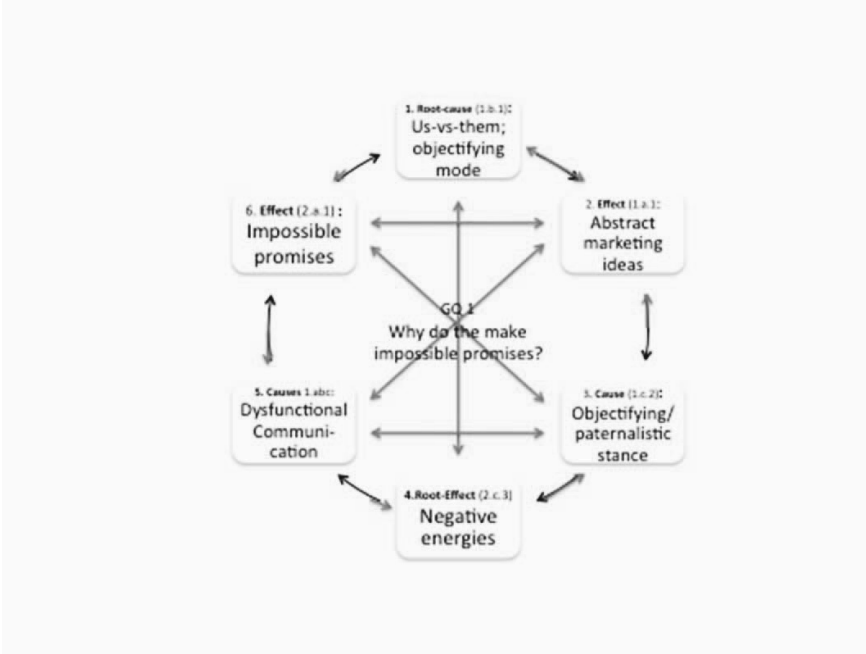


Figure 4 Constellation analyses 1: Why do they make impossible promises?

Objectifying mode:

1: "The management behave like royal people, that should stop, they should listen to the workers and the reality onboard"

2: "If you oppose your superiors opinions you will get punished. The management does not back you up – you are not appreciated for the effort you put in the work"

3. "We have the upstairs people – and then us doing the work"

4. "It is very problematic for those that feel they are in the lowest caste .. when they have some problems to deal with, who to call and so on, who can they talk to?!

5. "I try the get the message (to those who plan) through my superiors, but I think they could come here sometimes as well"

Negative energies:

4. "I experience this as confrontations, it has to do with managers and sub-ordinates"

5. "Well, there are both positive and negative thoughts that circulate here – for us it is important to get hold of the positive once. Things like the negotiations about the contract and the conflict between the trade union and the employer association does disturb our work somewhat. These things come with negative thoughts that live, and the negative energies show to customers. But when you get the positive energies to grow, when you are happy and so.. That shows to customers as well"

6. "Negative issues take over"

7. "It is about vibrations.. Instead of spreading negative rumors we should focus on sending positive messages and focus on our strengths .. our line is doing a fine result"

8. "We are responsible for the spreading of positive or negative rumors.

Impossible promises:

6. "It is really alarming – marketing promises customers things that simply are impossible to keep"

7. "They promise something- experiences – but the experiences do not have a home"

8. "Why do we talk about experiences, none of us know what they are …"

9. "The biggest threat is when sales overpromise"

10. "They don't think even about us when they plan the loyalty programs"

11. "In the beginning I found it very strange that we don't co-operate, but you get used to it …"

12. "How can we promises to be the first choice … when we do not really know the customer processes; what, when and how they need .. I wonder really if our management has this kind of customer knowledge.. if they do, that's dammed good .. but I really think we need to develop this kind of knowledge"

The objectifying mode implies a mode of management that employees experienced as demotivating, i.e., if management treats employees in a manner that marks the managers' superiority, if communication occurs from above and if the tone of communication is inherently elitist. Such behavior embeds entanglements, i.e., complicated relations. A superiority mode, by which the "royal people" communicate, often over employees' heads, seemed to mobilize negative energies. The objectifying mode, as experienced by employees, also implied that marketing ideas were developed far from practices, which complicated delivering "upon" them. Thus, the system in regards to the elements is; if objectifying mode as to making impossible promises, (i.e., promises made by others and not grounded in practices) evokes negative energies, this widens the distance between management and employees, which in turn reinforces the negative objectifying mode and creation of more impossible promises (far from practices) as the outcome. The pattern we can detect is; If an objectifying mode and stance (1.c.2), which might be part of the culture (how we do things here), is common in the system, negative energies are mobilized, which distances the parties involved and reinforces feeling of impossible promises.

In this manner all the relations between the elements of the constellations can be examined reciprocally or as triads, or pentagons or comprising as many elements as one can comprehend at a time, and hypothetical patterns can be detected, and verified by those involved. The verification of entanglements and patterns occur according to how all involved experience the issue explored. Based on the evaluation corrective action can be decided upon.

According to systemic principles, the aim is not to look for the guilty party (Horn and Brick, 2009), which in this case could be assumed to be the managers who behave in an objectifying mode. Factors that may seem like causes may not be the real casual factors, but carriers of the system. Therefore, a seemingly culpable behaviour, such as objectifying mode, here seen from the employees' angle (who become demotivated by such behaviour), may be a symptom carrier of the system that favours objectifying. In that case, the cause may be an effect of the invisible systemic connections (ibid). Therefore, all these demotivating factors may either be causes or effects and, for example, impossible promises (that service employees fail to live up to) may as well be the cause for objectifying, or the other way, or both ways. Hence, the arrows go in all directions and all these factors interact and reinforce the system.

The most important thing is to acknowledge that all these elements (experiences the categorised factors depict) exist in human systems, guided by human principles. Hence, even if this study applies an employee angle and a critical view on traditional management research, it does not imply that managers are culpable, but rather that the systemic humanistic principles are violated by the stance and mode management is conducted by, and therefore demotivation emerges among those involved in the system, in particular those being managed, i.e., the employees. The factors that demotivate are those that violate the systemic principles and counteract balance. Management might, in their turn, feel similar frustration (perhaps demotivation) about being managed by another layer of management, e.g., as expressed below, or about being expected to *manage people*, in the concepts traditional meaning, i.e., to rule, govern etc and its inherent superior - subordinate implication, which according to systemic principles is impossible.

In addtion some managers expressed suspicion about the managerial mode in regards to managing:

> "One of the big barriers for the implementing marketing programs and learning is the owner, or what he decides about the direction we should take – what directives he gives to the management. This causes enormous concern onboard the ships. It is possible that something happens and then our entire training program will be blocked..." (Manager)

And

> "The owner has a great influence on the leadership style, it is basically a one man show in colonial style. We are here far up north, what do they know. He does not know how strong the unions are." (Manager)

Thus that other influencers in decision-making positions, such as the union, eventually impinge on practices was experienced as bothersome both by managers and employees:

> "Thatcher conquered the unions in England, but here they still function. In Sweden it is somewhat better as you can discuss issues and you strive for consensus through negotiations. In Finland the unions functions by threats and power mentality like if you do not sign the ships will stay in the harbor .. and other unions support". (Manager)

And expressed by an employee:

> "The union acts as an aggregator and spreads rumors internally... it is totally crazy with the union and the owners... the employer is not in an easy position because the labor union has such a big influence on staff issues and the firm's development".

This exemplifies how managers may feel frustration about the "next layer" of managers such as top management, owners etc, or other influencers such as the unions, and the management culture in regards to visible, but also hidden norms and values. This also reveals how managers and employee may construct "fields of us" in relation to the owner or the union, depending on the issue. It was also notable that some managers seemed to be concerned with employees and their issues, whereas others were more distance and cold.

Therefore, when examined in more detail, it can be concluded that the objectifying manner and stance violates humanistic and systemic principles, and concluding from how the employees expressed their experiences, they found it demotivating. Further, the objectifying mode and stance seems to have many inherent layers as this seemed to be experienced by management as well (this was detectable in both cases). Regardless of the position a human being has in an organisation, there seems to be some aversion

against being treated in an objectified mode and stance, i.e., being managed. Thus, not appreciating people's competencies, the principle of belonging and responsibility are violated by objectifying (and its different properties). Hence, the absence of appreciation for systemic principles may well be a mechanism that fosters demotivation. It would also seem that the lower in hierarchy one is, the more probable it is that one will be exposed to being managed/objectified, but this was not always the case.

The aim with systemic analyses conducted in this study is to make the often obvious, but invisible, visible. The obvious often remains invisible when analysed in linear causal descriptions (Horn and Brick, 2009:15). It is acknowledging the system that prevents it from being manipulated arbitrarily (Birkenkrahe, 2008:9). Thus, finding out 'what is the human system' is what is examined in doing the systemic constellation analyses. If we assume that the objectifying mode and stance, in relation to some other element in the system, have been made visible and some corrective actions are undertaken to reduce the entanglement, the action will probably effect many of the elements depicted in the constellation. However, how remains unknown until systemic analyses, or better yet, new constellation interventions by the persons involved are made. The effect of corrective actions will show in people's experiences.

A major advance, when looking at factors that motivate employees portrayed as elements in constellations, simultaneously recognizing that motivation is highly individual and contextual, is that consciousness of whatever factors may be hidden under the surface will surface and only then something can be done to foster motivation. Thus, to foster motivation, one could depart from looking at 'objectifying mode' (1.b.1.) and explore individually or in groups what happens when people systemically elaborate upon the issue (or do traditional spatial constellations), departing from this particular issue, and rearrange these properties according to employees' experiences and/or reveal new properties of this specific category. This was done in case one (in spring 2013) when the results from this the constellation analyses was discussed with management from the case firm. These kinds of spatial constellations are highly experience-based, and often the person doing the constellations is surprised about the outcome, as it may reveal something they sensed but were unaware off.

3.3.1.2 Constellation 2. What is all this fuss about?

This constellation portrays core categories and properties related to the generative question 2: What is all this fuss about?

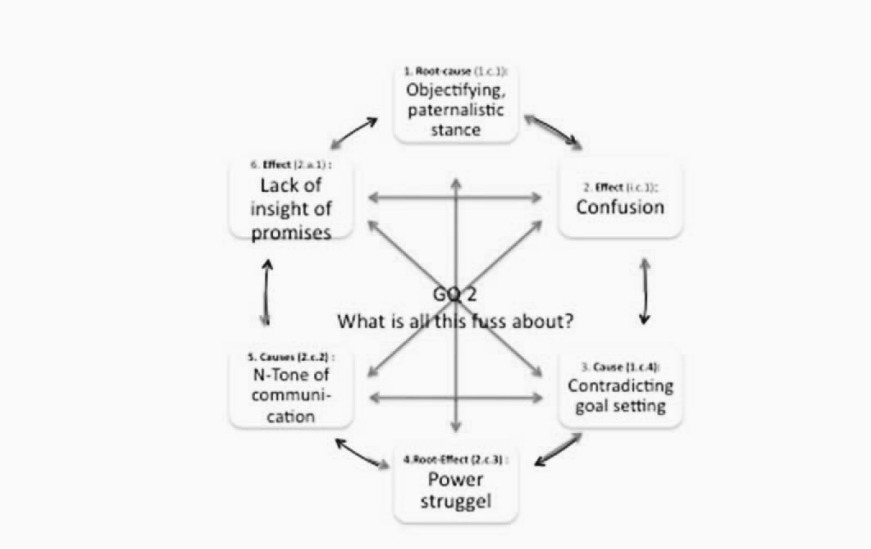


Figure 5 Constellation 2: What is all this fuss about?

This question is elaborated by placing one core-factor as the "root-causes" at the top; Objectifying and paternalistic stance towards employees (1.c.2) as the cause and power struggle and negative energies (2.c.3) is placed as an effect. Again, in doing a systemic constellation analyses like this, the core-categories and properties are not locked in these positions depicted here, and one can depart the examination from any position, and different aspects of the constellation become visible. This portraying of the second constellation is the researcher's depiction and perception, drawing upon all the material during the research process, of possible non-linear systemic cause-effect-cause relations between the core-categories and the properties.

Departing the elaboration from this core-category as the root cause; objectifying and paternalistic stance towards employees (root-cause, 1.c.2) gives the following: the more objectifying stance of management the more employees are confused about the code of business conduct (effect, 1.c.1), the more contradicting goal-setting (cause, 1.c.4) the more power struggle and negative energies (effect, 2.c.3), the more negative tone of communication (cause, 2.c.2)) the less information about marketing ideas and value promises (effect, 2.a.1) which takes us back to a reinforced point of departure; paternalistic and objectifying stance towards employees and reinforced confusion about the conduct of business.

Again the arrows are two-headed and one can start the examination from any category. And as all these categories and properties relate to each other in this way this constellations gives us at least 36 reciprocal relationships that can be examined according to this logic. The following citation exemplifies the meaning of objectifying stance of management:

> "The identity of our firm is not consistent, one could say that we at times experience a lack of trust for the management because they have made decisions that we experience have backfired on us."

> "The management is very engineer-, shipping and transportation oriented".

The core category in this constellation may have many underlying properties or relate to other core-categories, which are not portrayed in this particular constellation. E.g. dysfunctional communication (1.b.1) could be a reasonable "root-cause" for confusion (which is how it was spoken off during the empirical sessions). "Not having enough information" was given as an explanation to many entanglements. Thus, the empirical material reveals that it is seems that employees experienced many factors that relate to and underpin confusion and power struggle. That root-causes can be traced to other core categories and their properties emphasizes the reciprocity and relation between the constellations portrayed here, and the systemic logic that underpins the workings of these constellations. This root-cause can be the effect of yet another layer of causes, such as cost-savings, which was frequently mentioned as a cause for much complication in customer service.

Here power struggle refers to opinions on how to do things and managing practice, and decision-making, in particular who decides and what kind of decisions are made in practice. I.e., if employees felt confused about what to do and decided to do as they saw it to be best, management could interpret it as "disobedience" (which is not to say that they always did). The citations below depict the typical issues of the properties included in this constellation analyses. As in the previous constellation the stance and mode of management is placed as the root cause and it refers both manner by which management is conducted attitude management adopts towards employees.

Power struggle in regards to decision-making:

> 1. "Decisions are made on management level. They have good discussions and then they make decisions. Then they try to bring the decisions to operational level and there is confusion over what it is about. And then there are confused "activities" and lack of understanding".
>
> 2. "And then we just start doing things according to our own views, and then management reacts by saying you cannot do this because we have not decided this way … (sigh:)Why is it so difficult?
>
> 3. "Well, these time-check-men come onboard and control how we work, the contract is not made, and people are on temporary lay-offs and other strange fuss…"
>
> 4. "It was this guy (salesperson) who frankly told the mangers that they can go on deciding about their systems and processes however they want, and we will correct their mistake in the field. It is on the operational level the real decisions are made anyway."
>
> 5. "The whole situation is kind of messy; the managers should really participate in creating consciousness on the operational level, now they have their meetings but we don't know …"
>
> 6. "The individual is not recognized, management would have to be able to tell us why things change."

Doing a "cross-over" (the diagram) examination between e.g. contradicting goal-setting (1.c.4), and 5 negative tone of communication (2.c.2) puts this relation in focus and may reveal may different entanglements in practice. One can rightfully assume that when these reinforce each other entanglements may become more sever and lead to power struggle about whose goals are the dominant once. This study found that one disturbing factor for employees was when different functions did not pull evenly.

Contradicting goal setting:

> 1. "If the big bosses are working in different directions how can we co-operate? It does not work."

2. “When you define a deal and you work at the operational level there is a contradiction in how you define it, and you do not always get the information you would need, at least not the way you need it”

3. “Different messages come from different directions - they don't pull evenly there! The communication between land and boat does work much better than that between departments ashore ”.

4. ”If we do not manage to pull together the three heads (of the organization symbol = logo) – we will never succeed with the loyalty program.”

5. “The management of the SBUs and their co-operation… what is that?

6. ”We have bureaucracy and we have no ABC thinking.”

7. “We have too many hierarchies.”

Power struggles were not hostile or fierce, often they were subtle, but still palpable and constantly trickling through in various places. As discussed in section 3.2.3.1 power analyses are central to SSM, and conducting these revealed that employees experienced that they possess practice power, which made it possible for them to make decisions even “against” management’s will. Customer power is grounded in the relationships employees have with customers and management lacks, and argues for its existence. Employees experienced that they have practice - and customer knowledge because that is their work, and that really gives some kind of power not to be forced into decision that employees experienced as less doable in practices:

> “I have been looking at this for 20 years, and whatever system it is you can quite easily walk over it”

As noted previously some managers, in both case firms, saw these kind of power struggles on decision making as change resistance, expressed as: “there is changes resistance among employees”, implying that employees, for some inexplicable reason, if they were slow to adapt to change might indeed resist *change* per se. Managers did not see the content of suggested change, or the process by which change was “implemented” as a reason. Employees, on the other hand, who on daily bases worked with customers experienced at times that managers were too far from practices to make the right kind of decisions, and therefore their (management’s) decisions were sometimes experienced as inapplicable, and needed corrective action in the field. In addition, employees experienced that managers at times had a tendency to resist changing the management style in favor of a more co-active one, even if that was on the official agenda. This is illustrated in the following quotation:

> “If the management level does not participate there is a storm. Sometime it is hard to get the managers to participate. It is not a question of getting the people in the field to participate (e.g. in improving customer care, or such). Employees are in for this, but the management is a challenge … of course it is a question of power and such …fuss”

Departing from the objectifying stance and relating it to power struggle in regards to decision making, a conflict of interests was notable. Commonly employees seemed genuinely service minded, but their expertise was not according to their experience, valued enough. A hierarchical mind-set seemed to be strongly rooted, and this did upset many employees, as it did not only disturb their work, but was experienced as humiliating as well. Different kinds of entanglements in the relations between the management and employees were spoken:

> “If it is a good change that is ok. Its really an emotional issue and the outcome depends on how you bring about the changes … if you force it upon people it really is not possible to tell if it is going to work.”

Thus, the systemic workings in regards to the discussed elements are; if there is an objectifying stance relating to decision-making and towards employees, employees may become confused, which may result in power struggle in case employees' experience that their expertise is not appreciated. The more power struggle there is, it probably will lead to more confusion, which in turn can lead to more objectifying by management, but also by employees who see themselves as the experts of practices, which of course is equally rightful as the other way around, which reinforces the entire stance even further. To explore the "fuss issue" as a constellation reveals how the different elements interact and reinforce each other, until a corrective action is made in regards to one, or some elements, which possibly can change the course of events, but how is unforeseeable.

The pattern we can detect in exploring this constellation as portrayed is: In case of a paternalistic and objectifying stance, which again might be part of the culture (how we do things here), is common in the system, it distances the parties involved and reinforces feeling of impossible promises.

Drawing upon this specific constellation, with the categories and properties as depicted here, what perhaps would be interesting to explore, is the "price" of power struggle. As employees expressed the concern in regards to "what is all this fuss about". This can probably lead to functional isolations, as expressed by one employee:

> "I call my own department the Muumin Valley, because it lives a life of its own".

Often employees seemed to be rather content in their "valleys" as such, but were well aware of the complications such "valley-life" had in regards to customer service. In such cases employees seemed to motivated in general, but not specifically in relation to living up to specific promises.

3.3.1.3 Constellation 3: Why are we not included?

This third constellation portrays core categories and properties that related to the generative question; why are we not included? This third generative question is elaborated upon by portraying the third sub-constellation in which one core-category is placed as the "root-causes" at the top; 1) *dys-functional communication*, consisting of three properties; 2.a.3, 2.b.2 (negative mode of communication, and 2.c.2 negative tone of communication). Again, in doing a systemic constellation analyses like this, the core-categories and properties are not locked in the positions depicted here, and one can depart the examination from any position, and different aspects of the constellation become visible.

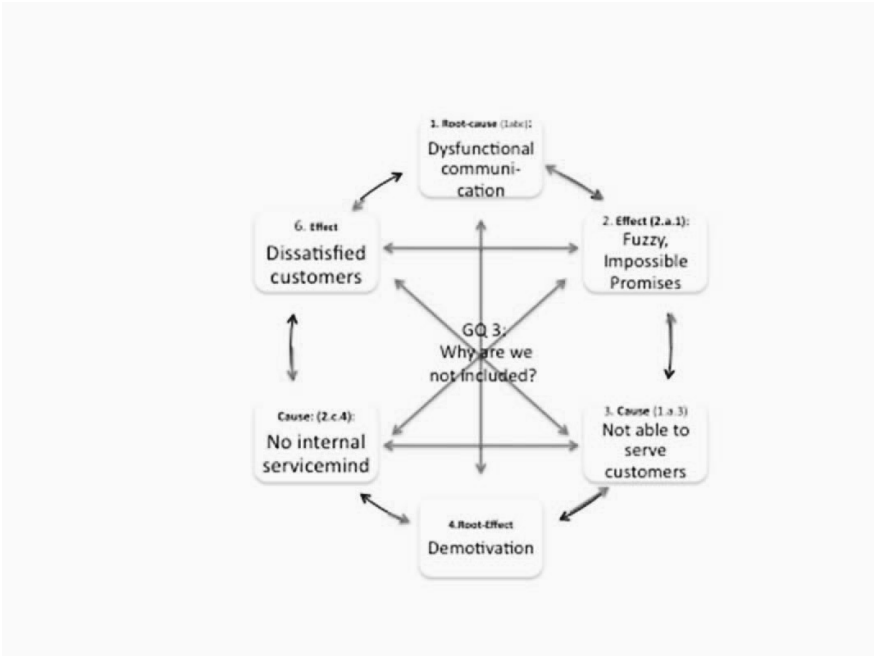


Figure 6 Constellation 3: Why are we not included?

In this constellation the relations between the dysfunctional communications as the root-cause is explored in relation to employees experiencing that they were not able to serve customers well (1.a.3) as the effect and de-motivation as another cause. The initial examination of the relation between this triad gives at hand that the more dysfunctional communication the less service employees are able to serve their customers well, and the more de-motivated they become. Again it could be the other way around as well; the more de-motivated the service employees are the less they serve customers well and the more dysfunctional the communication becomes in general.

Communication was a phenomenon that seemed to serve as a "universal cause" for many entanglements and issues that employees experienced. In most discussions communication as a cause appeared at some point in the discussion. But indeed, considering that communication, verbal and non-verbal, is the human way of and building understanding and e.g. expressing emotions the substantial meaning it was given by employees seems reasonable. Of specific interest in the view of this study is previous research findings that indicate that there is a link between linguistic patterns, behavior and motivation (Donello, 1998, Brown, 2002), (which is discussed in more detail in section 4.4.2.2.).

This relates to the tone of communication and how differences in the communication tone in regards to personal meta-patterns may be wrongly interpreted. When such motivational patterns differ on several aspects between individuals who are engaged in communication the result may be dysfunctional communication. Thus, the tone aspect

of communication in itself forms a sub-constellation where discrepancies in motivational patterns are one issue that may cause entanglements in relations, due to misinterpretations and lack of communication skills.

In this study the empirical material shows three main aspects of communication that seemed to influence on employees' motivation: 1) the informative aspect, 2) the mode of communication and 3) the tone of communication. The informative aspect of communication is directly related to information, as to facts and figures how much and what kind of information is distributed. The mode relates to the manner in which the firm manages its internal communication process in regards to all news that etc that employees require. The tone relates to the quality of communication as to how it distances people of fosters closeness and understanding. The three are illuminated with the citations below:

1) The informative aspect:

> "There is a lot of information and a lot of papers all right, but no-one is able to read all that stuff"

2) The mode has to do with the process aspect of communication on a general level, e.g. the internal communication policy and how communication occurred:

> "The way in which the vision is communicated has a bit too much advertising language for the people who work. One should use the language of the employees. When you get people to do something they like to do, they do it – but when you get information already decided upon it is really hard to make it work. It requires a longer process – if people are allowed to be involved and participate in the development … that it does not always come like it was decided upon."

3) The tone of communication, which relates to the stance and social aspects of communication:

> "The leadership style is very distant- there is not that much leadership. Right now it is somehow stuck"

All three influenced on motivation and e.g. the fact the service employees perceived that they did not have enough (or too much) information caused a perceived lack of required data and facts for servicing customers (such as product information), whereas the tone of communication, if e.g. experiencing the other as harsh could have an direct emotional effect on and impact motivation negatively.

3.3.1.4 Constellation 4: What Motivates Employees to Live up to Value Promises

In a similar manner as the constellation analyses on demotivating factors have been conducted, constellation analyses that examine the motivating factors is discussed in this section.

In this constellation the relations between the following are discussed: 1) the agency to participate and reciprocal enabling (1.b.1) as the root-cause, in relation to 2) employees experiencing a unified congruent we (1.c.1) as the effect, in relation to 3) having a forum for exchanging ideas (1.b.2) as the causes, in relation to 4) authentic promises (1.a.1) as the effect, in relation to promises positive tone of communication (2.c.1) as the cause, in relation to feeling valued and supported (3.c.1).

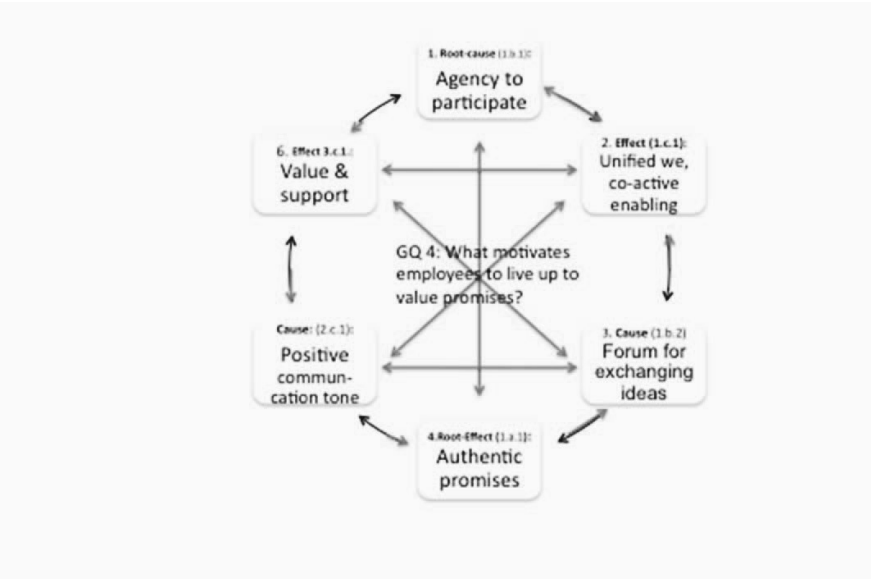


Figure 7 Constellation 4: What motivates employees to live up to value promises?

Again the arrows are two-headed and one can start the examination from any category. And as all categories and properties relate to each other in this way this constellations gives us at least 36 reciprocal relationships that can be examined according to this logic.

Doing a basic constellation elaboration, departing from the core-category, agency to participate gives the following: the more agency to participate the more employees experience a unified we and co-active enabling as an effect, the more there is a forum to participates in development and decision-making (cause) the more truthful promises there will be (root effect), the more positive tone of communication (cause) the more valued and supported employees may feel (effect) which takes us back to a reinforced point of departure; an experience of agency to participate. Having a forum for exchanging ideas was requested oftentimes by the employees, also as group conclusions during the dialogue sessions:

> ”We could have like government plenary sessions (smiles). For real, that is no stupid idea and then in a way … well there would be the managers from different areas like logistics, product managers and some big chiefs etc.” Group, Case II

Again, the constellation is to be seen as a circular image in which the events or issues emerge in different places simultaneously and lead to results, also in various places, as emphasized by Horn and Brick (2009). One might depart from any element and do a crossover elaboration between any of the elements, e.g. agency to participate the more positive tone of communication there probably will be.

3.3.2 Conclusions Based on Constellation Analyses

People are often unwilling-, or unused to deal with social and psychological elements of constellations, which complicate finding resolutions to entanglements and unleashing dysfunctional social and psychological patterns that cause imbalance in constellations. This in general impinges motivation, both individual and collective in a negative direction, and thus demotivates employees.

Indeed such psychological and social issues have oftentimes been ignored in current management litterateur, in particular such literature that is informed by scientific management. In psychological terms this is called being in denial; i.e., denying elements in social relations that undoubtedly influences different aspects of the involved actors' social reality. Hence, in this case employees' motivation to live up to value promises, as well as management's likelihood to be able to influence on practices employees are engaged in.

If factors that employees experienced as having a negative impact are ignored their influence on practices will most probably be reinforced, as they maintain their invisible influence on practices. On the other hand, if there is a conscious focus on the positive, i.e. factors that motivate and the organization is conscious of these, positive reinforcement of the constellation may occur. "Reality" as experienced by actors in a specific situation appears as less polarised than discussed above; constellations are of course not either "positive" or "negative" but a mixture of different kinds of elements. However, if one departs the analyses from a negative element (as perceived by the one experiencing it) more negative elements are usually found, and the contrary. Usually there seems to be a need to get the negative aspect into the open, cleaning the clutter in a way, wereafter it is easier to proceed into positive aspects of a situation. This happened in the current cases as well. First challenge maps where conducted and "what seems to be the problem" was answered during the pilot phases. Thereafter the actual cases proceeded with a positive focus in mind, i.e., what can we do about it? This is not to say that both positive and negative factors appeared to consciousness during both phases, but the deliberate focus was as mentioned.

The constellation analyses have been conducted as one specific phase of the analyses in this study to further the understanding of the systemic, i.e., human and social, workings underpinning value practices and illuminating the factors that employees experienced as having an influence on their motivation. Thus, seen from the employees' angle the constellation analyses clearly depict how demotivating factors and properties reinforce demotivation and the contrary concerning motivating factors. This implies that if indeed "*motivated employees"* is the organizational goal as instrumental to customer value fulfillment, as implied in the service and IM discourse, the managerial discourse in its current state will be served by a deconstruction initiated by an employee discourse described in this thesis.

An initial deconstruction occurred in this thesis as it departed by problematising the notion of motivated employees as a prerequisite for customer service that the IM literature notes, and the lack of research on employee motivation within its frames. This problem becomes particularly evident when a choice is made to explore employee motivation form a humanistic perspective, which places human experience and consciousness in central positions. In regards to this notion the fact that employees have up till currently had little or no agency to express their experiences in the managerial discourse, not in research nor practice, as to their motivation illuminates

the problem. This implies that motivation as prescribed in IM currently has remained a somewhat empty concept.

By describing the employees' discourse on motivation, as experienced by employees, in a value practices context, a deconstruction of the managerial hegemony is initiated, because seen from that angle the subject owns his/her motivation. This implies contrary to previous assumptions in the literature that management cannot control and manipulated employees, because the employee determines him/her self what factors motivate in a given context, be it extrinsic or intrinsic factors.

Based on this reframing management in accordance with what employees experienced as motivating, in particular letting practices order managing, is suggested as a deconstruction of the managerial discourse. This may be a corrective move for an organization to reach a dynamic equilibrium. Dynamic equilibrium is claimed to be a sign of a healthy organization according to systems thinking (Napier and Gershenfeld, 1999). This is also what humanistic management, empahsised already in the early 1900s by suggesting integration of experience.

In practice the employee discourse on motivation suggests reframing management towards a co-active stance and mode by considering all the factors that employees experience to impact on motivation. Humanistic management notes "a tendency to vest authority in the person who has most knowledge of the matter in question and most skills in applying that knowledge" (Follett, 1927: 73). This notion embraced the workers and their knowledge, and thus placed "workers" in a position as experts of practices. This is further elaborated upon in the following chapter that discusses the employee discourse on motivation in the light of supporting theoretical frameworks.

Consciously deconstructing the managerial discourse by including the employee discourse will advance a higher order understanding of the social order in value practices, by noting the idea of integration of experiences and the "correspondence of thought in different fields and levels" and "the interplay of forces" (Follett, 1924: 74-75). To ignore the employee discourse in the context discussed here does not mean that it would not exist; it implies merely that it is suppresses. And one can assume that a suppressed force will eventually surface when it has gained sufficient momentum. Therefore consciousness, and conscious inclusion of the "other force", i.e. the employee discourse, seems relevant. In particular if one is informed by the idea that in practice "consciousness is the living interplay of myriads of self-generating activates which all generate themselves as a moment of the interplay" and that "study of social situations reveals the working of this principle" (Follett, 1924: 75).

In the context explored in this study this implies that the existence of the employee discourse cannot be denied as an active force in interplay with the managerial discourse, as it expresses employees experiences, with explicit agency or without. The employee discourse will continue existing as long as employees are present in value practices, and thus it influences practices. This implies, according to systemic thinking, that the more conscious we (the people in organizations, and the researchers) are of different forces in interplay, the more the differences can be considered and the more these can be integrated to serve the whole, and the contrary.

4 THE THEORETICAL GROUNDING OF THE HUMAN SERVICE LOGIC AND ITS PI-MODEL

This chapter discusses the analyses in regard to the theoretical frameworks that were applied as informants and incorporated in abstracting the categorised demotivating and motivating factors. It does so by presenting the HSL framework and its PI model.

The Human Service Logic suggests; i) 6 core principles that reframe service management towards an egalitarian stance; and ii) a core concept; social and service competence, which depicts competences a firm "requires" in order to enhance employee motivation in regard to their work in value practices. This concept reflects and summarizes competences that employees experienced as essential in human interaction. Its PI model suggests: i) A co-mode to the established TPF aspects, and ii) two additional aspects; co-active managing of value practices (4th aspect) and systemic consciousness of promises (5th aspect). These describe a mode of managing value practices that employees found motivating.

The suggested framework articulates increments to the TPF from an employee angle and suggests a reordering, redirecting and reframing of the triadic model into a pentagonal circular image, portrayed as a constellation. It describes an employee discourse on motivation.

The discussion proceeds as follows: Section 4.1 introduces the HSL logic. The following section discusses the re-ordering, re-directing and re-framing of the TPF into the PI model, and presents its 4th aspect. Section 4.2 discusses the applied theoretical informants in more depth and presents the HSL-principles that underpin the PI-model. Section 4.3 answers the question; what is motivation. Informed by third and forth force psychologies a self-model, which reveals intrinsic motivation processes, is suggested. Section 4.4 discusses the HSL core concept social and service competence. Thus, this concept provides with an answer to the question; what fosters service contextual motivation. Finally, in section 4.4.3 the 5th PI aspect; systemic consciousness of value promises is introduced.

4.1 The Human Service Logic and the PI Aspects

The Human Service Logic suggests an alteration to the current prevailing logics that underpin service research. Initially and theoretically it draws upon the Nordic School of service research and SL and moves towards an egalitarian stance.

The HSL principles are; 1) co-active power sharing, 2) unity and integrating experiences, 3) seeing employees as active subjects, 4) taking a relational and interactional stance, 5) stressing prudence and togetherness, and 6) adopting a practical ontology and creative working mode to co-operation. In particular it notes employees' need of agency to participate and coactive, reciprocal enabling as its essential underpinnings and suggestive requisites for employee motivation.

The Human Service Logic makes an explicit attempt to emphasise the human factor and human dynamics as essential in a service context. It considers human interaction in service encounters as pivotal for the success of customers' value formation/creation, co-creation. It places the service employees, and their experiences and capabilities in a central position in regard to the firm's ability to live up to value

promises, and thus customers' value fulfillment. Therefore it emphasizes employee motivation.

It departs from a humanistic ontology, which places human experience and consciousness at centre. Therefore it stresses the understanding of value creation not only for people but also by people. In particular it stresses human interaction, and the meaning of it. It adopts a capability and experience-based view on employees, which deviates from other current views in service research that discuss employees as an operant/operand resource. It stresses an equality-oriented approach as to "ownership" of practices. In practice "customer power", i.e., the ultimate decisions of how customers are encountered, is with employees. Service employees often have the ultimate power to enhance or destroy customer experience and thus value formation. Therefore the HSL advocates a shift of power towards co-active power sharing.

4.1.1 Central Suggestions of the HSL

The HSL framework and its PI model, which principles, concepts and aspects, have been developed throughout the abductive analyses, describe an employee discourse on motivation by reflecting the demotivating and motivating factors discussed in Chapter 3. It introduces an alternative framework to promises management that draws upon an egalitarian human logic in services that when applied to practice may foster employee motivation. The central suggestions of the model draw upon the applied literature according to the units of analyses (introduced in Chapter Two), as presented in table 7.

Table 7 Stance and Mode of the HSL and PI-model

Stance	The frameworks' underpinning assumptions of its stance towards employees, which reflect and articulate factors that are congruent with those that employees according to the empirical material found motivating in regard to stance.
Mode	The frameworks' underpinning assumptions of its suggested mode of management, which reflect and articulate factors service employees found motivating in regard to working modes.
Core motivating factors and core principles of humanistic co-workership	Discussion of the core motivating factors (categorized empirical material) in relation to the core principles of theoretical informants.
Systemic approach	Applying a systemic approach to the above (how these factors relate and influence each other according to systemic/constellation principles).

The HSL suggests co-active enabling of living up to value promises as expressed by its principles and its core concept. Reordering and directing the TPF into the PI model suggests reframing promise management to co-active managing of value practice. This implies and alteration of, and a parallel to, the prevailing logic in current service research. The HSL framework puts specific emphases on the human aspects in value practices. The stance that the HSL suggests reframes service leadership towards co-active enabling. It suggests enabling occurs in reciprocal relationships between employees and managers, ordered by practices.

4.1.2 The HSL-concept: Social and Service Competence

The HSL-concept suggests a focus on human competences and a re-framing of promise management to co-active enabling. The HSL and its principles underpin the PI aspects and summarize social and psychological attitudes, knowledge and skills, i.e., competences that foster service-contextual motivation, and thus underpin its definition.

Based on the empirical findings, this thesis argues that orchestrating value practice requires 'human knowledge' from the actors involved, in order to interact in a manner that facilitates living up to value promises. The HSL framework suggests the concept *social and service competence* covers such human competences. As a concept, social- and service competence implies both direct and indirect impact on motivation.

Social competence implies humanistic co-workership competences, divided into an individual and collective level. The individual level, which covers individual self-knowledge and communication skills, is required for functioning in human interaction and constellations. In regard to self-knowledge it draws upon a self-model that depicts the individual motivation construct, according to humanistic psychology. In regard to communication it in particular empahsises the tone of communication. It makes concrete suggestions on how the tone communication can be improved by awareness of meta-patterns that underpin motivation. On a group level, collective social competence, covers aspects such as becoming conscious of dysfunctional as well as harmonious issues of the systemic workings in a given context.

The HSL framework suggests that individual and social competence enhance systemic workings required for living up to promises. It also suggests that social competence fosters motivation in reinforcing a firm's internal positive energies.

These conceptual suggestions reflect the empirically grounded motivating/de-motivating factors. In particular, the conceptualization draws attention to the need to serve, contribute and participate that was identified among employees. This need is elaborated upon, and supported and further articulated by, humanistic co-workership literature. The empirical material implies that fulfilling this need to serve enhances motivation. This is supported by the applied theories on motivation. This identified need underpins the HSL concept. Drawing upon this, agency to participate from a first order, non-subordinate position in the domains of practices where employees by tradition are the experts, is emphasised. This can occur by co-active power sharing, emphasizing responsibility and co-active orchestrating and managing of value practices. This supports the underpinnings of motivation in value practices as it enables that value promises in practice can be kept.

Service competence is suggested as one aspect of social competence. As a concept, it draws upon the expectations service literature prescribes for service employees in affective service provisions and emotional work, and adopts these to the firm's internal workings. It also extends these to apply to all co-workers, including managers. On a practical level it suggest skills in courtesy and manners are required of all co-workers, including managers. It is grounded in the empirical material that indicates that a firm's internal service attitude not only fosters a good atmosphere, which in itself contributes to service contextual motivation, but is required as the underpinning of living up to value promises in value practice, and thus ultimately for value fulfilment.

4.1.3 Re-ordering the TPF: A co-mode to Making, Keeping and Enabling Promises

The HSL, i.e., its principles and core concept underpins the PI model. The PI model suggests applying a *co-mode* to all three TPF aspects. This suggests including employees not only in the keeping aspect of the model, but also in its giving - and enabling aspects. From an employee perspective, this is argued to be relevant as it enables a holistic approach to customer work and facilitates living up to value promises.

The co-mode has a basic re-ordering function that reflects factors that were identified as having a positive influence on service contextual motivation. A mode stands for the manner in which something is done, occurs or is experienced. A co-mode implies that employees participate in co-creating, co-keeping and co-enabling. The co-mode is the first suggested increment to the TPF. It implies a mind-set that attributes employees' agency to participating in a wider range of practices that are instrumental goals to customer value fulfilment. The co-mode reveals a first-order systemic understanding of employees' motivation in relation to living up to value promises in value practices.

4.1.4 Re-directing the TPF: Co-active Managing of Value Practice

Re-directing the mode of the TPF to co-active managing suggests decision-making agency for employees in regard to value practices. It questions the traditional superior-subordinate managerial setting as to the mode in which things are managed. The 4th aspect that the PI model suggests draws upon the HSL principles, which suggest a 'non-managerial mind-set', and questions the traditional managerial objectifying mode of management towards employees. These HSL principles suggest an inclusive mind-set to managing. In practice, this implies that employees' competences, explicitly and consciously, would be considered and included to co-active managing, suggesting re-ordering of the TPF towards (firm internal) reciprocity, departing from practices.

The 4th aspect of the, PI model, co-active managing of value practices, advances second-order systemic understanding of employees' motivation to live up to value promises in value practices.

The 5th PI aspect: Systemic consciousness of value promises suggests seeing the TPF as a constellation, having the form of a circular image. This stresses the underlying implications of systemic workings in practices, as underpinnings for a co-mode and a co-active stance. This view suggests re-directing the TPF from a linear, hierarchical focus to a systemic one. Systemic consciousness of value promises is central. In the suggested framework constellations are defined as: sets of nonlinear and highly dynamic networks of people, relationships, resources, practices, events, and information sources that are interconnected. It suggests an experience-based firm internal awareness and understanding of value promises, primarily as to content (promises). It does, however, also stress the need for systemic consciousness of promises in relation to the context where living up to (the affective face-to-face aspect of) promises occurs, and the need for supporting employees in the interaction.

Portrayed as a constellation, the PI expands the TPF from being a triadic interplay of three aspects, seen solely from the managerial perspective, to a dynamic circular pentagonal image, including the employees' perspective. It gives no attention to a priori defined hierarchical positions, but emphasizes the systemic perspective, and sees the aspects as circulating in constantly changing patterns and shapes, forming nodes,

enhanced by the co-active mode and stance of orchestrating value practices. This kind of systemic working is argued to be dependent on, and simultaneously advancing, consciousness of value promises, and of what is doable in practice and what is not.

This, i.e., collective consciousness of promises and their applicability to practices, ultimately fosters service employees' motivation to live up to value promises (as instrumental to value fulfilment), partly because it reinforces liveable value promises, and dilutes less liveable ones. According to this it is suggested that living up to value promises is dependent on systemic consciousness of the promises.

To conclude, to illuminate what motivates employees to live up to value promises, the HSL suggest co-active enabling and an emphasis on human competences. Its PI model articulates re-ordering and directing the triadic promises framework into a pentagonal constellation, as depicted in Figure 1 by 1) adding a co-mode to its aspects and; 2) suggesting two additional aspects: The 4th aspect;

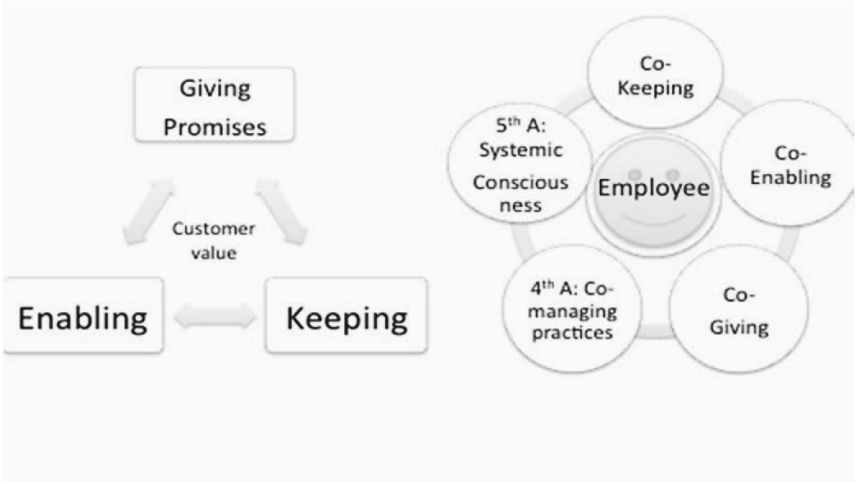


Figure 8 Traditional TPF and the PI -Model.

co-active managing of value practices, and the 5th aspect, systemic consciousness of promises. It places the employee's experience at centre.

The HSL emphasises the interactionsit and relational approach by introducing the concept, *social and service competence*, (discussed in section 4.4), which illuminates practical human competence required for interaction between people, i.e. attitudes, knowledge and skills that underpin interaction. It seems, according to employees' experiences that such competences foster service-contextual motivation. These competences underpin systemic workings required especially in, and relating to, affective emotion work in interactive value practices. Portrayed as a constellation, the PI model emphasizes the living and dynamic aspect inherent in the affective service provision in which living up to value promises in value practices is embedded.

Drawing upon literature on pro-social motivation and humanistic and transpersonal psychology, in particular consciousness- and meaning-seeking theories, combined with the empirical material, the demotivating and motivating factors, the developed framework suggests that a higher-order need, possibly relating to self-fulfilment, for servicing customers, participating in development work and contributing, seems to exist. Fulfilling this need for serving, participating and contributing that many employees expressed, seems to have a substantial influence on motivation to live up to value promises.

4.2 The Theoretical Fields that Underpin the HSL and its PI model

The HSL and its PI model strive to contribute by constructing an alternative logic, which expresses the employee discourse, to the currently dominating managerial logic within service research. To manage in this attempt, an interdisciplinary approach was required and several theoretical fields were brought in, because one would not sufficiently cover the wide range of issues that the motivating and demotivating factors depict. Emphasizing that the developed framework reveals the promise issue and affective service work from another, previously unexpressed employee practical discourse, the choice of new (to service research) alternative theoretical fields is relevant.

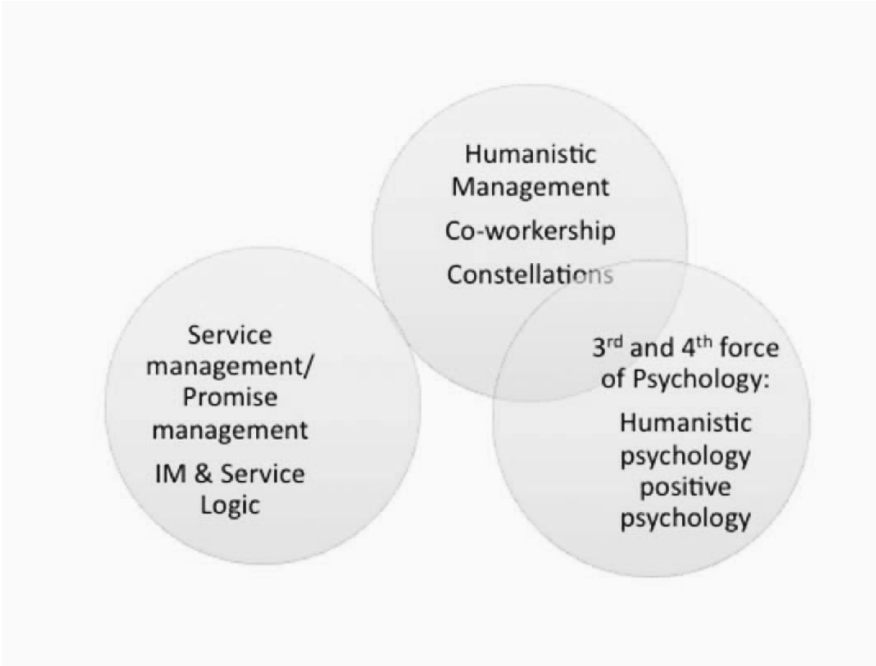


Figure 9 Theoretical informants

The HSL and its PI model draws upon three groups of theoretical fields, depicted in Figure 7. These are: 1) Service management, which is the point of departure for the study but is also applied to constructing the value promises typology (as a property of the 5th PI-aspect), which specifies types of value promises according to the service literature. Service management also informs the service competence concept. 2) Humanistic management, co-workership and work-life research and constellation theory, drawing upon systemic thinking (according to Hellinger); 3) applied modern psychology: so called third- and fourth-force psychologies, i.e. humanistic psychology and positive psychology, positive organizational behaviour (POB) and motivational science, and public service research.

he figure depicts that the study departs from service management: the TPF and internal marketing, which covers employee issues within service research. The other chosen theoretical fields have no prior overlap with service management, which means that incorporating these into service research contributors to extend the service research field, in particular its IM stream. The applied new theoretical fields are, in relation to one another, congruent as to ontology with the focus being on human experiences and functioning from a humanistic perspective.

The second and the third groups of theoretical fields are new to service research and therefore their reasoning, which is reflected throughout the discussion, may seem unfamiliar. Thus, the discourse may sound strange in a service research context. The choices of these particular theoretical informants are, however, empirically grounded, i.e. made during the research process, to illuminate factors experienced by employees that found no answer within current service management literature. This is because the service management literature reflects mainly customer issues from a managerial point of view, and within this discourse, the employee has traditionally remained more or less silenced.

4.2.1 Management and Service Management

In general, we humans are culturally influenced, biased and conditioned, which influences the way we choose to look at the world and how we perceive our world in various contexts, including how we interact and relate to our work-life. Therefore, researchers and authors of management literature, and the assumptions their theories built upon, reflect their culture (Hofstede 1980).

Since the 1920s, the US has been the world's largest producer and exporter of management theories discussing work motivation, leadership and organization (Hofstede 1980). These theories find their origins in scientific management and show at least four major culturally conditioned characteristics on which nations differ: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism and masculinity vs. femininity. Research findings show significant differences, e.g. between the US and the Nordic countries on some of these characteristics. In comparison with the US, the Nordic countries seem in particular to differ on uncertainty avoidance, being weaker on this aspect, and being stronger on the feminine aspect, which in turn is closely connected to a stronger democratic view. Notable differences on power distance were also found. Considering this when exploring issues such as motivation implies that employees in the Nordic countries in general[16] seem to value feminine characteristics

[16] Even if minor differences between countries within the Nordic region, such as Finland and Sweden, exist.

more highly, such as equality between sexes and more fluid gender roles in society (e.g. men being nurturing), quality of life, sympathizing with the unfortunate etc. (ibid).

Hofstede (1980, 1983, 1990) argued that differences such as those discussed above clearly have implications on how applicable US management theories are outside the US. As his research shows, the population in the Nordic countries seems be more prone to adopt humanistic values, which draw upon characteristics such as feminine ones that oppose traditional positivist he-man characteristics. Attempts to impose ideals that draw upon managerial assumptions that idealize traditional he-man masculinity characteristics, which humanism is sceptical towards (Rowan 2006:120, in Reason and Brandbury, edit.), on employees in the Nordic countries may indeed be complicated.

To conclude, while the Nordic countries in general seem to adopt more emancipated, equality-striving and democratic values (Hofstede, 1983), Nordic work-life traditions also differ from e.g. North American traditions. People in the Nordic countries favour not only humanistic ideals, but also practices that draw upon more democratic assumptions.

Therefore, management theories that better reflect Nordic work-life practices as to the four major culturally conditioned characteristics discussed here are applied in the abductive phases of constructing the HSL framework and its PI model. One is humanistic management and the other is co-workership. These are discussed after the following section, which reveals the discourse analysis on IM and its current state in terms of mode, the stance it adopts towards employees and how it defines motivation.

4.2.2 The Mode and Stance of Internal Marketing

The internal marketing concept entered the service marketing and related branding, quality management and IMC discourses in the early 1980s. Grönroos was one of the pioneers of IM: In his service quality model, Grönroos (1980) introduced the idea of interactive marketing and attributed a vital role to front-line employees as part-time marketers. In the 1990s, the Nordic School took a particular interest in the human resource aspect of IM as underpinning the organization's long-term relationships with customers (Schultz, 2004). Berry (1976), who saw employees as internal customers, jobs as products and the importance of satisfying the needs of these customers, was another of the pioneers of IM.

4.2.2.1 IM as Defined in Current Literature

The term IM was coined as an umbrella concept for internal activities and processes required for developing a service orientation, a service culture and an interest in marketing inside the firm. It was initially derived from the notion of employees as the internal market. It operates as a holistic management philosophy and process, which purpose is to ensure customer consciousness among employees and prepare and motivate employees to act in a service-oriented manner.

IM should be an integral part of strategic management. It consists of two processes, communication and attitude management. Involving employees in planning and decision-making is emphasized, but IM should according to Grönroos start from top-management. IM is not the same as HR. IM offers strategic guidance to HR on how to

use HR tools in line with strategic customer issues. It refers to the enabling aspect of the TPF. (Grönroos, 2000)

IM as defined by Ahmed and Rafiq (2002:10) is a planned effort "using marketing-like approach directed at motivating employees, for implementing and integrating organizational strategies towards customer orientation".

Within IM, motivation is a crucial concept. Most articles on IM note that *motivated employees* are significant in customer service, and motivating employees is one of IM's goals. Motivation has not, however, been addressed within IM in terms of its theoretical foundations. Within IM, motivation seems to be discussed briefly and in passing, and a clear consensual definition of motivation seems to be lacking. Motivated staff is seen as an instrumental goal for external market performance, and this goal is achieved by a variety of IM activities. Service contextual motivation as experienced by employees as a distinct issue has not been addressed in previous studies within service research.

In addition, motivation as addressed currently in IM seems to draw upon mainstream US management literature. The existent research departs in particular from a managerial angle, i.e., the focus is on how management can motivate employees toward customer orientation. Within service literature, Schneider and Bowen (1995:145-155) are among the few who have discussed motivation in more depth. They have bridged the verb to the noun and defined motivation in terms of being motivated, i.e., being energized, directed and persistent. They concluded employees are motivated 'in that they are energized by their needs and behave in ways likely to result in the gratification of those needs' (152). This view shows that both content and cognitive motivational theories are applied. Schneider and Bowen further argued that employees are motivated to provide quality service when they are energized by their needs and directed by goals associated with valued rewards. In general, most discussion on motivation within IM seems to draw upon goal-orientation motivation theories. Lately, however, the need to understand employees more profoundly has been recognized as important (Punjaisri and Wilson, 2007; King and Grace, 2008).

Of the TPF aspects, enabling falls within the domains of IM. However, enabling as a concept is claimed to be theoretically underdeveloped (e.g. Ahmed and Rafiq, 2003), and unpractised in the field (Wieseke, Ahearne, Lam and van Dick, 2009). However, IM as a firm's internal process that underpins most customer work is becoming increasingly important to all types of organizations (Schultz, 2004). Internal branding, as an component of IM, is getting increased recognition as its potential to support corporate brand-building initiatives by enabling employees to deliver the corporate brand promises has been recognized (Foster, Punjaisri and Cheng, 2010). Internal branding is seen as an enabler of employees' brand-supporting behaviours (Punjaisri, Evanschitzky and Wilson, 2009). For example Mahnert and Torres (2008:55) suggested, 'Internal branding can be identified as a specific tool and placed in the wider context of internal marketing'. The commonly perceived problem with IM is, however, that: 'while the concept of internal marketing is sound, the actual practice is an entirely different matter' (Schultz, 2004). One reason for this is a lack of adaptable models.

Within branding, the employees' role is recognized as crucial in delivering the service as promised by the firm's brand (Punjaisr and Wilson, 2007), and IM is noted because of its potential in turning employees into firms' brand ambassadors (Collin, 2002; Bergstrom, Blumentahl and Crohers, 2002; Simms, 2003). Further, branding is not only seen as an opportunity to shape customers' perceptions with respect to the organization, but also as an opportunity to shape employee perceptions about the firm

(King and Grace, 2007). In service research, Grönroos (2012) notes that IM is crucial to any firm that moves towards a service logic in its conduct of business.

4.2.3 A Discourse Analysis on IM

To build on understanding of the mode and stance IM adopts towards employees and how enabling and employee motivation is addressed in IM and internal branding, a discourse analysis was conducted covering approximately 40 articles. The analysis on IM was conducted by answering 10 questions, which are found in the appendix. Discourse analyses are commonly conducted to reveal underpinning power relations embedded in the discourse (Fairclough, 2012). Based on the analysis, it is fair to claim that IM by large adopts an objectifying stance towards employees, i.e., employees are treated as objects for managerial interventions. Even if IM attributes employees a crucial role in customer service, it places them in a passive, subordinate position, as the part that responds to leaders' activation.

For example, within IM, leaders are assumed to be in a position that grants them agency to instil organizational identity in employees (Wieseke, Ahearne, Lam and van Dick, 2009). Employees are assumed to be under the influence of charismatic leaders because 'what leaders do, think and feel should have a profound impact on followers' (ibid, 2009:126). Employees, on the other hand, are not ascribed agency as active actors who participate in 'instilling', but respond to what leaders think and do. Employing expressions such as 'to instil into' (which according to Oxford Dictionary means "to gradually but firmly implant and establish an idea or attitude, especially a desirable one, in a person's mind") reveals assumptions of employees' subordinate and passive positions, whereas the leader is attributed with capabilities to perform instilling (ideas into employees). In addition, even if managers have the power to instil ideas in employees, little is discussed about how employees in their own right evaluate these ideas. Mostly, the outcome is taken to depend on leaders' capabilities. This implies that management is able to order employees' subjectivity towards ideas that are central to IM, such as service orientation, brand ambassadorship, customer care, customer consciousness or motivation.

In line with this, the analysis revealed that the IM discourse assumes that it is possible to elicit, promote, facilitate, foster and attribute various capacities, qualities and statuses to particular agents. Thus, managers are able to order subjectivity, of whatever is required, towards service employees. The discourse attributes obedience to employees and command to managers, i.e., managers are attributed instilling capacities, while compliance is enforced by authority (Ahmed and Rafiq, 2002), i.e. an active role, and employees a responding, passive role. Thus, managers (should) strive to, and are ascribed power to, govern the organization in the forming of practices and ordering, e.g., motivation for customer consciousness and being brand ambassador subjectivity towards employees.

This means that the IM discourse assumes that management, adopting IM as a tool, program etc., is able to order the subjectivity of employees towards qualities that underpin customer work, such as 'employees as supporters, advocates and customer-service providers' (Schultz, 2004:117). This occurs e.g., when 'charismatic leaders instil into followers', for instance organizational identity, i.e., 'a sense of oneness with the organization' (Wiseke *et al.* 2009:123). This kind of subjectification towards something occurs through objectification, i.e., employees are targeted by a variety of programs and

activities. This implies that employees are assumed to be, and are discussed, mainly as an operand resource that managers are able to manage.

An extract of the analysis is given in Appendix 6. Based on the discourse analysis, conclusions have been made, as discussed in the following section, on how the IM discourse sees employee motivation.

4.2.3.1 What the IM Discourse Includes and Excludes

What the texts discuss about employees reveals the underpinning stance IM takes towards employees. Likewise, what the texts do not discuss about employees is also revealing. The most striking exclusion, in relation to what is explored in this thesis, concerns employees' experiences of issues relating to value practices:

a) Most texts place employees in a passive position and are not concerned about employees' perceptions or experiences of e.g., marketing ideas and promises.

b) Nor are employees' perceptions about IM programs and activities, even as responding parts, explored. Even if employees' perceptions may be noted in some texts, their experiences are mostly not. For example, job satisfaction is explored by in priori defined variables and by employing quantitative, standardized questionnaires. These parameters, that have been established previously in service management, frame the research and thereby fail to include new parameters that draw upon employees' real life experiences in value practices.

c) In addition, the focus is on how managers and leaders manage employees, but not on how employees experience being managed.

d) Nor are employees' experiences of how value practices are managed (by managers) explored.

Altough some texts include employees' views and implicitly suggest dialogic and relational assumptions as underpinning effective IM, these suggestions concern methods applied by IM in regard to interventions, i.e., what methods are most efficient to apply for e.g., impacting employees' attitudes in a given direction (customer focus, service mindedness etc.). What is excluded is how employees experience the marketing ideas, how employees experience IM programs, how employees experience being managed and how employees experience value practices, or their work-life context in general. What employees experience as motivating has not been explored within the frames of IM. In the following section, the issue of "managing employees" is discussed in more detail as it relates closely to motivation.

4.2.3.2 Are Employees Objects or Subjects?

The majority of texts assume that management by meritocracy is able to target the subjectivity of employees (their target audience to whom they communicate, not with). Thus, it is possible to order employees into e.g., motivation by internal marketing, which is seen as the adoption of marketing internally, e.g., an internal marketing mix (Ahmed and Rafiq, 2002:31, 2003) to which managerial authority is central (ibid., 2002). Relational internal marketing or attitude and communication management

(Grönroos, 2000) are other methods suggested for ordering employees towards desired states or activities and thus facilitating management in governing the organization. An exception to this commonly applied view is to note employees as an operant human resource (Grace and King, 2008), and explicates its meaning. The common assumption is however, that employees' behaviours need to be managed (Schultz, 2004).

It is appearent that some researchers indicate a more humane approach, e.g., it seems embedded in the Noridc School to some extent. In particular Grönroos often makes implications in this direction. The dialogic approach for knowledge renewal suggested by Ballantyne, (2004) also takes a different, more employee inclusive stance but seems to take the process as the unit of analysis, not employees' experiences. Employees' experiences are not elaborated upon in these writings.

In all texts, employees are ascribed a central, important and positive [17] position in value practice. Most texts note that employees may/can/should influence customers' experiences positively. For instance Ind (2003:393) argue that 'It is employees, through their understanding of a company's ideology, who truly build an image of the organization in the minds of customers and other stakeholders'.

The assumptions the IM discourse draws upon are paradoxical in at least two aspects:

1) As King and Grace (2008:3) pointed out, to label employees as a resource is misleading because as defined in management literature, resources are seen as elements, inputs or factors, from which the firm performs its activities. Such resources are static by nature and, as such, 'they do not evolve but rather they wear out after continued use' (Martin-de-Castro, *et al.* 2006:325; Dierick, I. and Cool, K. (1989), quoted in King and Grece, 2008:3). This implies that employees, as one unit, are discussed as a static resource that is used for an undefined amount of time. Such a view objectifies and deprives employees' agency. Simultaneously, employees are seen as an 'operant' resource, which implies spontaneity and agency. This seems incongruent.

2) Employees are granted agency by defining them as operant. What kind of agency is however not discussed. Even if the assumption is that employees have some kind of undefined agency, employees' behaviours need to be managed by managers. This implies that employees are under the control of managers, which by definition deprives agency. This reasoning simultaneously gives and deprives agency, even if only conceptually. What occurs in practice is mostly not discussed, as the IM articles mainly are conceptual.

4.2.3.3 IM on Motivation

In general, the texts tend to discuss motivation in a narrow way and in passing. The focus in the texts, and the locus of the inquiries in the articles reported is IM, what it is, the need for it as a managerial 'tool' and causes of failure of its application in practice.

If employees are discussed as an operant resource, as one unit, as mostly done in the texts, this deprives individual agency of employees. In terms of motivation, the texts

[17] Expect for Gounaris (2007:400) who states that 'service employees are reported to influence negatively the development of a market orientation hindering thus the service companies efforts to become more customer centric'

assume that this resource (singular), which in practice consists of numerous individuals, responds to motivational programs in a similar manner. Even if employees in all of the articles are ascribed central positions in value practices as instrumental for customer value creation, they are, in relation to IM, in most articles treated as the audience for managerial IM incentives. Thereby, managers are assumed to possess power to order subjectivity of employees, as one unit, towards e.g., 'oneness with the organization', motivation, acting as brand ambassadors etc. This is achieved through various 'methods' such as instilling, attitude management and communication management. As most texts see employee motivation as instrumental to whatever customer activities are subscribed, the underlying theme within the IM discourse is motivation.

Some authors adopt a more reciprocal and less objectifying mode by which employees are suggested to be approached. In addition, the notion that 'firms have to understand and orchestrate their employees' (Punjaisri et al., 2007:59) indicates a less objectifying mode. The objective of internal branding (as an aspect of IM) is to ensure that employees transform espoused brand messages into brand reality for customers and other stakeholders (ibid). Simultaneously, Punjaisri *et al.* suggested that employees are treated by managerial mechanisms such as training and internal communication 'to get the brand message through to obtain person – organization alignment' (ibid:59). However, the kind of knowledge is, to various degrees, still determined by disciplinary power of the service discourse, i.e., what qualities are needed for employees in value practices.

Thus, the common stance the discourse adopts towards employees is to place them in an important position, but does so mainly with a few expectations, from a paternalistic and objectifying angle. Front-line employees are considered to be highly important as 'brand ambassadors', supporters, advocates and customer service providers, yet as manageable and thus deprived of their agency to act as operant 'resources'. Perhaps what is aimed for is a striving to recognize employees as operating individuals with agency to live up to value promises or such? However, the current stance and mode of the IM discourse, with its embedded power positions, are inherently constructed in a manner that does not support such reasoning. The IM discourse is dominated by abstractions, and most articles are conceptual. As Punjaisri and Wilson, (2007: 60) noted: 'The existing insights have generally stemmed from research with management, brand practitioners' and even customers ' perspectives'.

Drawing on the articles, it can be concluded that the IM discourse sees employees, or *the staff,* as a significant resource in value practice. For example Thomson *et al.* (1999) claimed that if the promised clusters of values firms articulate are to be realized, employees play a critical role in delivering these. It is for this purpose that IM, and internal branding as an aspect of it, are ultimately required. According to these authors, IM should comprehend strategies that drive external brands, consisting of clusters of functional and emotional values, internally. These strategies should emphasize staff understanding about brand strategy and staff commitment. They state that the purpose of IM in a branding context is emotional and intellectual buy-in. Emotional buy-in refers, in their view, to what is in people's hearts and intellectual refers to what is in people's minds (ibid.).

Other authors offer IM purposes in line with this thinking; e.g. Bergstrom, Blumenthal and Crothers (2002) suggested that the purpose of IM in general is internal branding, which ensures 'that your employees reflect and reinforce the internal brand externally and reflect the external brand internally' and to 'convince the employees of the brands

uniqueness'. Farell (2002) claimed that internal branding is about keeping brand promises through the employees who 'become apostles for the brand'. Some authors currently even note the importance of employees' understanding of strategies etc., and employees' emotional buy-in to these. However, to explore these, i.e., how employees' understanding is advanced and how employees' emotional buy-in occurs, has not as yet been explored within IM from employees' first order position, to a notable degree. Nevertheless, an understaning of employee issues is stressed in most of the articles.

In regard to motivation, which seems to be one of the main purposes of IM, most texts identify common themes that underpin motivation, such as education, training, engaging and involving, to ensure that employees become brand ambassadors. However, it can be concluded that even if employees are attributed an important role in customer work, employees are mostly treated as a 'human operant resource' that can be mobilized into action by management. It, i.e., the resource, becomes motivated to act upon marketing ideas through IM programmes. This means that it is managers who motivate (are active) employees who respond (are reactive) and become motivated. Motivation as an IM concept remains undefined in the above-discussed articles.

4.2.4 The management Doctrine and the Root Meaning of Management

As IM by and large draws upon research on management (i.e. Punjaisri and Wilson, 2007), a brief discussion on current management doctrine is required here, as it forms one of the tenets of IM. The management doctrine illuminates the underpinnings of IM that have been adopted into its principles. This discussion also motivates the adoption of humanistic management and co-workership as the theoretical tenets of HSL framework and its PI model, as these offer principles that are in congruency with the empirically grounded demotivating and motivating factors. Thus, as a reference point to the developed HSL framework, management principles that draw upon the core ideas of scientific management are discussed.

4.2.4.1 The Mode and Stance of Management

The mode and stance in current management literature does by and large still adopt a view that polarizes management vs. workers in opposing positions. This, in its current form, is the legacy of the industrial revolution and principles of scientific management. These ideas, and their inherent assumptions, do still influence research and practice. Inherent in this view is the partition of management versus workers or employees, which draws upon earlier traditions of blue- and white-collar workers in factory settings, which currently still applies in e.g. service organizations, such as hospitals, call-centres and the like (Huzell, 2005).

The management doctrine has until recently been mostly absorbed with frameworks and applications of 'Scientific Management', prescribing administrative strategies and principles on organizing, focusing on planning and controlling firm internal resources for the betterment of efficiency and profit (Witt, 2007). These principles, as argued currently, were apparently better suited to militarized competition, where strict lines of authority are vested within hierarchic and bureaucratic organizations (ibid). Indeed, up until the present day, management has been focused on procedures, techniques, methods, practices and organizational rules such as span of control on specific behaviour and on problems of personnel management such as compensation etc. (Drucker, 1994). The rational, positivistic and de-humanized ontology of scientific

management has taken the research focus towards solving problems about *how to* aspects of efficient management, which has come to overshadow the equally intriguing questions of *what* and *why,* other than for stakeholders profit seeking purposes (ibid.). Further, the politically, technically and hierarchically constructed separation of managers from others, which also ignores the many managerial activities performed by non-managers that has been questioned for some years by critical writers, maintains the opposing modes between the two 'polarities' (Grey, 2003).

In addition, research findings show that even if firms in practice strive to function post-bureaucratically, to which e.g. service management subscribes, their organizational perspective and conditions are still of traditional bureaucratic character (Simonsen and Heide, 2009). In addition, 'workers' voices are still officially represented by trade unions. The traditions of human resources management, which is in charge of personnel issues in firms, draw upon scientific management, and their practices do first and foremost still cover managerial tools for administrative control routines and development processes, and thus as vehicles, for managing the human resource (Sädevirta, 2004).

Currently, the objectives and tasks for management often relate to change management of different sorts, such as cost cutting; increasing profits, competitive strength, customer satisfaction, market share and innovativeness; improving productivity, decision making and technological progress; and downsizing. In practice, change management is the responsibility of management and is often done with the support of outside consultants. Research findings show evidence that reaching these change management objectives often fails (depending on theme, 54-94%) (Sorge and Witteloostuiijn, 2009:1211). One reason for failure might be that change is introduced as a concept, imposed with a 'top-down' stance (Green, 2009). In practice, operational employees are typically not involved in change operations other than as objects for change programs, and when these (at times) superficial programs fail, operational employees are often accused of resisting change (Grey, 2003).

The root meaning of concept managing and management refers to handling tasks in practice skilfully (Hofstede, 1993). Management originates from the Latin word for hand, which subsequently was extended to refer to handling. Managing has also been associated with house-holding (ibid.), i.e., handling everyday practicalities and taking care of domestics etc. Management as an organizational concept draws upon North American origins, initially referring to management processes, handled by managers, a specific class of people responsible for the production etc. in factories (representing the owners). Later management came to be associated mostly with scientific management (ibid). The applicability of mainstream management models are to a growing extent being questioned outside their original context (ibid.). This critical view on management is supported by a growing number of scholars and practitioners who see that knowledge emerges out of doings, from people who learn by doing (Sorge and Witteloostuiijn, 2009).

The presumptions of the prevailing management doctrine regarding division of labour, i.e., its managerial mode and its marginalizing stance towards employees, basically describe how one group gains/is given control and power over another. Considering these traditional management principles in the light of the demotivating and motivating factors that have been identified in this study, an alternative framework is clearly required to describe the employee discourse on motivation.

4.2.5 Humanistic Management and Co-workership and the HSL Principles

The contribution of humanistic management to developing the HSL framework is primarily in its principles that draw upon an "employee inclusive" *stance*, i.e., one that sees employees as having equally valuable experiences as other organizational actors, and the integration of these in managing practices. In regards to the stance the core principles of humanistic management reflect a stance that employees found motivating, according to the empirically grounded motivating factors discussed Chapter 3 (table 6). The co-workership framework contributes in particular to the PI-model with a current, modern employee inclusive view on the working *mode* that reflects one which employees found motivating. That is, it contributes with suggestions on the manner by which value practices can be managed by co-workership ideas, and sees both employees and managers as co-workers.

Thus, as I see it, humanistic management contributes with its explicit humanistic stance as the basic tenets of the HSL framework (which is profoundly divergent from, and critical to mainstream management). Because its humanistic ontology is very thoroughly articulated, it is congruent also with the stance applied for the study. Co-workership seems more pragmatic, and perhaps more prescriptive and more articulate on current work-life practices. Therefore it offers a mode that is congruent with employees' experiences as identified in this study. Indeed the initiators of research on co-workership claim that it is a complement to other work-life research, such as motivation and leadership (Tengblad, Rovio-Johansson, Hällsten, Andersson and Irfaeya, 2006). They claim it is an "action framework" that is created by co-workers (ibid). Hence, it seems to lack the profoundness philosophical elaboration, i.e., in regards to its ontological views, even it embraces the ideas of competence based ethics, citizen concept by Kant, and virtue ethics (ibid). Thus, as applied to the PI-model co-workership contributes mainly with suggestions of working modes, such as responsibility and adult behaviour.

The two frameworks emphasise similar issues, and seem to be congruent, in particular in their relational and interactions approaches. Thus the two complement each other. Also their view on power seems, and is in this study, interpreted as adopting a corresponding view. Humanistic management emphasises co-active power sharing, and this is one of its main concerns. Co-workership speaks of shifting power to employees, but is not as elaborate on this issue as humanistic management. Co-workership seems to assume that a shift of power occurs through co-operation, reciprocity and the leadership process. Humanistic management emphasises *integration of experiences* as the means for achieving co-active power sharing. It notes that it is practices that place the orders of what is to be decided and done, and therefore power is embedded in practices (Follet, 1924). Consequently it is essential to analyse and compare experiences, and as Follett (1927: 17) claims; "not only should we analyze and compare our experience, but we should deliberately experiment". Humanistic management sees that the organization as a whole benefits from understanding the experiences and views of all actors involved in a situation (Eylon, 1994).

Thus, parallel to the empirical grounding, both humanistic management and co-workership inform the framework that is developed in this study. Regarding the power issue the HSL adopts a view which sees that co-active power sharing (humanistic management) indeed requires a shift of power (co-workership), and this may be achieved by integration of all involved actors experiences (humanistic management).

Next humanistic management is discussed, and its core principles that are incorporated into the HSL framework are elaborated upon.

4.2.6 Core Principles of Humanistic Management

Humanistic management, informed by the works of Follett (1924, 1925, 1926), contributes to the development of the HSL framework in particular in regard to its stance. The stance of humanistic management is reflected in its central principles regarding: a) its ontological approach, which departs from practices and experiences and thereby places the 'worker' in a central position; b) power sharing, which adopts the idea of *power with,* through c) integrating the experience, interests and facts perceived from a wide enough scope of opponents, which here refers to the employees' experiences; d) equality and integrity, which in practice implies managing together. These principles summarize the stance that HSL framework from humanistic management.

Humanistic management as a distinct stream of management theory dates back to the early 1900s. It was initiated by Mary Parker Follett, who has been called the mother of humanistic management (Parker, 1995) and the grandmother of humanist and relational line of thinking in management (Federman, 2010). Her thoughts and ideas are still seen as influential and innovative today (Simms, 2009) and she is claimed to be one of management theory's finest pioneers (Eylon, 1998). She was active in the early days of scientific management and contemporary with Taylor and Weber. Follet's contribution to a more humanistic stance of management was advanced at the time. She was said to be 'a visionary in the fields of human relations, democratic organizations and management'[18]. She saw management as a philosophy and 'managerial activities' as the art of getting things done through people.

She was widely recognised for the achievements by her contemporaries, as her understanding of organizations and their functions became evident in her first study, she was even quoted by the current president (Parker, 1995). Even current day management celebrities, such as Drucker and Kanter, have recognized the worth of her works and their applicability to organizational practices (ibid).

Even if her management ideas, based on their time of conception, could appear archaic, and despite claims that her ideas have not received the attention they deserve, her thoughts seem to be gaining renewed interest, (Parker, 1984; Parker, 1995, Eylon 1998, Simms, 2009). Currently she seems to be quoted to a growing degree within different streams of management research and educational courses. Follett has commonly been "credited with several innovative ideas about organisations" (Fry and Thomas, 1996: 11). Her ideas have contributed to current fields such as the conceptual management literature on control (Parker, 1984), empowerment frameworks and public administration (Eylon, 1998), strategic management and visionary leadership (McLarney and Rhyno, 1999), nonlinear human dynamics (Mendenhall, Macomber and Cutright, 2000) and sociology of organizations (Godwyn and Gittel, 2012), to mention a few. Currently awards in her name are granted, such as the award in conflict resolution (Association for conflict resolution, 2013). According to Saprun (2006) Follett ranks first among women contributors to management and administration thought and her "achievements are non less significant than Nightingales" (ibid: 131). Her ideas seem to have remained unfamiliar to service management.

[18] See http://mpfollett.ning.com

Initially her focus was on societal issues in general, and conflict resolution in specific. Later she shifted her focus to business, and became a recognised speaker in national and international business conferences (ACR, 2013). Her concepts of management are informed and conditioned by her broader political and philosophical views (Fry and Thomas, 1996), and she was among the first recognised experts on industrial and labour relations. Rooted in philosophical pragmatism, Follet's (1924) ideal of *integration* transcends and improves upon the common, basic dualism- domination and subordinate – in conflict theory (Godwyn and Gittel, 2012).

Her views, as discussed here, are consistent with the experiences of the employees that participated in the study, and therefore humanistc management was chosen as one of the theoretical frameworks to inform the construction of the HSL and its PI model. The HSL principles that underpin the PI model reflect factors that employees found motivating. Departing from a practical and humanistic ontology is argued to be highly relevant as a tenet of the developed framework, which aims to describe an employee discourse on motivation.

The core principles are here discussed in the context of variable b, the management process (in the UofO table) on a general, organizational level. This means that the core principles are discussed in terms of the management process, and related to employees' experiences of 'motivating management'.

Practical ontology

The practical ontology that humanistic management departs from places relations and relating of activities and creative experience in the centre. Follett articulates this by claiming:

> We shall see that the activity of the individual is only in a certain sense caused by the stimulus of the situation because that activity is itself helping to produce the situation, which causes the activity of the individual. In other words behavior is a relating not of 'subject' and 'object' as such, but of two activities. In talking of the behavior process we have to give up the expression act 'on' (subject acts on object, object acts on subject); in that process the central fact is the meeting and interpenetrating of activities. (1924: 60)

A central concept to the practical ontology is unity. "Follett unites worker and manager, self and society, subject and object" (Godwin and Gittel, 2012: xvi), she does not choose between entities but focuses on the relation that connects them (ibid). She believed in dynamic control and was first and foremost concerned to integrate organizational activities and argued that labor and management should perceive themselves to be on the same side (Parker, 1984; Schilling, 2000).

The interdependence of all the activities involved Follett saw as clearly evident. She had no understanding for a departmental problem. She claimed that "The part of modern business are so intricately interwoven that the worker, in order to have an intelligent opinion in regard to even his own problem, has not only to know something of process, of equipment, has not only to consider the effect on the introduction of new machinery and the training of the workers, he should also understand the connection between the production and the commercial side, should know something of the effectiveness of the sales organization – misguided sales or purchasing policies may ruin a business. (Follett: 1925: 11, in Godwin and Gittel, 2012)

Applied to the HSL framework, departing from a practical ontology regarding the stance implies putting employees' activities and employees' experiences at the centre. This is in line with the stance employees in the cases expressed as motivating, i.e., what kind of 'managing' they perceived as functioning and enabling in regards to living up to

promises. Departing from employees' experiences, and their activities in value practices at centre of enabling implies employees' experiences of these practices would be considered in making promises as well. This could, according to employees' experience, reduce the gap between what is promised and what actually occur in value practices.

Sharing power

Applying this second principle to the HSL framework implies that enabling departs by sharing power with those that possess knowledge and competences of specific activities. This implies that traditional management, which applies a power over stance, is replaced with the alternative co-active stance of enabling. In practice, it means that managers cannot act upon 'workers' as objects, and manage them, but act in relation to employees in activities related to value practices. This emphasises a co-active attitude towards enabling and includes those with experience of value practices, i.e, employees. This practice- and experience-based ontology is in line with the stance employees found to be motivating.

Management of 'labour' (workers) is central to scientific management. A central inherent issue in that view is problems arising from management of the human resource, which implies the use of "power over" and authority.

Humanistic management, even if being first and foremost the advocate for progression was also the advocate for the weaker, subordinate party, and thereby also become 'an advocate for the people'. Nevertheless, Follett did criticize the idea of transfer and distribution of power, which she did not believe in (which seemed to be some kind of buzzword and the solution offered to labour related problems at the time) as:

> Genuine power can only be grown, it will slip from every arbitrary hand that grasps it; for genuine power is not coercive control, but coactive control. Coercive power is the curse of the universe; coactive power, the enrichment and advancement of every human soul. (Follett, 1924: iii)

Integration of experiences

The third principle relates closely to the second power sharing one. The concept 'integration,' was coined concerning power and referred to an alternative to the prevailing coercive stance. Relating to the co-active power view, as an alternative to coercive, and 'power with' rather than 'power over' integration (of opposing ideas etc.) became are central concept. The purpose was to offer a concept that emphasized building of understanding (between the opposites) and thus the integration of polarities. Therefore, integration, as a process of understanding became central to her ideas on creating 'coactive power'. Follet claimed that:

> Sympathy with labour will not alone solve the labour question; a sympathy with labour that is not founded on understanding often makes matters worse, for any attempt to work out a method of industrial democracy must begin with a frank recognition that the interests involved are different and must be dealt with as such. It is the ethics of the sentimentalist to say that men's interests are the same; if they were, life would stagnate. (Follet 1924)

According to humanistic management, the central problem in relations is **power**. However, according to humanistic management the answer is not found in seeking balance in power by transferring it. Transferring power builds on compromises, which sacrifices the **integrity** of the individual. Further transferring power only rearranges what already exists, and does therefore not create any new social values. Therefore, Follett argued transferring power is the panacea for all our ills. The purpose of her work was to seek means of social progress, and democracy in workplaces. 'The greatest need

of today is a keen, analytical, objective study of human relations', and this 'should be studied while it is lived' (Follett, 1924). In contemporary work-life such a view has not been adopted to the extent one perhaps could expect. Still today human relations, in particular in regard to employees, practices and managing of practices, are more commonly explored from a managerial angel.

Further, Follett questioned the overreliance on objective facts and the role of experts having access to these (objective facts). That the polarization of the experts, the 'modern despot' who have the access to facts, and thereby a superior position, against the 'muddled befogged people' (Follett, 1924: 3), the workers in factories and such, who have just their experience, would advance development on any aspect in society, was in her view questionable. She did not believe that scientific management would bring more democracy or social progress. Nor did she think materia was the answer that would bring forth social progress and democracy in workplaces and society. She doubted that the 'muddled, befogged people' would give up their experience when shown all 'objective nice solid things' they could have, and then become 'automata' (be managed) in favour of the 'superior race of men called experts' (managers) and objective facts of these experts.

To place people in superior positions based on assuming that they are experts as they have the facts, and suppressing those with experience does not, according to humanistic management, lead to progression. Follett argued that the emergence and use of facts is always to be seen in the light of the needs of those who order the research or statistics, and further that the interpretations of facts depends on needs. What the expert does see, and which facts the expert chooses to tell becomes central because the 'analysis of fact finding' and interpretation of the facts depend in turn on needs. Further, humanistic management claims that situations change, and the experts enter situations where they do research and surveys with their own prejudice, interest, stereotypes and find what they expect to find and what the 'habits of their eyes lead them to see' (ibid: 9). Thus, the attending to facts are bound in the situation and the needs of those ordering research, and the interpretation of those doing objective research . Impartial, impersonal objective facts have always to be seen in the light of this and thus: 'the kind of objectivity which some of the fact-worshippers are endlessly seeking will be endlessly hidden from them' (ibid: 11).

However, facts per se, is not questioned in humanistic management, but methodological as well as ontological issues, such as the lack of transparency and the (perhaps unconscious) assumptions guiding research, and the narrow scope by which facts are presented, without a consideration of the **relation** between different facts, is what is questioned. Follet concluded, 'to view facts in relation to one another is of the utmost importance and that fact-finding and fact-presentation must take this very seriously into account' (ibid: 12). It is the relation of facts to the structure of the social life that brings value to facts. It is when we learn to make facts live and leap into an organic order, that the use of facts becomes fruitful. When relating facts it is vital to recognize that 'facts must be understood as the whole situation with whatever sentiments, ideals, beliefs, enter into it' (ibid: 13).

To conclude the stance of humanistic management argues for the application of a systemic perspective, which considers the experience of those involved in practices as the ontological unit and thus provides with a post-bureaucratic approach that is applicable in the context like the one explored in this study, and thereby contributes to the HSL framework with a well-articulated humanistic stance.

Further, humanistic management also questions the opposing of polarities in itself, and takes this to be against progression. The argument of one fact finder against the other does not support progress, but reinforces the current social structures, and it is rather the relating the experience of opposing, or different, views that are of interest if progress is sought. (Follett, 1927). Thus the transfer of power is not of interest, 'but integrating the experience, interests and facts perceived from a wide enough scope, of opponents is what brings forth progress, in any context' (Follett, 1924: i-iv).

To its stance, as depicted in its core principles, humanistic management differs from mainstream management and offers an alternative to the currently in mainstream prevailing hegemonic principles, and the polarizations between management and 'workers'. Such polarizations do reinforce unbalanced power structures that influences everyday work-life in unhealthy directions, and such polarization seem rather common today (Huzell, 2005). This kind of polarization is well exemplified in the factors that the employees who participated in this study found demotivating. Next the contribution of co-workership to the HSL is discussed.

4.2.1 Co-workership: A Nordic Perspective on Work-Life Research and Practice

Co-workership, which is an academic research area that has developed into a distinct perspective, or a paradigm (Tengblad, 2007), is the second main theoretical informant to the construction of the HSL framework, in particular to its PI model in regard to the mode it adopts.

Currently centrally managed and strictly hierarchical organizations seem, to a growing extent, be abandoned in favour of flatter and decentralized forms of organizing (Tengblad, Rovio-Johansson, Hällsten, Andersson and Irfaeya, 2006). The co-workership perspective has grown out of the ever-increasing demands on democracy, in society as a whole, and in work-life (ibid). The popularity of the co-workership concept in Sweden can be understood in regards to its correspondence with the current zeitgeist, and how it reflects current developments in society (Kilhammer, 2011).

Co-workership is an empirical concept and a hybrid way of organizing that has been developed during the past decades in the Nordic countries, in particular in Sweden, and draws upon research on work-life. It emphasizes culturally embedded features, (e.g. the ones discussed by Hofstede, 1990) which are not captured by other previous concepts, such as empowerment, organizational citizenship behaviour and followership etc. (Anderson et al., 2006). The development of the co-workership framework draws upon longstanding traditions of labour-management cooperation and individualized management practices, common in particular in Sweden (ibid.).

Like humanistic management co-workership also adopts the idea of "circularity" or circular ontology, which refers to a non-linear worldview. Humanistic management speaks of circular experiences and co-workership adapts the idea of circular co-workership processes. This refers to seeing some of its core ideas in circular relations to each other. Co-workership adopts; trust and openness, fellowship and co-operation, engagement and meaning for the common work-task, responsibility and initiative as it underpinning ideas. It assumes that these exit in a circular process and reinfoce each other (Wickelgren, Kazemi, Andersson, and Tengblad, 2012). However, to do so active participation is required of co-workers, in particular in regards to willingness to "spin the wheel" (ibid: 16).

The concept co-workership is a direct translation from the Swedish concept 'medarbetarskap', which is a descriptive concepts that lately has gained popularity mainly in Sweden and reflects peoples relations in organizations, the practices in and around these relationships (Hällsten et al., 2006), and how individuals relate to different aspects of work. Thus the concept is embedded in the Swedish culture, and therefore to some extent applicable in the other Nordic countries, in particular in 'Scandinavian' organizations.

In Finland this concept has not been established, neither in practice nor in theory. One reason for this might be that the Finnish work-life research traditions are not as longstanding and thorough as the Swedish (Sädevirta, 2004:42-44), and therefore Sweden is more advanced on this particular research aspect. So far, to the better of my knowledge, just one well-established and merited Finnish 'practical theorist' and author, Peltola, is explicitly using a concept with a meaning resembling what is meant by co-workership. He departs from a stance that resembles that of humanistic management and applies a mode similar to that of co-workership. He has coined the concepts 'työystävä' (2000, 2011:300) and 'työystävyys' (2013) (meaning work-friend and work-friendship), drawing upon the concept 'associate' by Walton (1992).

The co-workership framework departs from a practical angle and stands for a more neutral (as to positions) working mode and does therefore resonate better with the mind-sets with the contemporary Nordic employee. First and foremost it places the employee, or co-worker, in an active and subject position, which is radically different to the views applied in mainstream managerial frameworks, e.g. in IM, which is central to this study. Even if Swedish organizational practices, compared to Finnish, seem to be somewhat more advanced in regard to adopting democratic ideas (Hofsted, 1980, Sädevirta, 2004:), Finnish employees do, as the demotivating and motivating factors identified in this study indicate, have preferences in democratic directions.

In practice, however, it seems that the polarization between 'management and workers' still determines the organizational practices, to a varying degree, depending on the field of business and the culture of the firm. For instance, in case firm I that by tradition is active in the shipping industry, but has developed also into a hospitality service firm, the polarization has long standing traditions. Many reasons to such traditions that may hinder progress in more democratic directions, seen from the employees' perspective, can surely be found. According to some employees that participated in the study the labour union was, perhaps surprisingly, perceived as one of the parties maintaining polarization structures. Hence, the labour union is seen as instrumental to power struggles that directly reflect to firm internal affairs, and thus to value practices, in unfavourable directions seen from the employees perspective .[19]

To conclude, in regard to adopting ideas of inclusive organizational practices, in line with the factors employees found motivating, Finland seems to be less advanced than Sweden. Therefore, ideas resembling the co-workership once have not been established to the same extent as in Sweden, neither in theory nor in practices. According to Sädevirta (2004: II, 42-46) research on work-life is still scares in Finland and does not have similar traditions as the field does in its neighbour Nordic countries. Moreover, such ideas have not been articulated in the Nordic School of service research, which is of specific interest in the view of this study, considering its positioning. Applying the core principles of co-workership to the HSL framework, in particular to its PI- model,

[19] While working in case firm 1, I visited in both The Finnish Seamen's Union's and the Finnish Ship Owners' Assicoation's meetings. This means I have literally experienced the polarized tension between the two, in practice.

seems relevant as these offer articulated aspects that are congruent with the motivating factors regarding the working mode. It is argued that such ideas, anchored in Swedish work-life research, advance the understanding about what motivates employees to live up to value promises.

4.2.2 The Practice Mode of Co-workership

Four core co-workership ideas regarding the *working-mode* are incorporated into the PI model:

1) A creative working mode, which suggests co-creation of practices. This refers to applying a creative-mode of working to the established aspects of the TPF, i.e., *co-creating* of promises.

2) Including employees as subjects in practices, i.e., a co-working mode.

3) A focus on relationship and an emphasis on attributes such as togetherness, prudence and honesty. This aspect draws the attention also to how employees relate to work and their own competence development.

4) Responsibility and an adult working mode, which refers to an adult relation to work, colleagues and customers.

These four co-workership ideas contribute to the PI model: a) By the addition of the co-mode to all the TPF's current aspects. The co-mode implies that these aspects are consciously considered from a co-working angle. b) By suggesting a 4th co-active managing aspect to the model, which emphasises employees' ownership of practice and agency to participate. And c) By suggesting a 5th aspect to the model: systemic consciousness of promises, which ensures input from practices to the making of promises, and a systemic awareness of promises.

Adding the co-mode of the TPF aspects draws attention to- and widens the scope of the co-operation required in value practice as instrumental to service contextual motivation. The additional co-managing aspect draws the attention to how a co-workership mode is congruent with the motivating factors identified in this study. The demotivating factors in turn seem to find explanations, regarding mode as well as stance, in traditional mainstream management logics. Thus, co-workership helps to pinpoint how traditional management in its mode, as employees' experienced it, is dysfunctional in regard to service contextual motivation.

<u>Relations and relating</u>
The main idea of co-workership is that all practices are seen as occurring in relations and all people in the organization are considered co-workers. Thus, how the idea of co-workership turns out in practice is determined by how people relate to each other and to different aspects of work-life. This line of reasoning puts all employees 'on the same line'. Co-workers are assumed, regardless of position, to actively and responsibly participate in working towards established goals. This applies to grass-root levels as well as management.

Even if co-workership is first and foremost about organizational practices seen as relations, applied to all (who are) people, including management, does not imply that traditionally (opposing) groups, having different and perhaps contradicting perceptions, would not exist in practice. Nor does it imply that leadership and

management is not required. The need for these activities does exit, but these appear in different forms, as relational aspects of everyday practices, and thereby deviate from relying on the traditional objectifying view inherent in management. Further co-workership emphasizes togetherness and prudence, which to their nature are including (as opposed to opposing) and as a concept co-workership has a positive connotation inherent (Hällsten et al., 2006).

Incorporating the co-workership line of thought to the empirically grounded demotivating and motivating factors is advantageous. It reveals the need to explicitly equalize the inherent superiority status that favours traditional management (as more knowledgeable) over the lower subordinate status of the employees.

The stance of humanistic management and mode of co-workership allows the practices (here, to live up to promises) to be in focus. This in turn allows e.g., service employees to 'own' their work professionally, not as subordinates but as equals and professional, competent employees. This in turn implies that their sayings about practices are worthy of considering. This perspective does not only legitimize, but even encourages, to place employees and their experiences in the limelight, and thus contributes to describing an employee discourse on motivation in line with the empirically grounded motivating and demotivating factors.

4.2.2.1 Relationships, Responsibility and Power

One of the core ideas of co-workership is decentralized power, shifting power down the traditional hierarchal ladder (Kinlaw, 1995), allowing co-workers to own their work and e.g. solve the problems in practice, where they occur. This in turn also implies responsibility to own the work. The idea of 'power-shifting' differs from what is meant in current management literature by empowerment. According to Tengblad and Hällsen (2006) empowerment is an approach that management implements for administrative purposes, which in practice according to Tengblad and Hällsen is a tool of manipulation, and therefore not relevant in an approach that departs from co-workership reasoning. As described in co-workership it is a question of sharing responsibility and also letting 'operational' employees take responsibility, which in practice can be challenging for the managers, as responsibility traditionally walks hand-in-hand with power.

To redistribute responsibility, and thus reorganize prevailing dysfunctional power structures, have many practical implications and consequences that in practice can be challenging for managers to adopt to, consciously or unconsciously. This implies that operational co-workers take over parts of leadership, which contradict many of the contemporary ideas of managing, leading and leadership (Tengblad et al., 2007), and on a personal level can be hard for managers to abdicate from. However, as the concept co-workership also encompasses leaders and management as co-workers who e.g. need to have/develop co-workership competences as everybody else (Tengblad et al., 2007), attention to this aspect is also required.

Taken in practice, co-workership is not related to a specific employee group (Tengbland, 2007), but refers to all co-workers, independent of the hierarchical scale. The democratic nature inherent in co-workership, which partly emerges from relying on a relational reasoning and decentralized decision-making, implies that leadership in theory, takes a completely different shape. Research findings indicate that leadership

practices in firms that apply co-workership natured reasoning indeed do change (Bigalir, 2006).

Tengblad (2006) departs from a somewhat normative definition of co-workership and places the focuses on the co-workers behaviours and abilities to behave responsibly. This way it strives to find a balance between employees' rights and duties. This implies an inherent managerial stance in the view of some critics of the framework. Indeed, some of the ideas of co-workership have their impetus in administration and competence-based theories, which implies managerial presumptions. On the other hand the ethical aspect is strong in co-workership. Further, leadership is assumed to develop in relationships, in which subjects interact on equal terms (Andersson and Tengblad, 2006). Consequently, the traditional assumed superiority of the managers, inherent in management, may be reduced when leadership is seen as occurring in relations between people. Further, in the light of more equality-based views on management, such as co-workership and humanistic management, traditional moribund leadership assumptions' and norms may be easier to make visible.

The co-workership framework has also been criticized for neglecting some central issues in today's work-life. It has not dealt with, or strived to resolve, traditional gender related hierarchies as it, in line with mainstream organizational studies has remained gender neutral (Collinsson and Hearn, 1996; Roper, 1996; Wahl, Holgersson, Höök and Linghag, 2001; Wahl in Vänje, 2005). Gender-related issues did emerge in the empirical material, but not as particularly central issues, and were not therefore dealt with it the discussion. It does however indicate that gender is a relevant issue, worth of more in depth exploration, also within the topic of this study.

Despite the latter criticism, which has been raised against co-workership as a modern work-life framework, the framework does contribute to this study in particular by the mode it represents, in describing the employee discourse as expressed in the HSL. The stance the HSL framework adopts draws, as discussed previously, in particular on humanistic management. The next section discusses the central Human Service Logic principles.

4.2.3 The HSL Principles that Underpin Co-active Managing

The core principles applied for the HSL framework are summarized in table 8. Section I of the table depicts the principles that have been adopted form humanistic management, section II the ideas that have been adopted from co-workership. Those adopted from humanistic management refer mainly to the stance and those from co-workership mainly to the mode of managing, but the line between the two is not sharp, as they are interpreted to apply a somewhat similar ontology, even if more articulated towards humanism in humanistic management.

Table 8 Humanistic Co-workership the cornerstones of the HSL framework

I) Humanistic management: Departs from a practical ontology, i.e., the activities in practices and places relations and relating, and the individuals experience of these at center	
a) Power sharing; power with. Power= experiences and knowledge. Draws upon equality and integrity	b) Integrating the experience, interests and facts perceived from a wide enough scope, of opponents. Unity is central to integration
Humanistic management contributes with the stance that co-managing adopts towards employees and the activities in practices.	
II) Co-workership:	
e) Creative working mode	f) Co-workers as subjects in practices
g) Relation/s (-ships) Togetherness, Prudence, Honesty	h) Responsibility and an adult working mode:
Relations to work Relations to competence development	Adult relation to work, to colleagues and customers
Competence development **Professional** **Co-workership competences:** **Self awareness** **Social Competences**	

Power sharing and integration of experiences are discussed in section 4.2.3.1. The co-mode was discussed in the previous section and is elaborated further here in regard to creative working modes.

Creative co-working modes refers to working modes where employees (regardless of position) co-act, as subject-to-subject and thus have a - and are in a **relation** to different aspects of their working environment, colleagues and themselves and are considered **responsible** adults (Tengblad et al., 2007:20-45). These core principles, as shown in table, attempt to depict the kind of working mode that employees find to influence on motivation positively, and are therefore adopted to the HSL principles, as an aspect of the mode that underpins the PI model.

Adult is central to co-workership and is a complex concept, which can be understood from a variety of viewpoints. Basically adult refers to being mature (basically implying a certain minimum age required for employment). In coworkership it mainly refers to having reached a mature mental and emotional stage of development. According to the co-workership framework adult refers first and foremost to the attitude that a person adapts to his work, and is closely related to responsibility. In the developed framework, adult refers not only to the co-workers attitude but also to the to the attitude the organization adopts towards its employees. Reflecting the empirically identified motivating factors this implies grantig employees' agency to act as responsible adults (which in practise does not always seem to be the case).

The principles relate to each other and as in any system a change in one cause a change in the others. These principles reinforce the HSL framework and its PI model. Therefore the PI model is best portrayed as taking the form of a constellation, a dynamic organized whole, where groups or clusters of related things, such as relationships, exist in configurations that constantly change and influence each other.

A common theme in both frameworks that have been adopted as the underpinnings of the HSL is leadership. The view humanistic management draws upon is that leadership involves understanding of the whole group as well as each individual (McLarney and Rhyno, 1999). In Follett's (1927) view no-one is born to leadership, but it is a skill that has to be learnt. She sees that it encompasses a technical side and a personnel side; a knowledge on how to deal fairly and fruitfully with one's fellows (ibid: 14).

The view co-workership takes on leadership, was previously discussed, is similar and departs from the relational position and describes leadership in particular as something that occurs between people. It builds on ethical principles to be able to relate (to someone and something) in a constructive way. It includes issues such as trust, respect and loyalty as central, which in turn build on truthfulness and honesty (Tengblan and Hällsent 2006). By position, a manager according to co-workership principles has three roles; 1) as manager as, 2) as a leader, and as 3) co-worker. Next the stance of the HSL is discussed in more depth.

4.2.3.1 The Stance of the HSL and its PI-model

The stance, i.e., the attitude that the HSL framework adopts reflects the identified motivating factors, in particular those that express the manner how employees prefer to be encountered (by the organization and its management). Drawing upon the HSL principles implies a stance that places power sharing, integration, equality and co-managing at centre.

In particular integration expresses a stance that characterises the HSL framework. These principles are to be seen as dimensions of the construct that underpins the HSL framework. Power sharing and equality were previously discussed, as was co-managing in particular to its mode. However, co-managing which is articulated as the 4th aspect of the PI model, does draws upon the stance that humanistic management suggests.

Integration is one of the main characteristics regarding the stance. It refers to the different variables as explored in this study as follows: With co-active power sharing in practice, ideas are allowed to emerge out of practices: Those involved in the practices are allowed to contribute with ideas anchored in practices and ideas are born alive. The ownership of practices is enhanced, which fosters motivation, and the ideas get stronger, more vital and healthier. Integration can be elaborated upon in more detail by relating it to each variable of the units of observation (table 1: process, social and psychological issues, and content):

a) Process integration; is about putting promises into action, taking what is to be done into the doings/practices in a co-active mode by letting the practices order the decisions.

b) Social and psychological integration; intermixing of segregated employee groups and co-coordinating processes in a mode that results in a well-balanced 'field of being', an dynamic equilibrium (a state where opposing forces are balanced), and

c) Content integration; deriving promises out of the doings/practices by the doers: employees defining promises based on practices in service encounters: what is it we do here? What can we promise based on what we do here?

Integration is introduced as a concept suggested to describe the nature of the process that aims at 'enacting' different marketing ideas, and thereby it first and foremost suggests the attitude, which to its stance reflects the factors employees found motivating, to be applied to practice. Such a stance is congruent with the suggested co-working mode. In underpins the meaning of co-active enabling. Hence, it reinforces a co-managing mode.

Integration draws upon contextualization (as described by Skålen, 2004) but departs from the humanistic co-workership stance, which implies that translation, such as suggested in contextualization is extended (by the core ideas of humanistic co-workership). This implies that the marketing ideas are not only contextualized, but created together by those who have the practice knowledge (power). Thereby, integration implies that those who are to live up to promises, especially in face-to-face contact points, valuate and also create promises.

Integration is here suggested as an IM concept that refers to integrating as to the variables described above where service employees have a central, active role/function.[20] Integration with a firm internal focus in a service and value creation/formation context, as suggested in the HSL, is concerned with integrating service employees' understandings and practices and the creation of applicable marketing ideas, with value practices as the locus. It suggests:

a) Including service employees as active subjects with agency to participate in all aspects of value practices work. Integration departs from practices and relations in customer interaction as experienced by service employees' in their everyday work-life. It includes, as a concept, the activities service employees undertake in order to live up to value promises. Integration, as a process, departs from marketing ideas adopting features service employees contribute. This ensures an anchoring of value promises in practices, and thus enhances the interactive enabling (of living up to value promises). Thereby integration becomes a firm internal 'consciousness process', which the PI's 5th aspect, systemic consciousness of value promises, reflects.

b) Encompassing the idea of integrity (to own the work) to apply also for service employees, and thus co-active, expanded power sharing. This is argued to foster service contextual motivation in a holistic and systemic manner. Thereby, integration suggests including service employees as participating on all aspects of the TPF.

The above discussed defines **integration** of value promises as adopted in the HSL framework and its PI model. This view on integration follows the initial ideas of integration suggested by humanistic management (by Follet, 1924), which sees integration of diversified experiences, with advanced understanding as the purpose, as a vehicle for progression. In this case, the purpose of integration is to advance systemic consciousness of value promises and making 'liveable promises' that are congruent with what is promised. This is argued to foster employees' service contectual motivation.

It then becomes a question of advancing firm internal consciousness and thus understanding on aspects of co-creating, enabling and living up to promises (of value propositions), involving service employees in the constellation as active participants.

[20] This is not to be confused with integrating as discussed in the practice based view on value co-creation (Korkman et al., 2012) according to which the customer integrates resources.

4.2.4 The Employee Discourse and HSL Principles

This section summarizes the employee discourse on motivation by portraying the HSL principles as a constellation, and by discussing the central motivating factors in relation to these principles, as depicted in table 9.

Portraying the HSL-principles as a constellation illustrates the interrelatedness of the principles, and how these if active in a system reinforce each other. The six HSL principles are portrayed in the figure and related to each other as elements in a constellation as a non-linear cause-effect-cause etc system, departing from a root-cause, (following the logic of constellation analyses depicted in Chapter 3).



Figure 10 HSL principles portrayed as a constellation

The HSL -principle constellation discussion departs from co-active 1) power sharing as the root causes, which is related to 2) integrating experiences as the effect, which is related to 3) a relational and interactional stance and mode as the causes, which is related to 4) the practical ontology as the root-effect, which is related to 5) the creative working mode as the cause which is related to 6) the inclusion of employees as active subjects in value practices. These principles can be related to each other as portrayed in the figure, and altogether these form 36 relations that can be examined separately

When examining the HSL principles portrayed as in this constellation, the logic is that the more of power sharing there is the more probably it is that ideas and experience will be integrated, which implies that value promises may reach common consciousness among actors inside the firm. Further the more relational and interactional the mode and stance the more practical the prevailing ontology may be, which can lead to a

higher creative working mode, which eventually will/might lead to the inclusion of employees as active subjects in value practices. This constellation can be analysed in regard of any dyad or triad or more, as many as one can comprehend. However, this is to be seen as a circular image in which the events or issues emerge in different places simultaneously and lead to results, also in various places, as emphasized by Horn and Brick (2009:15). This is indicated by the two-headed and crossover arrows.

The central motivating factors that the empirical material suggests in combination with the HSL-principles are depicted in table 9.

Table 9 Motivating factors and the HSL principles

Cause-effect number	Motivating Factors	PI-Principles
1	Agency to participate and coactive enabling	Co-active power sharing
2	A unified we	Unity and integrating experienced
3	Feeling valued	Employees active subjects
4	Having a forum to exchange ideas	Relational and interactional stance. Togetherness and prudence
5	Authentic Promises	Practical ontology
6	Positive tone of communication	Creative working mode and co-operation

Agency to participate and coactive enabling draws upon the employees wish to be able to participate in managing and orchestrating value practices in a manner that enables the firm to live up to what is promises. A unified we describes the employees wish and need for congruency and a common agenda and cause as underpinning practices and the activities in these. This draws upon unity, which is a central aspect to integration. Follett was concerned with the integration of organizational activities in a manner that draws upon co-active power sharing. To her "the most familiar example of integration as the social process is when two or three people meet to decide on some course of action, and separated with a purpose, a will, which was not possessed by anyone when he came to the meeting but is the result of the interviewing of all " (Follett, 1919: 576). Central to integration is understanding (Follet, 1924). To Follett unity was achieved by integration, as humanistic management " unites workers and managers, self and society, subject and object, and does not choose between entities; she focuses on the relations that connects them" (Godwin and Gittel (2012: xvi). Feeling valued is a basic human need (Assagioli, 1974), which was very clearly expressed by the employees. Having a forum to exchange ideas was something that employees in particular requested and this clearly relates to the relational approach and togetherness expressed in the HSL-principles. Authentic promises are a possible outcome if a practical ontology is applied in practice and a positive tone of communication feeds a creative working mode and co-operation.

What is most articulate in the HSL principles is the meaning of individual experience and the integration of these into practices and the influence of this on motivation, and the consciousness of this. How, and that the empirically identified motivating factors and these HSL principles are consistent as discussed so far, summarizes the discussion to this point, and frames the employee discourse on motivation as described in this study.

While exploring employees' experiences by indentifying issues they experienced as critical and discussing these, using dialogue as the main "method" consciousness about the motivating factors appeared. Even if the motivating factors have been identified and discussed in plural form, from the *employees'* perspective, the individual employee has, throughout the process, been equally "present", and in the focus of interest. This is in line with humanistic management, as expressed by Follett (1924: iii): "We need a technique of human relations based upon the integrity of the individual".

As noted previously the distinction in individual and group "issues" was at times blurred, due to the type of the main part of the empirical sessions (group dialogue, even if individual interviews with employees were conducted, too, in particular in case II). However, as tables 5 and 6 reveal, individual factors have been categorized as well. Perhaps even more focus could have been placed on individual experiences throughout, by focusing more on individual discussions, but this would have expanded this research beyond its already wide scope. [21]

Given the importance the HSL principles ascribe to the individual experience and integration of it, and considering that to integrate individual experience requires understanding of the individual in regards to the individual him or herself, (and of other individuals acting in the same context), literature on individual motivation was used as another informant and explored as the analyses proceeded.

In line with GT principles one important part of the process is to abstract the concepts that have been developed "by an extensive re-evaluation of compatible literature in order to demonstrate a fit" (Goulding, 1999: 17). Therefore, to provide a more comprehensive picture of what motivation is, it is discussed in the following sections, in the light of the 3rd and 4th forces of psychology, which were found to reflect the identified motivating factors, and do correspond with the ontology this research adopts. In so doing the following sections in this chapter answer the 4th and 5th research questions. The 4th research question is answered by depicting the psychological tenets of individual motivation, and by including pro-social motivation as an underpinning of the HSL. The 5th question is answered by presenting service - and social competence as the HSL core concept, a concept that describes the employees' discourse on what fosters motivation.

4.3 What is Motivation?

Motivation is a blurred concept, which during the past 100 years has developed into its current, still somewhat fuzzy, state. Motivation is commonly used as a umbrella concept for depicting psychological forces that drive humans to action.

[21] I had the opportunity to have small "between the sessions" talks with many of the participants especially in case I, when I spent time onboard the ship. These "corridor-talks" provided me with alot of useful information, in praticular on individual experiences.

Currently the field of motivation science is vast and includes the entire spectrum of psychological fields that all have their specific, at times contradicting, and sometimes overlapping views on motivation, e.g. in particular personality and social psychologist have over the years invented and reinvented recognizable clusters of motives that underpin human action (Fiske, 2008). It seems, however that some kind of conceptual agreement is emerging and an integrated view on motivation is developing. Previously opposing views have reached partial consensus of what underpins human motivation. It also seems that humanistic views on motivation, in combination with views adopted within positive psychology, are becoming more common.

Motivation science defines motives as 'a predisposition to behave in a directed fashion' (Fiske, 2008:4). Motives are essential as they 'act as the motor for action and energizes purposive behaviour that serves a function for the individual' (ibid). Further in most views on motivation a common assumption is that 'motives operate via specific goals in specific situations' (ibid). Different schools of thought suggest different motives, such e.g. hedonism initiated by Freud, (1900/1953) instincts and purposive activity (McDougle, 1950), needs as influenced by Gestalt approaches (the main contributor being Maslow, 1943, 1967), and self-enhancement (Murry, 1938) which currently has developed into a rather widely spread view where self-enhancement is seen as a prime motivator (Fiske, 2008). Maslow was among the establishers of humanistic psychology, the third force of psychology, as an intellectual movement within academic psychology (Taylor, 1999). He saw a need for 'positive psychology', which is of specific interest in regards to motivation as humanistic psychology does emphasizes the positive potential of all humans as the basic functionality of the motivational system (Warmoth, Resnick and Serlin, 2002).

To make clear distinctions between the different fields of psychology that covers motivational issues is a tedious task, as hybrids from unlikely border-crossing marriages are emerging out of basically 'opposing' views, such as meaning-centred counselling, which draws upon existential psychotherapy (initiated by Frankl within the field of humanistic psychology) and cognitive/behaviour psychology.

The view on motivation presented in this dissertation draws upon humanistic fields that a) the author is trained in, and thus familiar with, and b) are congruent with the stance of the HSL framework and its PI model, and the ontology of the research.

Current discussions on motivation distinguish between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (see e.g. Baylis, 2004:210; Park and Word, 2012). The motivating and demotivating factors that have been identified and categorized in the this study (depicted in the tables 5 and 6 in section 3.2) are both of extrinsic and intrinsic kind to their nature, and seem to influence substantially on both group and individual motivation.

The fields of contemporary applied psychologies employed as theoretical informants in the abductive process are: humanistic psychology, positive psychology, neuro-linguistic programming (which is a distinct applied stream that draws upon humanistic psychology, linguistics, Gestalt therapy, cognitive psychology and other field its founders found applicable to practices), motivation sciences, including social psychology, and positive organizational behaviour are presented in this section. These distinct, but overlapping streams, describe human functioning from a shared ontological viewpoint, which underpinnings are congruent with a humanistic stance. These applied fields are in regard to their ontological presumptions briefly introduced here.

Contemporary, other than mainstream or traditional psychology, (which implies a methodological and/or ontological deviation from mainstream) is commonly referred to as the third (Bugental, 1964; Assagioli 1974, Ferrucci 2002, Maslow 1961, Olofson 1980) and fourth (Assagioli 1974, Ferrucci 2002, Wilber 1997) force of psychology. Humanistic and existential psychology represent the third force but some aspects of it, such as transpersonal psychology, e.g. psycho-syntheses or logotherapy, leans towards the so-called fourth force.

Initially humanistic psychology developed in reaction to the perceived hegemony of behaviourism and Freudian psychoanalyses and focus on pathology (Aanstoos, Christopher, Serlin, Ilene, Greening, Thomas, 2000), as well as differing views on methodological aspects. Humanistic psychology, drawing upon humanism, which in itself is a complex system of reasoning about human life, has been influenced by various historical and ideological forces. It places the experience of the individual at centre, and thus departs its inquiry from the individual's experience as the locus (as opposed to clinical experiments common in traditional psychology). Thus, humanism is counter-posed to naturalism and it is the 'idiom of everyday life' and the framework we usually call '*common sense*' that humanism presupposes (Olofson, 1980).

Positive psychology deviates from mainstream psychology in its ontological stance, and departs from studying optimal human functioning. In line with the Foucaultian postmodern critical analyses positive psychology criticize mainstream psychology's *regimes on truth* for focusing too much on pathology faults and dysfunction (Seligman, 2001; Jorgensen and Nafhas, 2004:17). It has, however, taken influence of traditional psychology on methodological aspects (ibid).

Positive organizational behaviour (POB) draws upon positive psychology applied to a work and organizational context and thereby departs from the pre assumptions of positive psychology. It sees organizational behaviour in the light of fulfilment and flourishing, flow and collective self-actualization (in the best of cases), e.g., social entrepreneurship describes an 'ideal' in practices in line with positive organizational behaviour principles, where humanistic values and a strive towards societal changes function as the drivers for the conduct of business. Social entrepreneurship, as an example of POB, is a phenomenon widely recognized for its ability to create social value and societal change (Svedberg and Lundström, 2004).

Relevant in the view of this study is the coherent ontological viewpoint and the congruency between the study's research stance and these chosen theoretical fields that contribute in the abduction process. It is argue that these offer a wide enough view and comprehensive outlook on the human psyche, and thus contribute with relevant theoretical aspects to be applied in the construction of the suggestive definition of service contextual motivation (in relation to affective work in value practices).

The following section introduces a suggestive eclectic 'self-model'; the tenets of individual motivation. It reflects the empirically grounded motivating factors and underpins the HSL framework in providing a theoretically grounded answer to the question "what is motivation".

4.3.1 Individual Motivation Embedded in the Self and the Psyche

The 4th research question is answered by presenting a basic 'self-model' that reveals intrinsic psychological aspects of the individual that forms the underpinnings of

motivation. The 'self-model' presented here draws upon some specific aspects of the four streams of psychology (introduced above) that in particular relate to motivation, i.e., 1) the construction of the psych in a conscious and unconscious aspect of the self and 2) the field of consciousness as an central aspect of growth into ones potential, and motivation as embedded as drivers in these fields of consciousness.[22]

Motivation is here discussed as drivers that underpin behavioural engagement. What this 'self-model' constructed here reveals in particular is how an individual's motivation is related to consciousness and thus self-awareness. Therefore, motivation in the ultimate seems to be primarily an intrinsic process, which can be hard to manipulate by others and by extrinsic mundane 'motivators' such as monetary rewards, or non-personal imposed organizational goals. As a consequence of this view on motivation the common implication in service research, in particular in IM, that it is a managerial task to motivate in particular front-line employees is questioned. Consequently it is argued that motivating others is extremely difficult and an unreasonable request (to place upon management).

According to several researchers within humanistic psychology authentic motivation occurs when a person becomes conscious of issues from the past and his/her inherent potential (see e.g. Assagioli 1974, Ferrucci, 2002, Frankl, 2006). As the individual field of consciousness extends the person's congruency grows, and authentic motivation, or behavioural engagement grows. To become authentically motivated the individual needs to become conscious of his/her different aspects of the psyche (ibid). Many contemporary researchers within the field of motivation science also share this view.

Needs are considered essential in many psychological views on motivation and the humanistic view adopts needs as defined by Maslow, (who himself was among the founders of humanistic psychology). Meanings and values are aspects of motivation that have been included in different views of humanistic psychology. A major influence to these aspects are the views of Frankl (2006), who emphasized the substantial influence of (*seeking for) meaning*, not only on motivation and thus on behavioural engagement, but on survival in general. Currently his views on meaning seeking are, to a growing extent, being adopted to work-life contexts.[23]

Drawing upon the theoretical informants applied for constructing the self-model the individual is seen as consisting of a psyche and self-dimensions. The psyche consist of various dimensions: what an individual has experienced in the past, what is currently occurring, and the future, which refers to how the individual e.g. tends to make decisions about future actions (Assagili, 1974, Ferrucci, 2002). Moreover, the psyche has various subconscious and consciousness levels. The lower unconscious level consists of "previous but currently unconscious experiences that function as unconscious drivers in the present: the fundamental drivers and primitive urges" (Assagioli, 1965:17). "The higher unconscious is the individuals potential" (Ferruci,

[22] Insofar these resemble the Freudian view of the psyche, but differ on the aspects where the humanistic view sees the human driven towards the good, the Freudian view sees the human pushed by pathology and dysfunction, and unconscious motives.

[23] His views opposes, for example, Darwinism in that it is not the survival of the strongest, but those with the strongest sense of meaning that survive, which he found during his time as a inmate at the Nazi death camps). His views are expressed in practical applications of humanistic psychology he developed based on his findings, i.e. logo-therapy.

2002:38). Basically, "the field of consciousness is the individual's personality" (Assagioli 1965: 18) or character. 'The self' experiences these various levels (Assagioli 1965:19; Ferruci, 2002:39).

According to this view, the expression of the psyche occurs through various levels of the personality and through the individual's psychological functions. The expression of the self departs from the individual's purposes and needs. The individual does, according to this view, develop in terms of character and personality when becoming more and more conscious of the unconscious parts. How this develops depends on the individual's conscious and intentional use of the will, which consist of eight different aspects and is taken to use through a conscious process (Assagioli, 1965, 1947, Ferrucci, 2002, Rowan, 2001). This field of consciousness is as relevant in a work context as in any life context, as it gives an indication for what extrinsic and intrinsic aspects motivate an individual.

Thus, humanistic psychology sees the individual as tending naturally towards harmony within him/herself and with the world. This aspect is also emphasized within positive psychology. PP speaks of 'possible selves', distinguished into different aspects. These *possible selves,* those that are hoped for might include the successful self, the creative self, the rich self, the thin self, or the loved and admired self. PP also recognizes the existence of dreaded possible selves, which could be the alone self, the depressed self, the incompetent self, the alcoholic self, the unemployed self, or the bag lady self etc. (Frederickson and Losada, 2005), but assumes that the individual strives towards the good selves.

In addition, in a work context employees possess these images, consciously or unconsciously, about different work-selves, and these influence on the individuals motivation. In service settings, people may be consciously or unconsciously driven towards servicing others, as the empirical material suggests. If this is the case, a need to serve may function as a motive for action in living up to value promises in practice.

Hence, drawing upon humanistic psychologies motivations is seen in relation to the individual and his/her experiences and consciousness of these. Experiences are experienced through conscious parts of the psyche, driven also by the unconscious parts, seeking harmony, and striving to fulfil ones purpose. This implies that motivation is highly individual as meaning and purpose is determined by personal values and criteria. Thus, service employees are seen as driven by conscious and unconscious meanings or purposes, seeking to fulfil a variety of needs, of which one is self-actualization of the possible selves, in a variety of forms and contexts. A need to serve others and contribute to others well-being may be such a need.

According to humanistic psychology the context in which one seeks to fulfil such needs, and seek meaning can be life in general or work-life specifically. In practice these may, and often do, overlap as some people value work in its traditional meaning more than others, and for others work and life may have emerged into one holistic experience and life style.

To conclude, in work-life one might strive to fulfil different possible selves. How authentic these are depends on one's level of consciousness about the self and about one's potential. All these influence on individual motivation.

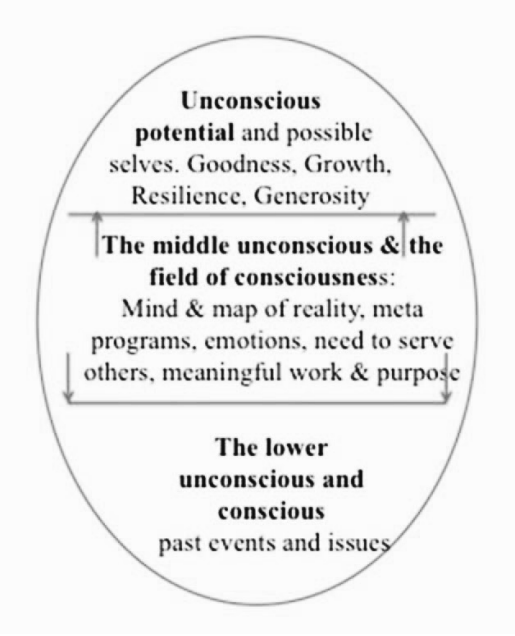


Figure 11 Psychological Tenets of Individual Motivation (adapted from Assagioli, 1965)

Figure 10 depicts how consciousness and different aspects of the self-psyche impacts motivation, i.e. in the ultimate motivation is extremely individual and stands in relation to how conscious a person is of different aspects of his/her individual psyche.

Further, the personal experience of purpose and meaningfulness, as well as the other aspects depicted in the figure, stand in relation the one's potential and influences motivation directly, consciously or unconsciously. This depiction is adapted from the works of Assagioli (1965:19). The aspects of motivation discussed previously in this section are incorporated into the depiction. These aspects, e.g. emotions, map of reality, the need to serve others and how meaningful one finds the work emphasises that intrinsic factors influence on an individual's work-motivation. The more conscious a person is of the different aspects of the self, the more *competent* the person is to become motivated.

This becoming aware is determined by how a person releases energies by the exploration of the unconsciousness (ibid: 101), for which different techniques are suggested within both PP and humanistic psychology. In this process it is the relation between a person's mind and emotions, and the conscious exercise of this relation that makes a substantially difference. As expressed by Assagioli,

> ...the degree of control exercised by the mind over the emotions is relative; it varies in effectiveness with the individual and various psychological types, but in every case there is a certain amount of influence by the mind and this can be increased through conscious deliberate use and training. (ibid:107)

Thus, drawing upon this reasoning, it is in the ultimate the consciousness of the self that determines individual motivation. In terms of motivation, this implies that the more conscious a person is of the self, and in particular about one's purpose and meaning (Tudor-Sandahl, 2006:76-77) the more authentically motivation can appear. This also implies that the more conscious a person is of his/her self the less manipulatively forced motivation will occur. Autonomous motivation is what currently seems to be the key word as to motivation. This applies to individual as well as 'group motivation', in particular in relation to goals (Napier and Gershenfeld, 1999:168-177)

Our conscious mind has been described as a nutshell in the sea, the unconscious mind the sea (Horn and Brick, 2009). As long as the sea is calm the nutshell is doing fine, but in case of unexpected storms, in heavy seas, the nutshell might get surprising and unforeseeable rides on the waves (ibid). To cope, and maintain motivation in current, increasingly demanding work-life, self-awareness is claimed to be one of the most important competences employees require (Ferrucci 2002, Senge, 2000, Goleman, 2006; Cullberg, 2003). In a co-workership context, Tengblad (2007) calls such self-knowledge a part of co-workership competence, and Simonsson and Heide (2009) calls it an aspect of social competence. Social competence they claim is a competence required of all co-workers in a firm. Indeed, it has even been claimed that to find one's work meaningful is dependent on whether a person has found his/her own 'thing' or potential, through introspection (Tudor-Sandahl, 2006:11-53) and that self-awareness underpins outer action, and thus motivation (Assagioloi, 1974:9-13).

In line with this, current work-life research has found that meaning, and meaningfulness in regard to work, are the most important values for the majority of people today.

From here, the discussion continues by first discussing this suggested need to serve others. Following this, *social and service competence* is suggested as the HSL's core concept. This concept reflects the empirically grounded motivating factors and thus advances describing an employee discourse on motivation. The discussion of service- and social competence answers to the 5th research question.

4.3.2 Pro-social Motivation: A Need to Serve and Contribute

According to findings in non-profit and public service research on employee motivation, i.e., public service motivation (PSM), findings indicate that service employees are motivated by a sense of duty to their communities and a desire to help others (Park and Word, 2009). This is in line with the motivating factors that were identified in this study; oftentimes during the empirical sessions employees expressed a need to serve their customers well. Park and Word (2009) do suggest that public service motivation, which is regarded a specific sub-type of work motivation (in the public sector) may transcend the public sector (ibid).

Because such a need was identified as a motivating factor, research on public service motivation was applied as a relevant informant in the abductive analyses. This empirically identified need seems to relate to many of the factors, both in table 5 (demotivating) and table 6 (motivating). Eventually it was categorised as factor 2.c.3. It draws on my accumulated understanding of service employees' experiences in regard to of what kind of issues in practice underpin motivation in emotion work (value practices, including service encounters). It seemed that employees were genuinely concerned about providing their customer with what the customers expected and

wished, which indeed sometimes, in the view of employees did deviate from what management had decided upon (for efficiency or cost-saving purposes, as employees assumed).

Thus, the existence of such a need cannot be located to any one specific factor and was not observed with any specific group of employees at a specific stage of the research process, but seemed to be a general 'urge' among the majority of employees that participated in this study. Even if this need to serve and contribute is noted as a separate factor (2.c.3, table 6), it was observed and sensed as underpinning many of the other factors throughout the study. It is also supported by the applied theories as discussed in this section. A strong urge to be able to do affective service work well, and caring for customers was identified at an early stage of the research, and continuously throughout the research, in both cases.

This need-based aspect of motivation corresponds with humanistic need theories underpinning motivation. This identified need to serve others could be seen as one aspect of e.g. the need for self-fulfilment (a higher level need). However, self-fulfilment needs relate primarily to satisfying personal needs, whereas this urge or need to serve others seems to be transpersonal to its character. Thereby, it is suggested that this need has distinct features that transcends personal need fulfilment, and thereby possibly distinguishes it somewhat from the commonly referred to and established self-fulfilment need (see e.g. Maslow's hierarchy of needs).

Thus, self-fulfilment, which relates primarily to one self, is thought to exist in relation to aspects of individual motives, such as values and goals (e.g. developing ones competences for self-fulfilling purposes such as competing or career reasons), and the seeking of individual utility. However, the need to serve, as discussed here is not of similar kind, but referred to how employees related to issues (customers and caring for customers) "outside themselves", whom they were prepared to go the extra mile for, if they could and it was needed. This was identified in particular among service employees (not managers). Such a need might be potentially a characteristic for human beings as a meta-need (see Assagioli, 1974:13), but is here, given the nature of the study, perceived as contextual. Hence, what it refers to is a strong urge among service employees to serve their customers, and in case they could not live up to standards (also their own, which often seem rather high) of good service they seemed to suffer of psychological conflicts, which was experienced as de-motivating.

Service research does not note such a need. Within public service research however, employee motivation has received wider and more profound attention. Early research on PSM conclude that public sector servants place greater value on service than do private sector service employees, and report high levels of achievement, job commitment and job satisfaction (Perry, 2000). Its current definition by Perry and Wise dates to 1990 and claims that PSM is 'an individual predispositions to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations'. It can be understood as a need based theory, which sees that: 'public service motivation develops from exposure to a variety of experiences, some associated with childhood, some associated with religions and some associated with professional life' (Perry, Brudney, Coursey and Littlepage, 2008). However, as mentioned by Park and Word (2009) this type of motivation may transcend the public sector. Thus in regard to this the current study borrows from PSM in striving to describe this need to serve and contribute.

Relating to this public service motivation claims that service employees have a preference for common good, service for citizens and high professionalism (Park and Word, 2009), i.e., employees are driven by doing good for others. Public service motivation is in its field commonly distinguished into different dimensions characterised by different motives: 1) political dimension, with rational motives, 2) a common good dimension with normative motives, 3) social compassion and altruism and unselfishness, which attributes to affective motives and focuses on the willingness to work selflessly and independent from external standards and expectations from others (Perry, 1996). The third dimension is in line with the underpinnings of humanism and transpersonal psychology, and what was identified among service employees in the current study. The motives underpinning compassion and altruism are described as follows: i) compassion: doing good for others, welfare, empathy, co-dependence, and ii) altruism: serving others more important than personal achievements, giving to others, helping others, financial rewards less important than higher motives, believing in a bigger cause, serving others more important than financial rewards, putting duty before oneself (Mihalcioiu, 2011; see also Armstrong, 2010). Faith, i.e. spirituality and religion, is another motive that currently is recognized as having an influence on work motivation, also outside the public sector (Gingrich, 2006).

These motives may perhaps seem a bit sacral and strange to apply in profit-seeking organizations, in particular seen from a (profit-seeking) managerial perspective. However, these motives describe what was identified among service employees, in practice, in particular towards customers, which does not imply that all behaved in this way, but the underpinning attitude seemed to have this inherent quality.

Public service motivation also notes gender difference in motivation. Their discourse contains both feminine and masculine imagery (deHart-Daus, Marlow and Pandey, 2006). Public service research has found compassion to be a feminine dimension of motivation, which attributes to a tendency for collaboration (over competition), and for win-win scenarios (deHart-Daus, Marlow and Pandey, 2006). [24]

This urge, or need to serve and contribute, that was observed among the service employees in this study does to its characteristics resemble dimensions two and three as defined by Perry. The extent to which such a need possibly exits is (due to the nature of this study clearly) not discussed here, and it is by no means argued to be a general need that all people commonly experience. It is rather suggested that people who are attracted by service work might experience such a need, regardless if working for non-profit or profit seeking organizations.

Borrowing from public service research helps to illuminate the kind of dimensionality of needs that employee in the case firms seemed to experience as underpinning motivation. However, this need to serve and contributing that was identified as a motivating factor. It is here suggested as an aspect of the self-model, which underpins the HSL framework, and is merely suggestive. Clearly, it requires further in-depth research as a separate topic. The need to serve and contribute may be categorized as a transpersonal need, such as doing good for others, as suggested in public service motivation and it may also relate to meaning seeking. Such needs seem to be factors

[24] Gender as seen in PSM is the expression for culturally constructed experiences for the behavior and roles of women and men and is thus socially constructed).

that, among others, have an influence on service employees' motivation in profit-organizations, as in the firms in this research.

The following section answers the fifth research: question what fosters service contextual motivation? The question is answered by suggesting the HSL concept *social and service competence* that depicts such attitudes, skills and knowledge that underpin human interaction and social structures reflects issue that the employees experienced that foster motivation and are supported by the theoretical informants.

4.4 What Fosters Service Contextual Motivation?

This section answers the 5th research question, "what fosters service contextual motivation". It does so by suggesting a concept, social and service competence, that covers factors that the employees found motivating and are supported by the applied theoretical frameworks. This concept also depicts aspects of self-awareness that are required for a) *becoming* motivated, and b) the *interaction* aspects that contribute to individual as well as collective motivation, by e.g., collectively creating a climate inside the firm that fosters motivation.

This HSL concept summarizes social and psychological attitudes, knowledge and skills, i.e., competences that foster service-contextual motivation, and thus refers to a stance that fosters motivation. the PI aspects are concerned in particular with the mode of management, i.e., *co-active managing of value practices* as well as *systemic consciousness of promises* which co-active managing seems to require.

It sees motivation as both intrinsic and autonomy seeking, and draws upon the humanistic view on motivation, as discussed in sections 4.3. Simultaneously it notes that group and individual motivation are intertwined, and that group and individual motivation influences each other. Therefore the level of *social competence* on individual as well as group level, influences an individual's motivation. In the ultimate it is intrinsic motivate that determines the individual's level of motivation. How motivated a person is in different circumstances is dependent on the person's intra- and interpersonal competence, i.e., social competence.

Further, the concept notes contextual factors and considers requirements and expectations that service work itself places on employees. Therefore the concept includes the *service* attributes a co-worker has to live up to. How one can live up to these depends not only on enabling, as an aspect of co-active managing, but also on the level of social competence in the firm, among all co-workers, employees as well as managers. Thus, how socially competent e.g. group members are, determine the collective level on social competence, and impacts individual and group motivation, either in positive or negative directions. Thereby, how co-workers enable each other to live up to expectations of service work is dependent on the collective level of social competence, which in turn influence an individual's motivation.

What fosters service contextual motivation (to live up to value promises) as suggested in the service and social competence concept is seen as a two-dimensional construct where individual social competences underpin collective social competences. Jointly these do contribute to creating a firm internal atmosphere that fosters both individual motivation as well as 'collective motivation'. Ultimately, these influence the energies that circulate inside a firm. Thereby social competence, as discussed here, notes the tenets of individual motivation insofar it concerns internal process, and also refers to

interactive aspects of motivation, and thus concerns the collective aspect of motivation. This suggests that motivation is simultaneously intrinsic and socially constructed, and depends on the level of consciousness about factors in regard to content, process and context that exist in the organizational sphere, but also individual consciousness of oneself. The level of collective social competence in a firm is suggested to depend on a) how supportive to foster both individual and collective motivation a firm is, and b) the level of social competence co-workers have, regardless of position.

The view on motivation the suggested framework adopts, deviates from the mainstream view (in management literature) that underpins the motivation construct in service literature, i.e., that management can 'motivate employees', and thus can order employee subjectivity towards e.g. customer focus. The individual co-worker exits in an outer and inner sphere simultaneously, and whether the individual is motivated for direct or indirect service work depends on extrinsic factors as well as intrinsic factors, and self-awareness.

Further, drawing upon humanistic psychology the suggested framework sees motivation as a process of consciousness. Managers can only *motivate* employees by considering the mode and stance of managing, by including employees in it, but are unable to order employee subjectivity towards being motivated by e.g. attitude management. Managers can perhaps motivate others by pacing their motivation processes, but in order to do that the managers him/herself must be systemically conscious (aware of systemic principles), and most probably be on a somewhat high level of individual consciousness, i.e., aware of the own intrinsic processes and that others' motivation ultimately depend on complicated intrinsic and social processes. For instance, awareness of that an employee may be motivated by fulfilling a need of serving others, might enable a manager *to fosters this persons motivation*. Likewise the employee can motivate the managers, by being aware of outer and inner factors and processes. Thus, motivation is also embedded in the interaction process.

In the ultimate an individual's motivation is subjective and depends on consciousness of the self, relations to others and how one masters oneself in different situations and e.g. the attitudes, beliefs and values one beholds. How well a person masters motivation depends on the level of self-awareness, as an aspect of social competence in the interactive context.

To conclude, the view on motivation that underpins the service and social competence concept draws upon the empirically identified demotivating and motivating factors and the view on motivation that was discussed in the previous section. Next the theoretical grounding of the concept is discussed in more detail.

4.4.1 Social and Service Competence: The Art of Saying Hello and Smiling

> It is like in customer service, it is about small things, the fact that you say hello and smile and look another person in the eye, it is exactly the same thing as representatives from the headquarters would come on a cruise and discuss with people and walk around in different departments. (Employee case I)

The empirically grounded motivating factors reveal the stance by which employees preferred to be encountered. They also reveal that the manner in which people encounter each other inside the organization impacts motivation substantially. Many factors are social and psychological to their nature (variable C in the units of

observation). The properties of the core factors, both de-motivating and motivating factors, reveal in a more detailed manner what it is about in practice, i.e., how people like to be treated and what specifically in regard to communication is experienced as motivating.

The service aspect of the concept relates to the previously discussed need to serve and contribute, which was categorized as a motivating factor. The first aspect of the service competence draws upon this need, the recognition of existence and its influence on motivation. Further, motivating factors 1.c.2 and 1.c.3, which relater to attitudes and skills in 'smooth encountering' were experienced to have a positive impact on motivation, underpin this concept. To 'mind the manners' was something considered important. Altogether, behaviour that generates positive energies and good atmospheres were experienced as positive, and implied as instrumental to motivation. In practice, it seemed to be about seemingly small things and habits in everyday interaction as the citation at the beginning of this section reveals. To be competent in regards of such factors is therefore incorporated as an aspect of the service competence concept.

Thus, skills in courtesy and manners is suggested as the label for this aspect of service competence. It seems that such skills foster, directly and indirectly, service contextual motivation. Relating to this an initial conceptual foundation in abstracting the service competence concept is found within service research: First, the concept incorporates the idea of a service attitude, as discussed by Grönroos, (2000). A service attitude (among employees) has been argued to be a prerequisite for good customer service. It seems a service attitude is compatible, also in the firm internal setting, with what employees found motivating. However, it needs to be extended to incorporate also managers (not only employees) and expressed reciprocally.

Further, some of the servqual attributes may well be adopted to the firm internal context, and the setting discussed here (mangers-employees; i.e., co-workers) and adapted to the concept. Of these in particular: 1) Reliability, i.e., the ability to perform the promises and service dependently and accurately, and 2) assurance, i.e., knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to convey trust and confidence, and 3) empathy, i.e., caring and individualized attention (see e.g., Zeithaml, Bitner and Gremler, 2006: 152-156), seem to demonstrate a fit to the motivating factors mentioned above. It is here emphasised that these are adopted to co-worker relations (managers and employees). The servqual attributes relate also to internal service as employees described it. Internal service was experienced as an important foundation for a functioning service chain (factor 1.b.3), a motivating factor that underpins value practices and motivation, when functioning. The importance of internal service has also been noted within previous service research, in discussion on interactive internal marketing (Grönroos, 2000). Here it is articulated in relation the employee motivation primarily, and to the co-worker - co-worker interface, including all internal relations, regardless of postion.

The construct of social competence concept draws upon previous definitions of social competence in fields that contribute as theoretical informants in the current study. Competence as a concept has been important in discussion of motivation (Waters, 1983), and being specific of its meaning in different contexts is required. In this study, competence refers to attitudes, knowledge and skills that are required collectively of the actors inside the firm, i.e., of its individuals.

Social competence as referred to in this thesis is thus about attitudes, knowledge and skills required for copying in and managing the social contexts, as a mature adult. The competences that are included under the social competence umbrella refer to a 'cluster of related' concepts, all referring to social and interpersonal copying that currently are emphasized within many areas such as positive psychology (PP), positive organizational behaviour (POB) and other contemporary applied streams of psychology. These can be traced back to many areas under different names, articulating different but related aspects of social coping. The concept social competence was initially coined within sociology (Herliz, 2008).

In co-workership this concept is mentioned (Tengblad, 2007) as a co-worker competence. Social competence is a somewhat diffuse and unclear concept, which often is misused (Herliz, 2008) and presents problems for conceptualizations (Waters, 1983). Therefore, it needs to be defined with preciseness. As defined in this thesis, it is empirically grounded and draws upon the empirical material, mainly variable C (social, psychological and interaction factors). The categories depicting de-motivating factors indicate the lack of such competences that can be called social had negative effects on employees' motivation, i.e., was de-motivating, whereas those factors that fit under the social competence umbrella, as defined here, foster employees motivation to live up to value promises in value practices. The social and service concept as defined in this study cover the following 'areas':

a) **Communication competence**: dialogue, sharing ideas, meaning creation, motivating communication (insight in framing and meta-patterns).

b) **Intrapersonal competence**: ability to introspection, consciousness-raising → building a model for how to cope in work-life, specifically in value practices, in an optimal way.

c) **Service Competences** = knowledge, skills and attitudes required in emotion work in contact-points in internal and external customer interaction.

4.4.2 Defining Social Competence

In sociology social competence has been established as a concept consisting of two aspects, interpersonal competences, i.e., communication attitudes, skills and knowledge, and intra-personal competences, i.e., self-awareness (Hillo and Liewendahl, 2010 and Liewendhal and Hillo, 2011). Social competences as defined in the HSL framework follow this distinction and encompasses a) communication attitudes, skills and knowledge, and b) intrapersonal competences required for development of self-knowledge. These depict coping competence in social settings.

Social competence is the underpinning concept of the HSL framework and relates reciprocally to all the suggested aspects of the PI model. Social competence is commonly used to describe such competences that enhance an individual' self-knowledge and communication skills. It describes competences that are required to function in human interaction and constellations. The self-knowledge aspect relates to self-awareness and the ability to maintain motivation. Social competence as suggested here also encompasses such skills and willingness to reflection upon group-work and systemic thinking e.g., participate in constellations analyses. Thus, social competence also refers to group level collective social competence, which enhances e.g., the becoming conscious of dysfunctional as well as harmonious aspects of the systemic

workings in various firm internal setting (that underpin value practice and customer work).

As a concept, social competence consists of a number of sub-concepts from different sources. Initially, it was coined in relation to treatment of children with Autism – Attention Deficit/Hyperactive Disorder (ADHA), and adults suffering of anxiety and other psychological disorders. The focus of the concept, initially coined in traditional psychology, was to offer insight in solving children's behavioural problems and teach them to cope socially with and in different social contexts. (Hillo and Liewendahl, 2011). Currently the concept describes attitudes, knowledge and skills required for making sense of, and navigating in, 'the landscapes of the mind', i.e., personal mental, emotional and spiritual processes, and social environments. The social aspect refers to 'an action that is intended towards others and others' possible action' (Erikson, 2007: 81) and coping in relationships and encounters with other.

Since the concept was initially coined, it has been explored in different fields, such as pedagogy, sociology, psychology and organizational research. Its definition varies somewhat, but basically the current use of the concept covers social activities, such as communication and different aspects of the self, such as self-knowledge. Social competence also draws upon the concept social intelligence and the definitions of intelligence by Humprey (1976: 34) and intelligence having a social aspect, i.e., that social intelligence is 'developed initially to cope with local problems of inter-personal relationships' and the notion of the works by Gardner (1993) on multiple intelligences, the social being one of these. Currently, the concept is well established and recognized also in work-life context, e.g., in co-workership, which notes the concept social competence, as a co-workership competence, but without discussing it in depth or defining it.

Since the 1990s, social competence as a concept has expanded and covers basically all contexts where people meet and interact socially. Social competence as a concept describes coping in social environments, and within its frames, the concept emotional competence has gained a central position (Herliz, 2008). Emotional competence refers to an individual's ability to recognize and cope with emotion, in particular being aware of emotions, without suppressing them but still not being emotionally reactive, i.e., acting upon emotions. The ability to be able to identify and pace other people's emotions is also central to emotional intelligence. Even if the research on emotions in an organizational context is still emerging and the amount of research is rather scarce (Dasborough, 2004), it has gained a somewhat established position, from a variety of perspectives, and currently the recognition of the influence on emotional issues within organizational life has received some kind of established position. In the 1980s, a new field of research emerged: cognitive neuroscience, which in collaboration with a vast field of different streams of psychology also covers the neurological aspects of emotions, and has e.g., covered how toxic emotions impact on psychological processes (Davidson, 2002: 179-233, Dalai Lama and Goleman), and notes e.g., that much human suffering stems from toxic emotions (The Dalai Lama, 2002: foreword in Dalai Lama and Goleman). Thus, this field has also opened the door for the scientific study of emotions. (Goldman, 2003: 179-186).

This field has also gained an established position within motivation science, by offering a beginning framework for integrated neurobehavioral and neuropsychological models of motivation (Berntson and Cacioppo, 2008, in Shah and Gardner (edit): 188-199). It contributes e.g. by broadening the scope of psychological theories of motivation (ibid.), and some contemporary applied fields of psychology, such as neuro linguistic

programming, have been eager to adopt models from this field. The findings from research conducted in the cognitive neuroscience field have gradually been spreading to other related fields. Such neuroscience frameworks and models currently underpin many views on social competence, as they have become integrated into other research fields. The definition of social competence that the PI model suggests draws upon emotional intelligence and neuroscientifically relevant conceptualizations as underpinnings of motivation. These are not elaborated upon in depth in this thesis, because of limited space.

As discussed here social competence also relates to knowledge sharing between individuals and group work. On an individual level, a basic aspect of social competence is e.g. to be able to join in conversations and express feelings to others over functional boundaries. Research findings have shown that it sometimes might be difficult to use these skills appropriately in awkward situation or when meeting a person for the first time (Kikuchi, 1988). Moreover, participants might be nervous or anxious before collaborating over functional boundaries, and deviating from hierarchal positions. To exercise social skills appropriately, it is necessary for an individual to adapt to the group and its members.

The level and type of individual motivation is dependent on a person's level of self-awareness. Therefore the empirically identified categories of demotivating and motivating factors influence on individuals in different ways, i.e. the level and even type of impact varies between individuals. The level of self-awareness determines how these factors influence motivation differently between individuals. One person might become extremely demotivated if exposed to factors that this study identified as demotivating, e.g. power struggles and negative energies (property 2.c.3), whereas another might not even notice this. It depends on how individuals experience these factors, which in turn depends on internal processes, and the level of social competence, which depends on the level of social competence: The experience depends on how an individual reacts to such issues, and how the person is able to identify the type of reaction and consciously 'regulate' the emotional reaction. Briefly expressed, this occurs by valuating the relevance of the issues in relation to internal standards. This in turn depends on the level of self-awareness, which depends on the level of social competence.

Further, as the systemic constellation analyses reveals (see e.g., figure 9) the factors are interdependent. Factors that are of similar type, e.g. variable C (social and psychological factors) and identified as existing on the same level, e.g. group level, are 'close' and therefore their interdependency is understandable. For instance, that a negative tone of communication (2.c.2) and power struggle and negative energies (2.3.3) seem to be of similar type and feed each other, and that these jointly impact motivation is fairly obvious. If the tone of communication is negative, one can expect that there are negative energies in the social sphere in a group. However, the relation between one core category on the general level and one property on individual level are also interdependent and stand in relation to a co-worker's level of social competence. For example, category 1.b.1 – objectifying mode and stance of management – in relation to individual consciousness (3.c.2) depicts how motivation may vary among individuals in the same context: An objectifying mode of management may influence on a person's motivation very differently depending on the person's level of self-awareness, as this also relates to the awareness of one's personal mission/vision and being mindful about such aspects of/in work life. It may relate to a higher-order need to be able to serve and contribute.

Individual consciousness is e.g., about when one is aware of one's personal goals in work context. It places work in relation to life in general, and in relation to the own work, and is fostered by a meaning seeking approach. All in all it is about the individual answer to the question; 'what does life/this situation want from me', in a particular context. A person with a highly-developed self-awareness may maintain his/her motivation despite an objectifying mode of management, or may more easily e.g. decide to leave the context, whereas a person with a less developed self-awareness may lose motivation, but decide to stay in the firm etc.

To conclude, *social and service competence* is abductively constructed and draws on the empirically identified motivating and demotivating factors and the theoretical informants representing 3rd and 4th force of psychology, and service research. Drawing on these, *service contextual motivation* is defined as *an individual and collective process of consciousness of intrinsic and extrinsic motivating and demotivating factors, and is in the ultimate dependent on how social and service competent the co-workers in the firm are, as individuals and collectively*.

The following citation, expressed by a group of employees, illuminates the practical aspect of it:

> When people are socially competent and know how to interact with each other, and have good manners, it is more motivating to work. (Conclusion made by employees during group session, case I)

4.4.2.1 Communication as an Aspect of Social Competence

As the motivating and demotivatig factors indicate communication to plays a vital role in regard to employee motivation. Communication has a comprehensive role, and is a powerful means of influencing motivation seems to impinge on employees' motivation in negative directions in case of *dysfunctional communication* (category 1.abc). It does, not surprisingly, seems to have a positive influence on motivation when the *tone of communication is positive* (category 2.c.1). The positive tone of communication seems to relate also to *a good atmosphere and adult behaviour* (category 1.c.2), and these are factors that co-workership notes as co-workership competences. The communication aspect of social competence is here discussed mainly in regard to the *tone,* i.e., inter-relational competence, which refers to how people communicate with each other in practice.

The discussion here is informed by psycholinguistics, which is a distinct research field that has identified a correlation between peoples' linguistic meta-patterns and motivational modes. This discussion specifically notes and emphasise that certain elements relating to the tone, i.e., the "how aspect" of communication (2.c.1) underpins motivation. This seems, in particular in practice, to be an important, but perhaps a neglected, aspect of communication, which the identified demotivating factors indicate.

Central to the view on communication in psycholinguistics is that it pays attention to the structure of communication. It is of interest to note that this field suggests a correlation between the meta-patterns, in regards to motivation-communication-behaviour, and thereby reveals certain issues in regards to the tone of communication. This research stream suggests that by becoming conscious of the function and structure of these meta-patterns people can improve their communication skills and also become able to access other's motivational patterns by pacing their language structures on certain aspect (Brown, 2002). Seen in this light it implies that the tone of

communication can be improved. Hence, communication does not simply occur in the interaction between actors, but may be a conscious activity that considers the involved actors meta-patterns, and thus motivational modes.

Communication has long been an established aspect of IM, and Grönroos (2000) suggests that *communication management* is central to IM. Communication management, as Grönroos (2000: 335) sees it concerns the following; "Managers, supervisors, contact people, and support staff need information to be able to perform their tasks as leaders and managers and as service providers to internal and external customers. They need information about job routines, goods and service features, promises given to customers by, for example, advertising campaigns and salespersons, and so on. They also need to communicate with management about their needs and requirements, their views on how to improve performance, and their findings of what customers want".

This describes a need for not only reciprocal information, but also for interactive internal communication between different actors in the firm. This is in line with what employees expressed in regard to the tone of communication. That "employees need to communicate with management" (ibid) seems to imply what the employees requested, i.e., a chance for them to express their needs and their knowledge in reciprocal interaction with management. Drawing upon this notion the tone of communication is further elaborated upon here.

One element missing in the internal interaction, comprising both communication and co-operation, was *a forum* (category 1.b.2) for this, i.e., where this kind of reciprocal communication could occur. What the employees seemed to indicate was that a set time and place for physically getting together and having the kind of dialogues that were included in the action research processes, would be needed. This refers however to the mode of communication.

> "Solely communication or just information does not motivate; that they have decided this and this...There would have to be this kind of auditing sessions, really there should, when you can just "shoot" your own opinions, that is motivating". (Employee case II)

However, as the motivating and demotivating factors indicate, the *tone* of communication seems to be of a substantial importance. The tone of communication, as put forth in this study, has not been addressed as distinct topic within IM, except for some indirect implications of its meaning[25]. Therefore, given its substantial meaning as a motivating factor, the tone of communication is here emphasised as an aspect of social competence. Elaborating further on this, informed by the employees' experiences and the notions of psycholinguistics, and communication, communication is here suggested as an extended concept that notes also the motivational aspect in regards to the meta-patterns.

The tone of communication

The tone of communication can be approached form a variety of angles and theoretical perspectives. Here it is done drawing on the employees' experiences and a specific subfield of psycholinguistics; neuro linguistic programming, which also has been discussed as contemporary applied humanistic psychology. This places the focus in discussing the tone of communication on experiences and linguistic aspects of

[25] Voima, 2001, who studied the impact of negative critical incidents on customer relationships.

communication, which are central to a constructivist approach to epistemology and humanistic view on ontology:

1) The constructivist view; "assumes that language is the human being's mean, which provides us with tools to create reality and recreate endless numbers of personal and social realties" (Peavy, 2000: 44).

2) The humanistic ontology places human experience at centre (Rowan, 2001) and therefore research drawing on it may, and often do, take human experience as its ontological unit in regards to analyses.

3) Linguistics is currently used e.g. in critical marketing to reveal underlying power structures (Saren, 2007). In addition, noting that "peoples' language create their reality" (Flanagan, in Goldman, 2003: 166), it is likely that noting the underlying linguistic meta-patterns people have, may reveal variations in motivation patterns, which is useful in trying to understand motivation.

Further it is suggested that a positive tone of communication may be a means by which people, as suggested in humanistic management, jointly can discover what the situation orders, and thereby a positive tone of communication becomes a significant underpinning of integration.

Thus, the tone of communication and the interrelationship between communication and motivation is next discussed in regards to underlying linguistic patterns and what these reveal about motivation. Based on the discussion it is suggested that social competence, and in particular the tone of communication, notes the relation between linguistic cues and motivation and that differences in respect to these between individuals and groups may have an unintended effects, if not noted consciously.

4.4.2.2 Underlying Patterns of Communication and Motivation

Neuro linguistic programming draws upon the psycholinguistics field of linguistics, which is a stream that has studied the connection between language and behaviour, a field that is a combination of psychology and linguistics. [26] The main research area of psycholinguistics is the study of syntax; the way we understand and learn a language (Percy, 1985; Gardner, 1987: 205-206) and text processing (McKoon and Ratcliff, 1998). Miller incorporated Chomsky's thoughts, who studied transformation (psychological) reality as expressed through language, into psychology in the 1960ies (Gardner, 1987: 214-215). This is one of the main areas of interest for the neuro linguistic programming framework.

Neuro linguistic programming has in practice shown to be not only a) a psycho-phenomenology participative, relational and developmental form of phenomenological interviewing, that offers access to the clients or interviewees "maps of reality" by identifying mental framings and individually constructs his/her perceptions and experiences and world view on (Cameron-Bandler, 1978; Bandler and Grinder 1975; Dilts, 1998; Yeager and Sommer, 2003). b) It is also informative in illuminating how linguistic cues influence on motivational mapping, and thus how communication

[26] A union that was establishment through the founding of a Committee on Linguistics and Psychology (by the SSRC) in the 60ies, which included psychologists such as Carroll, Jenkins, George Miller, and Osgood, and linguists Greenberg, Lounsbury, and Sebeok, and shortly thereafter the term psycholinguistics entered the lexicon of psychologists and linguists alike (Aaronson and Rieber; 1979).

influences on motivation, where structural matching of linguistic cues in communication may enhance a persons activation towards behavioral engagement. Neuro linguistic programming draws upon different streams of psychology and is an eclectic framework, but according to its name its main impetus comes from neurology and linguistics. In the field of linguistic, psycholinguistics is the main source for the framework. The stream has also been criticized by some scholar who claim that it still is lacking credible, non anecdotal theoretical basis (Roderique-Davies, 2009)

Despite the criticism the stream offers additional practical insight into the connection between language patterns, behavior cues and motivational modes through identifying the meta-patterns. These do in practice indeed seem to reveal a connection between peoples' language patterns and motivational modes. In this field the connection between language patterns, cognition and behavior has been explored in depth. The emphasis is on studying the structure of subjective experience and its expression in thinking, language and behavior (Brown, 2002).

Methodologically neuro linguistic programming applies a ranges of methods, but is first and foremost focused the inquiry of individuals' and groups' coping strategies, and thus has developed its own set of techniques for accessing subjective human experiences. Central to this specific stream is the focus on people's modes of expressing themselves, and the underlying hidden assumptions these expressions reveal. Ontologically this stream is in line with humanistic and positive psychology, as the focus is on positive functioning, even if it defines "positive" behaviour somewhat differently: It departs from a person's intention and always sees intention as positive, even if the behaviour the intention elicits would commonly be considered destructive (such as different kinds of abuse and "ismish" behaviours). This does not contradict the humanistic viewpoint, which assumes that in practice good people, in unconscious states, might do vicious things. Thereby striving towards the good is the prevailing assumption in the three.[27]

One central aspect of communication and how people interpret communication and construct communication is how we sort information: through deletion, distortion and generalization (Bodenhamer and Hall, 1997: 282-284). Peoples' sorting styles are organized in so-called meta-patterns, and understanding and identifying these facilitate the understanding of how people construct realities by the use of language. These meta patterns draws upon a "model with 11-12 linguistic distinctions that identify language patterns that obscure meaning in communication via distortion, deletion and generalization " and are patterns for "sorting and paying attention to stimuli, perceptual filters that govern attention" (ibid: 285).

Meta refers to being prior to or above our (conscious) thinking (Brown, 2002), which refers to the way we sort our thinking, i.e. structure of thinking (as opposed to content, i.e. what we think about). These patterns are unconscious to most people, but determine our communication preference, and meta-patterns reveal an individual's process of thinking (Hall and Belnap, 1999). By exploring the language people use and the behavior they display, motivational modes may be revealed (Brown 2002). Thus meta patterns are of interest when exploring interaction and communication. Identifying and matching to people's meta patterns is a way of improving the communication with people and figure out people's motivational patterns. In total 51 meta patterns have been identified, subcategorized into mental -, emotional - , volitional - and response meta- patterns (Bodenhamer and Hall, 1997:51-53).

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[27] In regard to my preunderstaning of this specific stream of applied psychology it may be worthwhile mentioning that I am a licenced trainer in the field.

These meta-patterns build the foundation for various levels of categorization of individuals thinking-communication styles. Most frequently referred categories are: Proactive-reactive, towards-away from, internal –external, options-procedures, sameness-difference- detail-general, people-things (Brown, 2002; Rose-Charvet, 1997). It is vital to note that the meta-patterns are contextual and are to be understood in relation to something. Therefore when these patterns are identified in one context it does not mean that the same patterns will be exhibited in another context. (Therefore the meta-patterns on individual level shall not be mixed with personality traits, which are assumed to be more stable).

In both case firms of the study the meta-patterns of various organizational groups were identified and the results indicate that there indeed was variation not only between individuals but also between organizational groups. These are note discussed in detail here, but the existence of differences is noted and this argues for the suggestions that these meta-patterns may be significant in how employees experience the tone of communication.

To exemplify; In Case I a meta-patterns analyses was conducted in various groups (using a questionnaire) and the results were compared on group level between the marketing -, catering - and shipping people. In comparison the marketing people showed a tendency towards *proactive* and *options* motivational modes, i.e. looking for new alternatives and being constantly alert for new concepts, ideas etc. Hence, proactive and options language patterns were reflected in their communication styles. Contrary to this, employees from the catering function showed a tendency towards a more *procedures* mode, as their motivational mode in regards to taking care of customers in value practices. However in relation to the shipping people, catering employees showed lesser *procedures* mode. This revealed three different communication styles, which in practice may be interpreted as one aspect of communication tone, in particular in case of significant differences. Further, catering employees showed a more *reflective* mode in regards to development issues (concepts etc), in relation to marketing, as they in particular were concerned with how the ideas would fit into practices. Hence in regards to motivational modes and communication styles there seemed to be diversity between these groups. The differences between the three groups are depicted in appendix 10. Thus, such meta-pattern analyses may reveal embedded, hidden language pattern preferences and motivation modes, and that these may vary, between groups, and provide hints about optimal procedure in regards to communication in relation to a specific (on some aspects homogenous) group.

Thereby exploring the meta-patterns of various organizational groupings, in relation to whatever issue is on the agenda, and expanding the understanding of other actors' meta-patterns is one way to enhance the tone of communication. The benefit of exploring meta-patterns is its correlation to motivation: "…these patterns represent the different perceptual filters through which we evaluate the information, through which we are motivated and through which we take action" (Woodsmall and Woodsmall, 1998:3).

Some researchers claim that the use of meta-patterns is powerful when aiming at creating dialogic communication: Eliciting the meta-patterns of the other actors in a situation may provide insight on how these become motivated. Based on this elicitation it is possible to match language patterns to that of the other actors (Brown, 2002). Brown concludes that conscious "use" of meta-patterns may results in better communication, matching of reality and thereby possibly connecting to an

individuals/groups motivation. Thereby the meta-patterns do only reveal differences in motivational modes, but may explain on aspect of dysfunctional communication.

However, in order to be able to utilize the meta patterns it might require efforts in achieving two-way communication, dialogue as an ideal. In order to construct meaningful linguistic expressions "a speaker must understand the other actors in the situation and must know what they already know and what they expect and want to hear" (Stubbs, 1983 in Donello, 1998: 143).

The usefulness of insight stemming form psycholinguistics in an organizational context has primarily been established to be in what is revealed about how people use linguistic cues to form an understanding of others (Donello, 1998). Within consumer behavior, research has utilized psycholinguistic theories in e.g. studies of consumer information processing (Yalch and Dimofte, 2003). They found that brand names have a special neuropsychological status in the consumer's memory. Percy (2003) claims that the use and the understanding of the impact of words in advertising communication, or any communication, is extremely important. Thus one can assume that this would be the case in internal communication as well.

Communication and language are used in interactions for two primary reasons: "to infer the cognitions of others and to influence them" (Donello, 1998:158). The link between the use of language and behavior is relevant in this context. Donello suggests practical implication, which supports the relevance of investigating the role of language and communication in organizations: 1) to help practitioner develop an understanding of how they use the language patterns that display their cognitions, 2) to facilitate the perception of use of similar/divers language patterns by others, 3) to facilitate creating a taxonomy of communication mechanism and strategies that practitioners can use to select optimal courses of communication. In addition analyzing word choices in the use of labels and figures of speech will reveal the mental structures that influence human actions (ibid).

Being aware of such mental structures that underpin communication, and the manner in which people sort information, clearly facilitates connecting to other peoples' maps-of-reality. Based on this discussion consciousness *of meta-patterns* is incorporated as a relevant aspects communication skills, and thus of the social competence concept.

To conclude, the HSL concept*, service and social competence* as defined here, consists of two highly intertwined sub-concepts which influence each other. It draws upon the identified motivating factors and incorporates relevant literature that is compatible with these factors. The concepts articulates the following aspects: Service Competence; is labeled *skills in courtesy and manners*, and draws on the notion of a service attitude between co-workers. Furthermore, it incorporates some of the servqual attributes to firm-internal co-worker relations. Social competence draws upon previous definitions of the concept and makes a distinction in inter- and intrapersonal competences. In regard to intrapersonal competences, it draws upon the self-model that was discussed in section 4.3.1. As to interpersonal competences, the tone of communication is discussed thoroughly, and incorporates *meta-models* and consciousness of these as a distinct aspect of communication skills.

4.4.3 The 5th PI Aspect, Systemic Consciousness of Promises

To advance systemic consciousness of promises is suggested as the 5th PI concept. Its relevance departs from the demotivating factors 2.a.1 and 2.a.1, and the motivating factors 1.a.1, 2.a.1 and 3.a.1. As these factors imply unconsciousness of promises underpins de-motivation, whereas authentic truthful promises, promises that reflect employees competences locally at team level and individually, influences motivation in a positive direction. Therefore systemic consciousness of promises is suggested as one aspect of the PI model. For this purpose a *promise typology* was created during the empirical process of the latter phase of case II.

The promise typology (Appendix 4) was created as a dialogic 'tool'. The empirical material indicated that such a typology in all its simplicity seemed in practice to serve a purpose in raising consciousness (about promises) among the participants. This conclusion draws upon the empirical notion that employees found the abstractness and vagueness of promises frustrating (and thus contributing to their de-motivation). Therefore, 'something' was needed (in the process) to advance awareness about what the firm explicitly promised in it official communication.

As to the type of promises the typology notes it was constructed drawing upon service research in which different types of promises that the discourse suggests, such as brand promises (e.g. Schultz, 2004), service promises (Zeithmal and Bitner, 2008) and experience promises, were identified.

Initially contextualization as discussed in Chapter 3.1.1.2, which draws upon sense making was adopted as the underlying idea. However giving meaning to promises made by others, even if it was considered useful, did not really seem to foster motivation and was not enough. The need for participating and contributing with creating relevant and authentic promises, anchored in practice, seemed as the essential thing for employees.

Therefore, promises employees make in contact-points was also included in the typology as one aspect called "wild promises". Wild promises indicate that these are made by employees and may or may not to a varying degree reflect the 'official' promises of the firm. The typology, and its construct, is not discussed in detail here, as it would expand this work beyond its already wide scope. It is however important to mention its consciousness-raising function. The use of such a typology, in a dialogic manner, seemed to foster motivation by 1) clarifying the meaning of promises and 2) making space for co-creation. Thus, it served both as a contextualisation and co-creation tool, by emphasised both official (marketing) and local (employees') promises.

The demotivating factors indicated that when different functions promised differently, in-congruently and even contradicting the situation in service encounters could become extremely awkward and uncomfortable for employees. In practice it therefore seemed that 'collecting' promises that were circulating in the firm's communication, and reflecting upon the meaning of these served as contextualization. To reflect upon "wild, local promises" made space for co-creation of promises. To reflect on what it takes to live up to these different promises and whether it was possible at all, and what the prerequisites to do so are, advanced consciousness (of what was promised) among the participants in the sessions. All in all, it seemed that by reflecting in this manner, particularly about the "human aspect" of the promises was illuminating. It seemed that the more abstract and vague the promise, such as brand promises, the more "reflection-work" was required.

Systemic consciousness of promises as discussed here, emphasizes, in addition to contextualization (translation), becoming conscious about what actually takes place in value practices and the human dynamics that underpin these value practices. Thus it is more than cognitive sense-making about ideas and strategies others are making and imposing to practices. It is about dialogue departing from practices, considering the capabilities people working in practices have, and including these in co-managing of practices. Thereby value practices are approached from a systemic, not only systems approach. This view underpins the humanistic stance that guides the HSL framework and its PI model: that people create meaning to experiences by becoming conscious. Consciousness is seen as a process of individual and collective understanding and knowing, on material, social (and spiritual) levels. It is suggested that by thorough dialogue and reflection (about promises) of the kind that "invites" promises that originates in practices, from all corners of the organization, consciousness of what really is required (in regard to living up to promises) may appear during reflection. As a "method" for advancing systemic consciousness (of promises) valuation, as suggested by Nilsonne (2004, 2009) was applied.

Valuation, as adapted in this study, is about being mindful about something and individually valuating the relevance of it. In this case being mindful about the promises Thus, valuation is about elaborating upon whether something is considered individually valuable, i.e., 'do I find this (in this case promise) meaningful and relevant?' This approach draws upon neuropsychology (see Nilsonne, 2004:28-54) who suggests that being consciously mindful about something advances individual valuation of the issue. Being consciously mindful occurs on the individual 'intrinsic stage' as a person elaborates about an issue in respect to:

i) Thoughts, i.e., observing one's own thoughts about the promise and what is going on in one's mind in relation to it. In order to be mindful about something it is important to be non-judgmental and just describe the thought. For instance, some employees thought that: "this promise is too abstract", or this promises is not deliverable at all", or "this promise is true, this is how it is.."

ii) Emotions, i.e. observing one's emotions about the issue (in this case the promise) and describing them. Emotions are according to Nilsonne important sources of information (pp. 53) and should therefore be paid close attention to in the process of being mindful.

Such mindfulness enables an individual to sort out one's mind about an issue. In this case the issue being the promise that the person in some way, implicitly or explicitly, was expected to live up to. To become clear about how valuable and relevant one finds the promise, or if one finds it valuable at all, indicates the direction of motivation. Inevitably, this kind of valuation advances consciousness about the promise, and if found relevant this mindfulness fosters the person's motivation to live up to the promise.

This kind of mindfulness work (about promises) was done during the latter phase of the empirical process (case II). The promise typology enabled articulating the promises, which in itself advance consciousness about different promises that were "circulating" in the organization. By valuating these promises the participants first elaborated on what the inherent implications of a specific promise were, and what the prerequisites for living up to it would be. Also a broader approach was applied, i.e., the refection departed from elaborating upon a concept, what it implied in regards of practices, and how the concept in turn articulated the brand promise and more "detailed" promises.

Wild promises (the employees own promises) relating to the concept were also identified. During these sessions employees' thoughts and emotions about different promises were also discussed.

The promises typology, when applied in practice in the above described way, seemed to cover both contextualization and valuation, and thus advanced co-creation of promises and to make them concrete. In the ultimate systemic consciousness (of promises) was advanced by paying attention to the "humane" efforts required for living up to them. Taken in practice, it might foster motivation by bridging the gap between abstract strategies and promises and practice. Adapted as such, the typology may serve as a 'tool or vehicle' that also advances co-active working mode that underpins co-active managing of value practises.

However, if adopted from a traditional managerial mode and stance, i.e., taking what management has decided already and just implementing the ideas it is not sufficient, and will not advance co-active managing as referred to in the HSL framework and its PI model. Co-active managing, as suggested in the PI model, implies explicitly departing from practices in a dialogic manner when formulating promises. In particular it suggests that promises are formulated with input from employees, as they have "ownership" of practices. Thereby promises emerge from practice, as opposed to being poured out from above and implemented. This advances integration of experiences, which is one of the HSL principles. This kind of input from practices advances, according to Napier and Gershenfeld (1999: 305), healthy disequilibrium (dynamic equilibrium) and negentropy in the system, i.e., "when people are rewarded for new ideas and sharing information". This is also in line with the idea if dynamic equilibrium that humanistic management supports. Dynamic equilibrium and circular response are according to Follett essential in integration of experiences and thus in integrating of power, because it supports getting away from the "theory of balance of power" and slipping away from "the bondage of equilibrium" (Follett, 1924: 53).

It is suggested that advancing promise consciousness among organizational members fosters co-active managing of value practices, which is suggested to underpin motivation (to live up to the promises). This in turn does, as employees experienced it, advance the authenticity of what is being promised to customers. Social and service competence is suggested as instrumental to service contextual motivation, as it underpins an atmosphere that employees experienced as positive. This in turn advances co-active managing etc., and eventually a positive constellation may emerge.

To conclude, the HSL and its PI model, as discussed here describes an employee discourse on motivation. As a practical application of co-active managing the promise typology, and the procedures its suggests, is argued to advance the firm's ability to be clear about what is promised and thereby to live up to its promises. This was experienced as motivating by employees.

5 DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter summarizes the HSL framework and its PI model, a suggestive eclectic framework, which describes an employee discourse on motivation in the context of value practices. In addition, the relevance of the study and its implications are discussed. In the final remarks, conclusions are drawn, and further areas of research are suggested.

5.1 The Human Service Logic and its PI Model

Motivation is a popular notion in today's work-life. The service management discourse, and in particular, its subfield IM, emphasizes the need for employees to be motivated for effective service provision and for managers to motivate employees in order to meet customers' expectations of service quality, as instrumental to value formation and co-creation. However, motivation is not a concept set in stone. Currently, its construct, to the extent it is discussed within service management, departs from a managerial discourse and puts employees in object positions. The service management discourse implies that managers are expected and able to motivate employees by ordering employees' subjectivity towards motivation and service provision. The tenets of motivation, as discussed in service management, are by and large, restricted to the traditional "carrots and sticks" metaphor; management governs employees towards motivation by rewarding and punishing. Thus, the discourse takes a paternalistic position towards employees. In its discourse, little attention is given to employees' experiences from a subjective position of extrinsic factors that they report, in combination with intrinsic processes and subjective motives that underpin their motives to act.

The aim of the study was to contribute an initial framework to service management and IM that describes the employee discourse on motivation, in regards to living up to value promises in value practices. The research attempted to do so in three ways: First, using two case firms, complications related to the implementation of marketing ideas and value promises were empirically explored. This was done from two "opposing" positions, while keeping the focus on the employee discourse; the researcher identified complications that management perceived and employees experienced in relation to implementation. To analyse both was relevant while it provided the context in which employees experience work-life, i.e., employees' experiences are embedded in managerial discourses and practices and, therefore, are contextual. Second, analyses of the managerial discourse in current service management, management and IM literature were conducted. The analysis of the managerial discourse, in literature and practice, was done in regards to the mode that is applied to management and the stance towards employees and employee motivation that is adopted. Third, by identifying and locating issues in value practices that employees experienced critical, motivating and demotivating factors were categorized. These factors were also portrayed as elements in constellations, and constellation analyses were conducted. This was done in order to reveal the systemic interdependence of the factors, which provides a higher order systemic understanding of the underpinning tenets of employee motivation in this specific context. Throughout the analyses process relevant theoretical frameworks were applied, by abduction, to construct the suggestive HSL framework and its PI model, which reflects the employee discourse on motivation.

The analyses process has extended the field of consciousness of employees' service contextual motivation by identifying and locating motivating and demotivating factors that circulate in organizational spheres. The novelty of the work done in this thesis is the adoption of a humanistic stance and an employee angle in a world traditionally governed by a managerial ideology. The main contribution lies in suggesting an alternative to the managerial hegemony prevailing in current service management, by offering an initial framework that describes the previously unuttered employee discourse on motivation. Methodologically, the thesis contributes by introducing the systemic constellation analyses as applied in this study, and drawing upon the principles of spatial constellation interventions.

5.1.1 Reframing Service Management to Co-active Managing and -Enabling

The managerial discourse in service management literature and practices seems in general to relate to different established discourses on efficiency, economy and the current value discourse. These reinforce the managerial hegemony towards employees by drawing upon a mindset that places employees in subordinate, object positions in relation to management. Managerial values are woven into much influential research and practices that up until now, with few exceptions, remained unexposed to critical interrogation. This study identified some theoretical and practical managerial assumptions about employees and their motivation that deviate from how employees experienced motivation (according to the motivating and demotivating factors that were identified). Based on these findings one can conclude that employees' preferences as to working mode in value practice and managerial stance applied towards them often seemed to deviate from managerial assumptions about these and managerial practices. This, in combination with the other identified factors, seems to influence motivation to live up to value promises in value practices negatively.

These deviations between managerial assumptions and employees' preference of managing value practices seem to reinforce unbalanced constellations between adult co-workers, i.e., employees and managers, in firms. In practice, these negatively impinge on employee motivation. Based on this, some corrective actions towards balance are suggested by reframing management towards co-active managing and leadership towards co-active enabling. The main deviations between the managerial assumptions and employees' preferences are depicted in the table below.

Table 10 Differences between employee preferences and managerial assumptions about working mode and managerial stance applied towards employees

	Employee preferences in regards to working mode and stance	Managerial assumptions about mode towards management and stance towards employees in literature	Managerial assumptions about mode of management and stance towards employees in practice
Content; Promises and marketing ideas	Prefer authentic promises that draw upon employees' experiences and expertise in the field. Employee contribute with "wild"/own promises, that are deliverable	Value creation, service process value are the ontological units in research. Employees treated as operant/operand resource that customers integrate in value creation	Management plans – employees enact on ideas. Employees not included in development work. Division in "Us vs. them".
Management Process	Prefer co-active working mode, i.e., co-active managing departing from what as practices order.	Mainly a hegemonic, paternalistic stance: Management orders subjectivity towards employees by instilling ideas into them.	a) Objectifying stance towards employees, but also: b) Inclusion of employees as experts.
Context; social and psychological aspects	A unified 'we' that draws upon co-active power sharing and social competence, i.e., co-active enabling. Service and social competence summarizes the humane prerequisites that foster motivation	Not discussed	Not discussed
Intrinsic Motivation	A need to serve and contribute. Depends on self-awareness, and work-related inspiration. Among employees this appeared as a need to serve and contribute.	Not noted	Not noted

Us vs. them, i.e., management vs. employees, embedded in the managerial stance towards employees seem to underpin an often subtle and constant power struggle in regards to how things are "orchestrated" in value practices.

Even if the lines between "us and them", i.e., between employees and management, could be blurred at times, at some point, in most discussions questions and insinuations in this direction were stated. Employees questioned why they were treated in certain, undermining ways regarding their expertise in their own work. Mangers, in

turn, pondered over why employees resist change and do not follow orders/instructions as intended, for example.

An objectifying mode that seemed to underpin this distinction was identified in IM literature as well as among some of the managers in the case firms. This distinction seems to draw upon an assumption of a subject-object relation, i.e., management *acts upon* employees with a variety of activities. A failure to note the meaning of circular response and the significance of *the very process of meeting* (Follett, 1924: 62) seems evident in such reasoning. The process of meeting does according to humanistic management characterize human relations (ibid). Failing to note this may lead to an absence of response. The process of meeting draws upon the idea; "I-plus-you reacting to you-plus-me", which implies that "I" can never influence "you" because you have already influenced me" and "in the very process of meeting we both become something different" (ibid). This implies that a distinction in subject-object is impossible in human interaction. Ignoring the process of meeting may result in a response which was not anticipated by the subjects acting upon the objects, i.e., management acting upon employees. The response, or the absence of it, may deviate from what management expected. In practice management may interpret an absence of response as change resistance. However, this might de facto be a question of misguiding assumptions (in regards to human interaction, meeting and circular responses in meetings) that underpin not only individual management activities, but the entire process of management, i.e. assuming that I can act upon you and thereby influence you. This is essential to note because at heart of integration is the idea of creative experience and circular response.

This distinction into "us vs. them" seemed to be a major factor that impinges on employees' motivation, as it was associated with an objectifying mode. In this respect, its effects relate directly to employees' work-related experiences. An objectifying mode was found intrusive and hindered employees from doing their work well. Imposing "impossible ideas", coming from "thinkers" outside practices (management) was considered thoughtless.

This is not to say that the managers in practice, in the case firms, always (or even often) applied an objectifying mode and stance on a personal level. An objectifying mode seemed, however, to be inherent in the "system", as a legacy of history embedded in the culture, and if/when experienced by employees, it seemed to impinge on the employees' motivation negatively. In practice, the effects and complications of an objectifying mode appeared manifold.

Employees would mobilize their "unofficial" practice power, deviating from managerial plans, in order to serve their customers well. Whether this would be right or wrong was irrelevant in this context, and the potential effect of this would be a widening of the gap between "us vs. them", thus reinforcing the unbalanced social structure, and drawing upon power structures from previously established constellations. Such reinforced unhealthy power structures might exist as vague sensations, without the actors involved being able to exactly put their finger on where such entanglements are located.

A consequence of an objectifying mode of management and stance towards employees is depriving employees the agency to participate in the development of value practice and promises, which employees find demotivating, as it complicates their work, making it difficult to live up to these value promises. Thereby a vicious circle is born. This also deprives employees the agency to be heard on these issues in general, which implies that they are also unable to act and speak without "permission" from the manager.

Indeed, even if current mainstream management literature suggests that employees have to be "empowered" in order to grant them agency, it is determined within the limits set by the management, and thus the manager grants the (amount of) agency, and does so from a superior position. In this sense, the employee is infantilised and prevented from acting as an adult, and deprived of responsibility. This is against humanistic co-workership principles, and in practice, reinforces the mechanisms that underpin demotivation.

In service management literature, the prevailing mode of management is objectifying. Managerial discourses in practices may be reinforced by the ideals of service management literature that management strives to implement in practice. Even if implementation would be complicated, the ideas may influence the managerial discourses in practice, and reinforce the constellations in which a distinction in us vs. them prevails.

Constellations of the kind discussed above have consequences on employee motivation. The consequences can be made visible by systemic constellation analyses, as done in this study. In making such constellations visible, the invisible workings of current management ideology, which in its invisibility makes it so powerful, is revealed. According to Janks (2000), it is precisely the invisibility and when "discourses have been naturalised and become part of our everyday common sense" that people start to use them unconsciously, and they become manifested "truths". For example, if paternalism, such as that expressed through an objectifying mode and stance, is present to a high extent it becomes "natural" as it constitutes some aspect of the managerial constructions of the world. In practice, an objectifying mode implies that management thinks and employees act upon this thinking. This has become the managerial "truth", which depicts how it should be (according to some). In practice, employees find this de-motivating, as it complicates their work in value practices. Nevertheless, if/when such a mode has reached the invisible state of truth-value, it is hard to detect, and thus remains unquestioned among management. In the event that employees make remarks about such issues, from subordinate positions, without an established forum for such discussions and agency to do so, they are easily accused of whining and/or being difficult or resisting change.

One of the key concepts in the TPF is *management*, as it is grounded in the distinct promise management subfield in service research. One of the alternations offered in the HSL framework and its PI model is not only the inclusion of employees, drawing upon the HSL principles, but an explicit emphasis on managing as depicted in the PI model. For employees, it suggests a shift from object to active subject, departing from practices. For practices it suggests integrating the idea of human interaction, the process of meeting and orders coming from practices. For management this implies a release from superiority and from the impossibility inherent in "management of the human resource".

The concept of co-active managing is grounded in the empirical material and further developed through abduction into a theoretically grounded concept. The mode of management is, thereby, shifted from one that assumes employees are being managed as objects, to employees as being part of managing as subjects. Thus, the mode is changed from passive to active, from management to managing, and an inclusive stance is adopted.

5.1.1.1 Reframing Service Leadership to Co-active Enabling

Service leadership is central to service management and IM (Grönroos, 2000: 341), and leadership and management are constructs that are closely related. Service management in regards to managing human resources and, thus, enabling, draws upon service leadership, because "management, supervisors and team leaders have to show leadership, not only administrative managing and controlling" (ibid). The line that distinguishes management and leadership is diffuse. Most literature assumes that managers also need to be leaders who, for example, possess the skills to order employee subjectivity towards motivation, customer mindedness, organizational identity, etc., by instilling these attributes in the employees. In that sense, employees are objects for managers to manage/lead, and managers, in turn, are assumed to have fairly advanced people skills, which requires among other things, high levels of social competence, both inter- and intrapersonally.

Whether this is the case in practice remains un-discussed within the frames of this study, but the empirical material suggests that managers/leaders do not always possess a fine-tuned understanding of human beings. Furthermore, even when that is the case, the common management/leadership mindset in regards to assumptions and practices that organizations adopt, draws by tradition upon doctrines that divide organizational members in superior and subordinate positions. Often an objectifying stance, which in practice may appear as paternalistic, is adopted. In addition, in practice, technically advanced systems often steer priorities in other than human-issue directions. Even if individuals in organizations would be great "leaders" in regards to the above-mentioned competencies, the stance that leadership and management adopts and the assumptions they draw upon often, both in theory and practice, ignore employees as active actors and subjects in practices. That leadership occurs in relationships between individuals, as the HSL framework adopts as its tenet, seems somewhat rare in practice. Viewed as a relationship, leadership becomes something that occurs between two equal human beings, a co-enabling relationship process. This seems to be a relevant consideration, because as the employee discourse described in this study indicates, an objectifying and paternalistic stance is demotivating. If we analyse the employee discourse carefully, ferreting out the underlying experiences and emotions, it appears that people dislike being managed. This may be because management of people, as a resource, may embed inherent obtrusive features. In practice, the objects (employees) of management may perceive being managed as demotivating:

> "When you are battled and bullied around",

and

> "When you are treated as the lowest caste".

Employees are human beings, and should according to humanistic principles not be treated as objects. The employee discourse suggests that it is not people that are to be managed, as a human operand/operant resource, but practices. According to the HSL-principles, co-workers that possess the experience and expertise of practices co-act as active subjects, and the managing of practices draws upon co-active power sharing. This puts management and leadership in a new light, since the leadership aspect of the TPF is emphasized as co-active enabling. It sees employees and managers, i.e., co-workers, as enablers. This approach may be advantageous if motivated employees are considered a prerequisite for promise delivery, and if the employee discourse on motivation is considered.

The empirical material of this study has spoken and it shows that the division of people in fields of "us and them" can be demotivating in work-life, particularly for the "us" who find themselves in subordinate positions and met with a mode and stance that is paternalistic. In modern, democratic societies such as the Nordic countries, where people have adopted humanistic values that oppose the traditional he-man values common in traditional management, this is not difficult to understand. Still it seems that service management, in practice and theory, has adopted a view on people (especially in regards to employees) that objectifies and treats them in paternalistic ways. In practice then, as this study shows, it seems that employees when being overlooked may mobilize their practice and customer power, leaving traditional management with less actual power. Therefore, as the framework developed in this research suggests, enabling should occur as co-active enabling. Co-active enabling considers that employees are motivated by being able to participate, contribute and serve customers well, and that leadership occurs in a co-active stance.

As a concept, the root meaning of enabling refers to giving authority but also making something possible. *Giving* authority is not congruent with the humanistic co-workership principles the HSL framework, and its PI model, draws upon, while it adopts a view of co-active power sharing. The HSL framework assumes that authority cannot be given but it is earned. Giving authority would reinforce the traditional managerial power structure assumptions of managers giving the authority to employees. If enabling is applied as the concept, it needs to consider "giving authority" as occurring reciprocally between employees and managers. In line with this, enabling could refer to reciprocal enabling. However, "making possible" as the underlying tenet is congruent with the HSL principles. Accordingly, the HSL framework suggests enabling to be about co-actively, between co-workers, making living up to value promises in value practices possible.

This view changes the structure of service management and leadership. It adopts not only a co-managing mode but also a co-managing stance, and the leadership issue becomes a question of providing employees with the resources they need to live up to promises that are grounded in practice. Drawing upon HSL principles, leadership is something that occurs between people. This shifts the stance of management and leadership to one that is inclusive and relational. Leadership, in this light, is something that occurs in the relation between co-workers, i.e., employees and managers. Thus, a manager serves a purpose in value practices by asking the employee, "What can we promise and what do you need to make it happen, what can I do for you, how can we, as equal co-workers, contribute to living up to value promises"? Leadership and management, described in light of the HSL framework, as co-active enabling, is congruent with the employee discourse on motivation and, therefore, relevant when, and if, co-worker motivation is of concern.

5.1.2 Contribution of the Employee Discourse to Service Research

The employee discourse on motivation as described in this study is based on employees' experiences in value practices, and the empirical material has been categorized using constructivist grounded theory principles. The employees' discourse depicted in the PI model offers a de-managerialized, practice-based, version of the TPF. In developing this model, the intent was to provide an alternative to the prevailing managerial discourse in service research and make a new discourse available, which offers us "new subject positions from which to speak and read the world" (Janks, 2000), and to understand what motivates co-workers to live up to value promises in value practices.

This novel in-service research discourse claims to describe employees' authentic experiences that are anchored in practice, as the tenet for service contextual motivation.

In describing the employee discourse, the aim was to consider the dialectical relationships between discourse including language, but also other forms of semiosis, e.g., body language or visual images, and other elements of social practices (as suggested by Chiapello and Fairclough, 2002) and how these produce social reality. Based on the analyses that have been conducted throughout the study, the employee discourse intends to come as close as possible to employees' "silenced" real-life experiences (departing from value practices as the locus). In doing so, perspectives which have previously been ignored in mainstream service management, will enrich the current understanding of the underlying mechanisms of employees' motivation. The HSL framework and its PI model, which describe an employee discourse on motivation, underpin the definition on IM suggested in the following section.

5.1.2.1 Internal Marketing Defined

Internal marketing covers the enabling and, thus, traditional management of the human (and other) resources aspect of the TPF. In current IM literature, employees' experiences as experts of practices and as active participants in managing value practices, have not been considered. The following definition includes these, and suggests that:

> The purpose of Internal Marketing is to enable the firm to live up to its value promises congruently; ensuring that what is promised in communication is lived up to in practice in contact-points. This occurs by co-active managing of value practices and co-active enabling of resources that employees require in value practices. Co-workers, i.e., employees and managers, joint efforts, ensure this.

In this definition, the centrality of approaching employees as if they were adult human beings is emphasized, and the definition suggests a human logic as the underpinning of service management. Central to this definition is the reframing of management into co-active managing, and leadership, according to HSL principles, to co-active enabling.

5.1.2.2 Implications for Applying the HSL Framework and its PI Model to Practices

This thesis suggests an employee discourse on motivation and, consequently, the implications do not only apply to traditional managerial practices, but serve as a construct for advancing organizational practices in the long-term. The implications discussed here depart from the stance of this study and the conceptual development conducted, and strives to reflect the developed employee discourse. It is important to note that the traditional superiority/subordinate positions are not considered, but practices and the managing of these are put at centre also when discussing implications.

Consequently, the limelight in the discussion is turned towards this locus and where the face-to-face interaction, as part of service processes, takes place, i.e., the contact-points embedded in value practice that are the loci where employees interact with customers and strive to serve customers in a manner that is congruent with value promises.

Adopting such a view, drawing upon humanistic co-workership, i.e., the HSL principles, managers and service personnel are considered equal co-workers, all jointly engaged towards living up to value promises and marketing ideas. Therefore, co-worker implications, comprising implications about jointly managing value practices, would be equally or more relevant to discuss. This discussion is best described as implications for managing value practices, and explicitly draws on the assumption that employees are included in this managing, which ideally is a shared enterprise. Figure 11 illustrates the reordered TPF as the PI model and its suggested aspects as a systemic constellation that takes form and comes alive in practices in an organizational sphere. The HSL principles and its core concept underpin the model (even if not depicted in the figure).

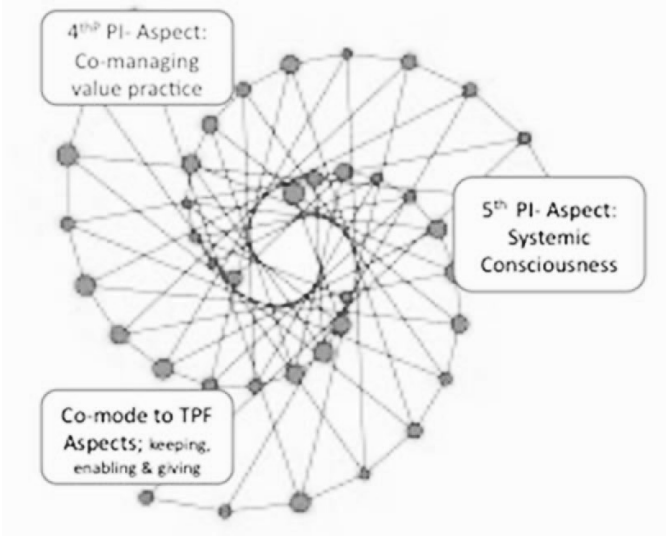


Figure 12 The PI-model portrayed as a constellation

As discussed above, this thesis argues that traditional service management and -leadership requires reframing if considered from the employees angle. Co-active managing and co-active enabling, as discussed in this thesis, is what the HSL framework and its PI model emphasises as an alteration and parallel to the other prevailing logics. In practice this means a novel approach from another, new angle that reflects the contemporary, working human being. The HSL and its PI model reflect the employee discourse on motivation, and are thus suggested to be valid underpinnings for managing practices from another level of systemic understanding. The suggested aspects of the PI model exist as elements in constellations and the model is to be seen as a constellation, which here is defined as follows:

A set of nonlinear elements and highly dynamic networks of people (actors), relationships, practices, resources, events, and information sources that are contextually embedded in the dynamic ever changing environment, taking value practice as the locus, where making, living up to and co-active enabling, i.e., the aspects of the PI, form sub-constellations in which actors; co-workers and customers are connected and consciously interact in continuously changing relations, to benefit reciprocal value formation, as promised by the firm, in interaction, (here) occurring between co-workers and customers in face-to-face contact-points.

Thus, by considering systemic principles and the creation of a dynamic equilibrium as an ideal, factors and actors are seen to exist in the organizational sphere and the orchestrating of these occurs in a co-mode and stance. Such an approach might, of course, be criticized for being idealistic. Given the setting of this research, this may be the case. However, this depends on the perspective. From an employee's angle, the PI model is probably a welcome step towards being more recognized for his or her work related experiences and expertise.

Hierarchical positions and social conflicts, such as power struggles, in practice commonly related to position battles, objectifying mode of management, elitist and old-fashioned managing manners, etc., are of the kind that increase negative energies and de-crease motivation. These often result in confusion and a sense of "the red thread" in marketing ideas being lost, social entanglements, and a feeling of being deprived of one's own right to participate in developing aspects concerning their work. In addition, a lack of internal service mindedness, rude behaviour and other factors that negatively impinge on motivation seem to reflect on customer interaction, which in the view of all involved parties is unfortunate.

The implication of the PI model is that it suggests jointly managing value practices, including and "taking advantage" of those actors involved in the practice, i.e., front-line employees, departing from practices and customers' and employees' interactions within these. Thereby, the PI model becomes an ever-changing constellation in which the aim is to live up to what is being promised, as an ongoing ever-changing constellation, and "walking-the-service-talk".

5.2 Relevance of the Study

The aim of the study was to describe an employee discourse on motivation. Within service research, employee motivation has been established as instrumental to customer perceived quality, satisfaction and currently within the value discourse as instrumental to customer value formation/creation. Despite the avalanche of service system developments that build upon non-human interaction, emotion work conducted by employees in contact-points in value practice have still shown to impact customers' experiences immensely.

The HSL framework and its PI model summarizes the findings of the study and describe an employee discourse on motivation in a service context. The novelty of the framework is argued to be in its grounding in the empirical world of the employees' in combination with the adoption of a humanistic stance in a world of service management, which traditionally is governed by a managerialist ideology. The altered ontological units of observation and analyses inevitably bring in new perspectives to the body of knowledge within service research and in particular into IM. Thus, the tenets of the research and the underpinning of the framework deviate from established norms in service management research and practice, thereby widening the field of consciousness about factors that impact on motivation.

This study has shown a range of factors, intrinsic and extrinsic, that impact on how employees as human beings subjectively experience motivation. To consider the experiences of those that do and "own" the practices as relevant is not new. Such ideas originated in the early works of humanistic management, initiated almost 100 years ago. However, the underpinning principles of humanistic management combined with co-workership, which together emphasized ideas of co-active power sharing and

integration of ideas from practices to decision-making, still seem topical today. Perhaps we have been blinded by the bliss of easy manageable technical solutions and put the challenging humane issue aside. Still, as long as humans are involved, as customers and co-workers, the human factor cannot be overlooked without severe consequences, such as de-motivated employees. Therefore, the humanistic co-workership approach developed in this work seems highly relevant because it eloquently expresses current employee experiences. The developed framework suggests creating an inclusive dynamic equilibrium, with a systemic focus, by co-active managing and enabling.

To conclude, by articulating an employee discourse on motivation, the HSL and its PI model strives to draw attention to the inherent potential in co-active managing and -enabling. It is argued that co-active managing of value practices may mobilize authentic and autonomous motivation in individuals and groups, and may eventually reflect the organization as the larger system. This, it seems, would have the potential of strengthening a firm's circle of service power as a system.

5.2.1.1 Evaluation of the Relevance of the Study

According to Alasuutari (2000:234), the aim of qualitative research is to develop critical work that enhances a logical discussion of societal issues. In of that assumption, he argues that the generalizability of the findings is less relevant than how well the research manages to question old paradigms and expand consciousness. The focus should not be on the verification of old hypotheses; the evaluation should rather challenge accepted truths.

The evaluation criteria used in this study as shown in Table 11 are discussed next.

Table 11 Evaluation criteria for the qualitative research

Criteria	Implications	Criteria	Implications
1. Construct validity (Yin 1994) —>	* Use of multiple sources of evidence & chaining of evidence * Key respondents reviewing draft	5. Rhetorical	*Structure of report: Power and elegance, creativity, openness, problematic qualities, independence, emotional and intellectual commitment * Social courage
2. External validity (Yin 1994)	* Domains for generalization	6. Space for reader's conclusions (Gummesson 1988)	* Written in a manner which leaves space for reader's own conclusions
3. Reliability (Yin 1994)	* Demonstration of operations * Repeatability of data collection procedures	7. Writer's paradigms (Gummesson 1988)	* The writer's ontological and epistemological beliefs
4. Trustworthiness **(Yin 1994)**	* Credibility * Transferability	8. Pre-understanding of problem (Gummesson 1988)	* The understanding of the problems addressed prior to the research process

1) The construction validity of this thesis as to the use of multiple sources is considerably high. Two separate cases ensure that the phenomenon is explored in different contexts. In addition, the researcher has been working in parallel throughout this research process in different well-being and service development projects in other firms. This presented me with the opportunity to compare the work conducted within the frames of this study with similar, but "less scientifically structure" projects throughout the duration of the research process. Thus, in advance of the research, I worked in similar projects in other firms during the research process.

The understanding gained in the dialogue of the sessions as each formed the "platform" for the following sessions. The conclusions made at each session were revealed to the participants. Different draft versions, covering different parts of the process, have been reviewed by the case owners, as has the final draft. Thus, the construct validity should be high.

In an effort to describe a previously un-described employee discourse within service research, parallel to the dominant managerial service discourse, this research questions an existing paradigm. The findings cannot be generalized, but as I have noticed as a trainer and coach in other organizations, the main issues identified within the frames of this research are, indeed, also recognizable in other firms. These provided the basis for

valuable “empirical hunches” throughout the process, even if not noted within the frames of this thesis. Above all, what was most stunning was realizing how prevalent overpromising is today, and how often employees face truly awkward and uncomfortable situations in customer interactions. Situations where employees and perhaps, customers as well end up asking, “Why do they make these impossible promises”?

2) Generalization is not strived for in the kind of qualitative research conducted in this thesis, but advancing the understanding of a phenomenon. Therefore, the generalizability, as such, is not a relevant issue in this context. However, as an involved researcher, trainer and coach in other cases, as discussed previously, the identified factors have been observed elsewhere “in the field”. With further empirical grounding, the question will perhaps be not whether the findings are generalizable, but which of these are.

Indeed, the understanding that I have developed and strived to depict in this thesis draws upon manifold sources. The cases of the study included ethnographic natured phases and the close proximity to the explored gave me authentic field experiences, while simultaneously having the “other foot” in the world of research.

3) I have strived to achieve a high level of reliability in regards to demonstration of the operation. Given the vast process and the interactive use of methods, the demonstration and discussion in the thesis report is not as detailed as in the first version of the manuscript. The already established methods that have been applied in the first case process, such as critical incidents (critical issues identified), have only been mentioned, assuming that readers are familiar with these. More novel introductions, such as the exploration of experiences as an aspect of consciousness, and systemic constellation analyses that were applied, have been given more space in the discussion in order to be explicit on the data collection/analyses procedures.

4) In regards to trustworthiness, credibility is argued to be high because the study consists of two cases in which employees acted as case owners, i.e., they contributed in designing the case processes, which means that they influenced the way in which their experiences have been initiated. As this thesis is about describing an employee discourse, employees’ participation in the process is argued to be relevant and advance its findings credibility. In regards to transferability, I have has strived to be as transparent as possible in regards to describing the research process.

5) Concerning rhetorical aspects, the focus has been to describe the employee discourse as vividly and authentically as possible by using extracts and quotations to illustrate the discussed factors, while simultaneously following the structures of academic reports. This has been extremely challenging, because the process was long and the material vast, and the rhetoric of practice and theory are of different kinds. In describing the employee discourse, initially, more empirical material was used. However, because the thesis did seem to expand beyond a reasonable scope, the use of the empirical illustrative material was reduced in the actual written report. Nevertheless, the categorization draws upon a vast amount of material, which underpins the description of the employee discourse and construction of the PI model.

It is the explicit intent and a humble hope that this research shows openness, power and elegance, and emotional and intellectual commitment on the part of me, as I have maintained interest in this quest over more than 10 long years, even if occasionally being struck by discouragement and momentary despair. However, the commitment

would not loosen its grip of me until this quest was finished. To describe a novel discourse in an established research area can perhaps be interpreted as showing social courage? This will be left for others to judge.

6. Whether there is space for readers' conclusions is hard to determine for the writer. This has been the aim and it is my humble hope that this is the case.

7 and 8. The writer's paradigms should be very obvious and clearly expressed in the choice of stance and angle of the study, and discussions of the methodology. The pre understanding of the problem was good, and discussed in different parts of the written report.

5.2.2 Concluding Remarks

The HSL framework, and its PI model, that has been constructed during the course of this research process is inclusive and open to its nature. It appreciates the individual's rights to participate in working for the "common good" in a firm, i.e., customers' value formation. The developed framework suggests that individual competencies are considered as to all three aspects of the established TPF. It draws upon factors that human beings employed in service work tend to find motivating. It sees the individual as striving to his or her potential, and suggests that service employees, in practice (seem to), strive to fulfil a need to serve others.

It is suggested that the employee discourse described in this thesis is, on a general level, useful to critique assumptions embedded in service management. It serves the purposes of raising questions of how management discourses are paternalistic towards employees in general. In particular, its inherent elitist stance towards employees is revealed in separating thinking from doing in regards to employees by depriving them agency to participate in the development of one's own work. Such a mode is by definition linear because it places thinking above doing and, thus, in a superior position. Managers think and employees enact their thinking. This is not only against systemic principles, and how practices organize themselves as integrated "wholes", but it is paternalistic towards employees. In practice, as people in work-life commonly have relatively high levels of education, many seem to find such paternalistic objectifying modes impertinent, even childish and, thus, de-motivating. Therefore, to critique the management assumptions, by describing a parallel to managerial discourse, this is argued to be relevant and necessary in order to take service management to a level that genuinely considers practices as the locus for customer value formation/creation.

To critique managerial discourses on employees and on practices that are the employees', and to do so from an employee angle, is argued to be necessary, particularly to the extent that these discourses impact negatively on employees' motivation. Doing this may facilitate bringing service management to a state of equilibrium between theory and practice, a state where theory and practice can meet, interact and support each other.

5.2.3 Suggestions for Further Research

The developed framework, which is eclectic and suggestive, has woven together a number of threads grounded in practice that can and need to be further explored to

advance service research and practice towards a dynamic equilibrium between the underrepresented employees and the currently still superior management.

Various directions for future research open from this study, which address the absence of an employee discourse within service research and IM in general, and on motivation in particular. Motivation, in the framework, is defined as consisting of intrinsic psychological processes in combination with contextual social and material factors, and social and material shared consciousness is, by and large, a contextual and individual process. Therefore, it is argued that motivation cannot be explored in relation to employees as an operand resource, which is the stance of service management, and in particular IM, in its current discourse towards service employees. A resource-based view is insufficient, while employees by definition are dynamic human beings. Therefore, motivation and motivated employees, which according to many prominent researchers within the service field is a prerequisite for service quality, customer satisfaction, customer loyalty and delivery of promises in value practices, needs to be explored further from a capability and experience-based view as done in this study.

As the findings of this study indicate, there are manifold factors that impinge on employees' motivation to live up to value promises. In order to understand the mechanisms that underpin motivation, further exploration from a humanistic stance is needed, a stance that appreciates and emphasizes human experience and consciousness. Digressing to previous assumptions and concepts, such as commitment and work satisfaction, do not alone explain motivation, particularly when adopted for managerial purposes, i.e., for ordering employees' subjectivity towards motivation. As the findings of this study indicate, an employee may be highly motivated, committed to an organization, even satisfied with the job, but may still be de-motivated to live up to value promises for various reasons, e.g., a "simple" reason such as the promises are too abstract or have been experienced as undoable, which negatively impinge on motivation in this particular context. Factors that influence on motivation are not only contextual, but also at times very subtle and challenging to identify and locate. They may be individual and simultaneously socially located, as they seem to float around in organizational spheres.

This study has strived to locate and "isolate" such motivational factors, simultaneously recognizing that they are all interrelated and exist in the organization's "DNA", contaminating and being contaminated by its environment. Many of the de-motivating/motivating factors that this explorative study captured are social and psychological in their nature, but also factors relating to the content and process seem to have significant influence on employees' level and direction of motivation. That, and how these factors are intertwined, is emphasized in the PI model, portrayed as a constellation, as depicted in Figure 11.

All three variables on all three organizational levels explored in this study open up possible research avenues. Also, it is important to bear in mind that these factors were "general", i.e., commonly experienced as having an influence on motivation; how they ultimately impact varies between individuals. For example, the contention that negative energies have a de-motivating impact was shared by the participants in the study, but to what degree seemed to vary based on individual preferences and level of social competence. This has implications on methodological aspects in terms of ontological, as well as epistemological, matters in future research. Explorative studies still need to be conducted on all the aspects of the suggestive HSL principles and the PI aspects, and done so by taking employees experiences as the ontological unit of observation and analyses.

The created framework would benefit from a more detailed focus on each of the motivating/demotivating factors and their properties, but simultaneously recognizing the systemic constellations these factors are embedded in. The hidden and invisible entanglements in these and the relationships between each of the factors are in themselves specific and possible research avenues. Indeed, what motivates employees to live up to value promises needs to be further grounded in organizational practice to be able to discuss possible common motivational patterns with individuals, in a service context. Practical explorative applications of the framework, as discussed in the following section, are suggested as a relevant choice of grounding future research and conceptual development in practice.

Further, gender-related questions seem completely ignored within service research in regards to employees. Still, gender was an issue that employees brought to the fore on many occasions during the empirical sessions. Gender as an aspect influencing motivation is emerging as a topic in motivation science. It would be highly interesting to explore gender-related issues in a service context as well.

5.2.3.1 Practical Applications of the HSL framework and its PI model

Applied to practice, the employee discourse reflected in the HSL framework and its PI model would further a genuine practice-based understanding of employees' motivation to live up to value promises. Therefore, it is suggested that the aspects of the PI model be used as an analyses framework in organizational practices for identifying, analysing and describing factors that impact on co-workers motivation in organization-specific contexts. To conduct distinct in-depth studies of the HSL principles and the level of service and social competence in firms seems highly relevant to conduct as foundations for IM programs.

Such analytical processes would contribute to widening the field of consciousness of: a) invisible entanglements that may appear in the organizational space, and maintain and reinforce social structures, and dysfunctional value practices that impinge on employees motivation in negative directions; b) constellations that foster motivation in positive directions; and c) individual variation in motivation and d) and of the level of service and social competence a firm has.

Obviously, the HSL framework and its PI model and the suggestion of reframing service management and leadership, and supporting employee participation in development by establishing dialogic development forums for co-workers, is fraught with difficulties, as such a practice draws upon principles that deviate substantially from current practices. This suggestion draws heavily upon an undertone of humanistic assumptions of caring and sharing, which in turn draws upon the HSL principle. These stand in sharp contrast to the (real) contemporary practices of most profit-seeking organizations that operate on a short-term profitability basis. Even if the purpose of the developed framework would be the improvement of (the firm's role as facilitator in) customer value formation/creation, and employee motivation is seen as instrumental to this, an alteration of management modes and stance will most probably be complicated in practice. Nevertheless, it would probably enhance motivation, as the empirical sessions conducted within the frames of this study have exemplified. Participants in the process expressed this very simply by stating that:

> "It was a good process, we would need more of the kind".

As suggested, a co-active mode of managing value practices requires the reframing of leadership, towards a stance that appreciates that employees are intrinsically and autonomously motivated. In practice, it seems that few people, from subject positions, find "being managed or lead" particularly motivating. This ultimately implies that leadership is an individual and intrinsic process that occurs (consciously or unconsciously) in relation to a context as a constellation, which is framed by practices, assumptions, values, missions and visions. Thus, leadership is about the individual's being and actions in a context in relation to the self, the context and finding the drivers within, or in the case of external motives, valuated against internal criteria in relation to other human beings. Then, leadership becomes something of an enabling process, which in this context, refers to genuine enabling.

To alter the mode and stance of management and ground it in practices may, at first sight, in the view of stakeholders, such as owners, boards of directors or labour unions, seem a tedious, expensive and uncomfortable and, perhaps, unnecessary task that consumes time and shifts established power structures. How could the adoption of a co-managing mode and stance and a higher level of systemic consciousness, that in turn draws upon a higher level of social and service competencies among co-workers, undergird the practices of contemporary firms that often struggle with short-term survival, and only reach the next quarterly established financial goals through budget cuts, saving and downsizing staff?

What would the impact of this kind of co-managing of value practices be like at the organizational, group and individual levels in practice? The orchestrating of such reframing would vary from case to case, and would as such be action research that would contribute with practice-based as well as theoretical development. In terms of practice, would it not mean meeting the needs of employees to serve their customers well and then equally meet the needs of stakeholders to earn higher profits? Then, would it not eventually also, if carried out in organizational practices, mean more humane and more efficient modes and stances of doing business? Would it perhaps take us towards a more sustainable level of work-life with higher humanistic standards that appreciate both ethics and efficiency? It would at least contribute to advancing organizational practices towards a more inclusive work-life, where co-workers in different positions have the possibility of contributing, practicing their competence and being motivated.

To conclude, this study contributes with an employee discourse on motivation. It suggests an alteration of the current prevailing logics in service research towards a Human Service Logic. It is an alternative logic of helping, assisting and caring for customers which employees find motivating. Drawing upon humanistic and systemic principles the HSL re-introduces the human being and human interaction between employees and customers as essential and meaningful, in the vast service arena. The HSL framework and its PI model notes human interaction as pivotal in customers' value fulfillment as well as in employee motivation, and views these as having reciprocal influences. The Human Service Logic, and its PI model, describes an employee discourse on motivation in a service context.

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APPENDIX 1 LIST OF INTERVIEWS AND EMPIRICAL SESSIONS

CASE 1 (1999-2013)				
Phase of study	When	Type of interview/Intervention	Number of participants	Participants
Pilot 1	1999	Personal interviews	10 +10	Service employees, managers, CEO, Quality Mangers, Marketing manager; HR sea personnel
Pilot 2	Fall 2000	Personal Interviews + small group interview	10 5	Managers Employees
Action Process	2000-2002			
DES[28] Group 1	12.10.2000	Group session	30	Service employees: Catering & Shipping
DES Group 2	18.10.2000	Group session	30	Service employees: Catering & Shipping
DES Group 1	23.11.2000	Group session	30	Service employees: Catering & Shipping
DES Group 2	05.12.2000	Group session	30	Service employees: Catering & Shipping
DES 1 & 2	26.02.2001	Group Session	All (60 + 20 new)	
FLG[29]	06.09.2000	Group session	10	
FLG	14.06.2000	Group session	10	
	Fall 2003	Mystery Shopping		Discussions with employees at work
Concluding Discussions	2012 2013	Presentation of results Constellations Analyses	1 2	HR manager and HRD Manager

[28] DES Den Enhätliga sälen (The unified seal)
[29] FLG= Fartygs Ledningsgrupp (Ship management group)

CASE II (2002-2013)				
Phase	When	Type of interview/Intervention	Quantity	Participants/Positions
Pilot	May 2002	Personal interviews	10	Employees (sales & back office
	May 2002	Personal Interviews	10	Managers
CC Group 1	14.10.2002	Group Dialogue	20	Employees
CC Group 2	25.10.2002	Group Dialogue	20	Employees
CC Group 1	07.11.2002	Group Dialogue	20	Employees
CC Group 2	18.11.2002	Group Dialogue	20	Employees
CC Group both	14.04 2003	Concluding Group session	20	Employees
Management Group	10	Presentation of preliminary findings from CC	10	Managers
CC Groups Both		Process Evaluation	12	Employees and Marketing Manager
Participative Promises co-creation				
Case: Tool Rental	Fall 2007	Personal Interviews	10 + 10	Sales people
Group Session 1	Spring 2008	Dialogue on Content & Promises of new concept	10	Sales
Group Session 2	Fall 2008	Dialogue on Content and Promises of new concept	10	Sales
Interview	2010			Marketing Managers
Concluding Remarks	2013			

APPENDIX 2 EXTRACTS FROM EMPIRICAL SESSIONS I CASE I

Dialogue session group I, 05.12.2000

Present: 20 employees, Hotel and Restaurant manager and researcher

R: Greetings from xxxx, personell. ..... You don't know who that is?

G: It is terrible that people don't know who that is, that you actually don't know who the woman is!

R: Do you think that she herself knows that you don't know that she exists...

G: Don't know ...

H: Her greetings: ..... The communication between sea and land is important, what do you say about that? How does the communication between sea and land work today?

GM: Quite good at least concerning the conference, but much communication at the land, I mean between different departments inside the land - where everyone sits at Mannerheimintie beside each other and they don't discuss with each other!

R: How does that show at your department?

GM: Different messages come from different directions - they don't pull evenly there! The communication between land and boat does work much better than the mutual communication. Just as, for example, nobody knows who Pirjo Helin is (but everyone does know who Patrik Palmgren is), and everyone knows who Tore Svensson is.
GM: The communication between sea and land has gotten better than it was before, but ashore it seems as though the right hand doesn't know what the left hand is doing ...

R: Is it so that the seal has at least three different heads? ....

G: Yes ...

H: The service chain .... the whole unity

G: In the line book it is very clearly written ...
G: Internal service is very important for the whole service chain to work?

R: How do you perceive this internal service? Do you get the service you need from each other internally so that you can serve the customers in a good way?

G: I perceive it as mostly confrontations, it has to do with chiefs and superiors ...

R: In what way?

GM: Well... The time study men have seem to come onboard who check our working hours and how we do our work and then we have contracts which are not clear and people are put on annual holiday and a lot of odd things ...

R: What do you mean by odd things? Does that mean that you don't know what is happening?

GM: Some things we know, but for example last autumn all overtime was to be converted to money - now overtime is to be converted to compensation ... a lot of these things are not clear.... what you can do with annual holiday and ... Earlier you took your annual holiday when it suited you. Suddenly it is very important with these annual holiday days which is for a lot of people, they are totally panic struck with these annual holiday days.... for example, you have to take your annual holiday now or otherwise they freeze it... - Okay, what does this mean? And the answer could be that I don't know what it means but....
GM: It is very confusing now for everybody ... this new contract.. It is totally crazy this with the labour union and ship owners sitting and discussing and like
GM: It seems as though nobody has understood what this means ... the labour union does know what it means and it is presumably a quite good contract for us, but so the administration at the shipping company hasn't interpreted it. They have interpreted it as some kind of a pooled contract...
GM: Well.. it isn't probably quite so either because none of the chiefs are here to tease the personnel either ... this contract does give us some possibilities to outline in another way
GM: Yes, but they haven't understood that .. the funny thing about this is .. as the contract is written by the labour union it is supposed to be built up in one year - but they on the other side don't want to do that, but instead they want to make 3-4 interruptions in this contract
GM: But it is sensible for everybody to do so, you nevertheless have a ground scheme that you follow... the if you some time want to deviate from it then you must be able to do it ... everybody probably wants that everyone is well off... but it is new for everybody ...

R: This contract, do you think a lot about it, is it something that is discussed often?

GM: Truly it is
GM: Yes
GM: Of course it affects the job, we are totally frustrated that a paper where it clearly says how it is doesn't come, it is exhausting for both chiefs and others

R: Who should give you this paper?

GM: Of course he who is our negotiator and then the labour union
GM: Both the labour union internally and externally are involved and ... a lot of different things
GM: One can sense that the personnel gets uncertain about this and feels insecure
GM: We do have a life outside the boat, too, that we also want to be able to plan, and to be able to enjoy one's leisure it is important that we feel secure at work. They just can't only whip and batter us all the time. At the least the last shift the whole first week went to discussing and discussing and discussing
GM: What is silly is that it impacts us - we also want to know, neither the chiefs know
GM: But the chief should nevertheless have the responsibility for how one communicates
GM: (T) This worrying-thing is one thing ... I have worked here for 15 years, and in 15 years flags have been discussed many times and ... Nevertheless I have gotten my salary every damn day and at the right time every month, and I think that Silja indeed is a quite good employer, that at least I have nevertheless learned not to care about rumours and I don't bother to care, they do exist all the time.. All the time

R: How much does it affect your work? Rumours and insecurity exist in every firm today, don't they?

GM: Does a professional firm really engage in spreading rumours?
GM: But we are the company and spread these rumours ourselves……
GM: Of course there always exists probably some that are more involved in something, or think that they are more involved and talk about things and so they become rumours

R: Who of you haven't been talking about the latest hot potato, i.e. the contract?

GM: Everybody talks about it
GM: It lives its own life of course
GM: These rumours get little irrational proportions because people talk so much, and some spread rumours that aren't true

R: Does one as personnel have responsibility concerning spreading of rumours?

GM: Yes, I think so
GM: There is of course agitators
GM: The negative often gets advantage

H: How much positive rumours is there?

GM: Ha, ha
GM: Not so much have one heard….

R: What would happen if there were….?

GM: That would of course be very good
GM It is all about vibrations. And that's why I think that it is scandal that a man like this XXXX acts … when he was here on board talking for an hour - looked like a sad dog and told how bad it is. He should instead gather strength and send out …. this and this you have done well.
GM: It nevertheless is our line that is well off
GM: He stood there and compared us to how they once have played in a higher division, a sports parallel, but then he as trainer should be able to spread positive vibrations
GM: Trainers should make us stand up for ourselves
GM: There is nothing positive in what he said .. but at the end he showed us Symphony's sales figures which go right up - and said that it is the only boat that is well off
GM: From that side they also want to go to a 2/1 system, so that we work 2 and are one idle, he meant that we only work 5,5 months per year - that we are spoilt, that he said. We have contracts that are written in the happy 80ies when things still went well. It is not too psychological as he drives the issue. I asked how the contract would look like if they were allowed to write it, and then it turned out to be 2/1

R: How do you perceive Silja's leadership today?

GM: Ashore it is very fragmented, it was clearer earlier when we had a line organization - then there was a guy who had responsibility for everything but now there are many and everyone hold back in there own cages and nobody exactly knows how it should be. Earlier it was one person who really was a lot here on board, too, then it was clearer
GM: Ashore there is lacking a person who pulls all the strings together

GM: Onboard we have a first-class crew, all from dish washers to .... we have a very high professional knowledge here. Our organization onboard is relatively good compared to similar places ashore
GM: What is lacking is a forum where land and sea personnel could meet, I would for example like that Palmgren and Helin would attend such a meeting. Then you could integrate things in such a forum. What one lacks the most from the administration is to hear how they work, what they work with..
GM: I think it's shameful that for example personnel from land when they travel over don't eat for example where the other employees eat, they sit in the Happy Lobster and eat. Come, for example, with me and we together go through each dish washer and so on and say hallo to them. They only meet the chiefs on board...
GM: Even if we are many and it would take time, it would be good. Perhaps, for example, take one department at the time and sit down over a meal with them. Then it would be a person and not just only a name one recognizes.
GM: I work as a waiter and don't have any contact with the administration from ashore ... and I probably don't want to have it either, but it still feels as though a forum for this could be needed.
GM: Every waiter is not supposed to know what every booker ashore is called, is he?, but it would be good if you would know the key persons

R: Do the key persons from ashore greet the personnel when they come onboard?

GM: No, not even nearly always. They don't go behind the scenes and greet
GM: We perhaps have a little Finnish culture. In Finland it probably is so that chiefs gladly are CHIEFS, stand a little bit lopsided over, and don't want to be involved with the ordinary employees
GM: It should be so that, every time they come on board, they greet us
GM: The we-spirit could use it - the we-spirit should start from above, there isn't another way
GM: It is like in customer service, it is about small things, the fact that you say hallo and smile and look another person in the eye, it is exactly the same thing as some Pirjo would come here and be on a journey and discuss with people and walk around the departments

R: How about the impact of the internal service on how the customer gets service from you. How do you treat each other as internal customers at Silja? And how does this impact the service the customers get?

GM: It of course has to do with positive vibrations, if it works internally then it works externally.
GM: Such internal service that you don't think about is, for example, every time I come to work my cabin is cleaned, I have my working clothes - things that make it convenient to come to work.
GM: Yes, it works well...
GM: Yes. It is such positive things one doesn't think about
GM: It works cannon
GM: You easily judge everyone in an occupational category if someone manages to make a boner out of oneself - it of course doesn't mean that everyone sucks
GM: It is easily so that one generalizes so that for example everyone ashore is silly

R: Intern service, positive vibrations and we-spirit, please elaborate some more.

GM: So the internal, how it works is of course important for the whole service chain

GM: In our department we recently sat down and discussed how well off we are doing in our department, we talked about how damn enjoyable it is to work here, we are such a good gang, we laugh all the time and "like to work a little on the side" or we are such a good gang
GM: It is very important that you feel good with each other
GM: There's a lot you can do yourself, too, we have the opening of the summer and winter season, a glass of champagne/mulled wine on deck number seven regardless of weather
GM: The little "silly" things that you do within the department are important
GM: Earlier you did more things that you went on a trip together with other departments
GM: We don't have such a good spirit among us ....
GM: The buffet has a quite good one actually

R: Does the customer feel if you have a good or bad atmosphere?

GM: Yes, absolutely
GM: We do get feedback from the customers
GM: .... they can say for example, you seem to have it so good here
GM: So you have it good at work ....
GM: On our boat the people nevertheless are happy, compared with Sere for example. They have such an exhausting time with the contract now, we have it quite good compared to them. Furthermore, the personnel is older at Sere
GM: If somebody isn't happy working with us he gives notice and gets another job. Or if somebody for example wants to go on a trip, he gives notice, travels around for a few months, and then accepts a new job
GM: The personnel of the kitchen gets a job whenever ashore, our waiters get a job whenever ashore...
GM: There are many who leave and come back after a while
GM: Those who are older perhaps have a reason for being more concerned, the market is different for them

R: It sounds like you have a good atmosphere in general? And at the same time it's bad?

GM: It is good in principle, but then it varies so much between different departments
GM: Yes... that is good ... so it is ..... but it could of course be better

GM: Right now it is very exhausting with the contract, you wouldn't even like to think about it any more ...
GM: You cannot plan for the next year ... technically it becomes hard, but it is needless to put a lot of energy on thinking about it
GM: Many people have been starting to think again, that they could fancy a job ashore
GM: At our side you don't get a service leave for working ashore, that you get on the Finnish side
GM: Stupid right now is that there is a good personnel, but they maybe give notice and go somewhere else if they want to learn something else. Why not let the personnel take a service leave and then let them come back with new ideas?
GM: At times one should be allowed to get out and see other things
GM: That is a huge minus in our contracts
GM: The mates are allowed to drive their banana boats however they like and then come back here ...
GM: You work much better if you are away for some time

R: Now when the strategy at Silja is to back regular patrons and get customers to come back again and again, to work up a "long-term relationship" with the customers, how does this affect your daily work?

GM: It's happiness at work that is needed

R: Where does it come from?

GM: It comes from peace and quiet and trust .... in organizational questions for example nonsense about the length of shifts - shall one work 10/10, 14/14 and so on
GM: It gives you industrial peace to know how long the working shift is - to know that I come to work then, work so and so long ...
GM: In the personnel survey the last time it turned up that we are damn lousy chiefs, well personally I am interested in such things so why then don't courses in leadership with personnel psychology get arranged? So that we can get better, the answer was very diffuse
GM: Respect for the work we do we would gladly like to get
GM: The employer doesn't have it that easy either because the labour union has such a big influence on personnel issues, for example, on the length of the shift - there is a huge conflict between the labour union and the employer
GM: There should be clear rules in these matters

R: How big influence does the labour union have?

GM: In these kind of issues they have a very big influence
GM: It of course affects us greatly if there are negative thoughts ....
GM: The discussion has become very big, it is very important that we could get a one-year contract
GM: It is like there are positive and negative thoughts that circulate around there. For us it then is to take a hold of the positive thoughts - such things with contracts and conflicts with the labour union/employer affect our work a little bit. It is the negative thoughts that live on - and then it is visible to the customer. Or when one gets the positive thoughts to get a hold - you are happy and so ... and then that is visible to the customer - that is what I think

R: What kind of communication is uplifting and up-building?

GM: When PP told us about the result he could have started with that you are working good here and have a fine boat, and your result is good. And then there are other things that make it so that the general result is not so good. Now we were made to hear that we have the wrong contract, that we are spoiled.... If he comes here and shouts such things the only thought that are circulating are negative - you don't work better after that!
GM: You end up in a pit ...

R: How long does it take to come up from there?

GM: It lives on for quite a while.....
GM: He (PP) seemed very compliant and had no visions about how we can get out of this, it is about making contracts about cheaper labour, or the governments give aid or something like that. It seems as though the rescue comes from outside .....
GM: Our line does go well - our sales clime all the time. But nothing is enough if it snaps somewhere else in the company. But we never do things good enough! We are selling awfully well right now. Our new sales system has probably helped (Logisticar)

GM: The bonus they got ashore because we sold so well was quite special, we don't get any commission here at all, but on the Finnish boats they get commissions ...
GM: We got to read about the commission they got ashore for good sales HA HA HA ....
GM: That did raise a certain amount of wonder - because we have been working so well only those ashore get a commission .....

R: How does the frequent traveller program show in your work?

GM: It can be seen in our work, but I think that the frequent travellers don't know how it works. Probably are there quite a lot of new frequent travellers, who don't know what it means to be a frequent traveller

R: Do you know what the frequent traveller program is?

GM: Yes. They get points and then we have the frequent traveller offers
GM: 15 % on certain products and 20 % on others, they change every month
GM: Then they collect points to collect for a new trip ...

R: Why does one give bonus etc.?

GM: One wants to keep these frequent travellers
GM: We yet don't recognize people because they are frequent travellers

R: Is there any difference in "ordinary" and frequent travellers?

GM: You cannot see any difference between frequent travellers and other passengers
GM: You must treat everyone equally
GM: Nowadays everyone has their own programmes for regular customers - Stockmann ..
GM: Personally I think that there sometimes is a little bit too much talk about regular guests - we do have other guests to take care of ....
GM: As an example of regular customers - I went over to Turku with my girlfriend, on a Festival a few years ago, and after that trip I became a regular customer, after that a lot of advertisements started to come and I still get a lot of advertisements. I think it feels cheap! I get a lot of advertisements and offers and so on
GM: As I perceived it at the beginning the frequent travellers probably were supposed to feel a little bit more special ...
GM: I don't get this because I'm employed here, I was employed afterwards. This I get as a guest. But it probably was supposed to be a little bit exclusive - you would feel a little bit selected. I don't feel selected if it's like this you get to be a frequent travellers - you get these cards as easily as ever

R: Have you been a part of the planning of how you should greet the frequent travellers and what it means for your work?

GM: Not really if you think about it like that - they do not really know, you should perhaps talk more with them that now they get these benefits and so on
GM: We do not see from the outside that they are frequent travellers
GM: No, not until they show their card at the cash register, if they remember
GM: At that point it is too late to start telling them about different products, especially if there are long queues at the register, then it doesn't work
GM: You simply don't know which ones are frequent travellers..
GM: Furthermore, for example our shop (perfume) is totally self service, so there isn't time either

R: Greetings from XX - do you know her?
GM: No, it would be good to put up such faces on the Messen for example sometimes, then you perhaps would learn to recognize them
GM: It could be a little presentation, if they don't want to come as persons on board
GM: If you then would come across somebody you would recognize that okay that is she

R: She is in the magazine all of you surely get home!
Presentation of the frequent traveller programme goal and so on
GM: So they are going to back this up with a lot more?

R: Yes, and they also point out that the internal co-operation is important, generation of ideas and so on. She asks you to come with ideas. You are most near the customer and know what they want. It probably also is to get the departments behind the scenes to participate. Some of you know the circus theme?

GM: Yes..
GM: What is it?
GM: Is it going to be a ski slope down from the pier to the promenade.... with the skippers and mates
GM: It's going to be a duel ....
GM: The seamen are also participating...
GM: The customers are standing and cheering ...
GM: Haha...

R: I take this as a no? The goal of the program ....?

GM: It would of course be good with better information to the frequent travellers about what it means to be a frequent traveller. If they knew about when they come to the buffet that there is some special shot for the frequent travellers that is cheaper perhaps they would understand to ask for it. Now nobody asks!
GM: No, when you look in the brochure about offers for frequent travellers there is nothing about the restaurants - how is that possible
GM: Now it's Aalborg and Finlandia which are valid at the moment, which they get cheaper
GM: Maybe they have the same offers on every boat concerning food, or if it isn't so, so then they can't put out information in general..... ?
GM: It is that kind of information that you would think that would be available more publicly, so that also the personnel can inform the customers about what there is
GM: How is it going to work in practice, if some customer says that I am a frequent traveller - "Okay, but then we have the frequent traveller shelf for you" and for the others something else?
GM: We can't either actively sell products for regular customers before we know if they're regular customers!
GM: It is perhaps easier in the restaurant where you are in contact with the customer immediately and then you can ask if they're regular customers, but in the shop it is hard when you don't meet them until they're at the register
GM: Right now it is 15 % off for the frequent travellers, but that discount you also get with the cards of Stockmann and Scandic.....
GM: Indeed you get that with all cards.... then it doesn't feel so special
GM: There's lots of things that aren't that well considered .... we did have an aperitif that ... yes it was dry martini and if the guests wanted an aperitif you couldn't ask them if they were regular customers ... well, you are regular customers then you get another of these ... (???)

Example of coding of managers interviews

Initial coding in *us-them* and communication stance management applies towards employees. The aim is to depict how in the discourse, here in the managers utterances, the distinction in us vs. them was identified. These extracts do not rightfully illustrate the general tone of the discussion, including semiosis, that set the foundation of this category, but illuminates the spoken aspect of the discourse.

Coding Phase: Communication Mode/ Us-Them

	Case I Phase	Category Us vs. them	Citation	Manager	code
1	Pilot	C-Mode	"The thing is that they first announce the concepts to the press, and then employees onboard are informed" They – we onboard – they onboard (employees)	Manager onboard	They Both Dist. Incl.
1	Pilot	C-Mode	"We need to get people involved and active. We need to do it in co-operation with the ships. People need to get personal insight on what this really is about" We – us, people	CEO	We, Incl.
1	Pilot	C-Mode	"The challenge is to get the people aligned with this vision. Most of our employees do not really know our basic values yet… How could they perform in accordance with those?" The vision and the values go hand in hand, and should be at a conscious level among the employees". We (mangers) – they (employees) – our employees	Manager	They Dist.
1	Pilot	C-Mode	"At this moment we don't use the customer information to the extent we could because we are short of employees and we (managers) do not have the right mindset either".	Manager	Them Vs. Us Dist.
1	Pilot	C-Mode	"What is going on during the loyalty month on board the ships concerns actually everyone working onboard, and we need to get their commitment". We (managers) they (employees)	Manager	We vs. Them Dist.
l	Pilot	C-Mode	We need to get the masses from the ships involved, we want to do it together, not traditionally like "you do the marketing ashore and we fix what has to be done onboard""	Manager	We Incl.
1	Pilot	C-Mode	"It is really a question of learning, not just implementation, and during 2001 the learning process needs to get started. Right now the team working with this is quite small, we need to get more people involved". We – us	Manager	we They Both incl./ dist.
1	pilot	C-Mode	We have not been thinking on the internal marketing that much … we have focused more on the external market. We need to sell internally as well –otherwise we will not succeed externally. It is very important (for us) to get people involved" (Marketing persons) us-them	Manager	Us vs. them Dist.

APPENDIX 3 EXTRACTS FROM EMPIRICAL SESSIONS, CASE II

Transcribed extracts from:
CONCLUSIONS and EVALUATION of Customer Care PROCESS; CASE II, December 2004

1) One-to-one discussion with marketing manager. Evaluation of CC process. Duration: 1 hour
2) Group session: People from CC processes attending. Presentation of employees' experiences and their conclusions about how customer care could be improved, what motivates employees to live up to the customer care promise, and evaluation of process. Duration: 2 hours; 1 hour group work and 1 hour dialogue/discussion.

Customer Care was defined as the service promise aspect of the brand promise *First Choice* in the SSM Dialogue process.

R= Researcher, MM= Marketing Manager, Group, GM= Group Member

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Marketing Manager and Researcher
Theme discussed: Evaluation of process and conclusions about what motivates employees to live up to customer care?

R: During our last discussion you mentioned process energies. Can you recall that and elaborate some further upon it, please?

MM: Yes, we had a nice interpretation about process energies and process flow … It was that flow is about the stream that the process goes through and the energy there is before and after the process. It is about that you release a certain amount of potential by energizing "the grass root level", to get them involved in planning, and when they are able to participate in the change process. When they are able to influence on the process there is positive motivation among them and they want to go through with the change. Then there is good energies in the flow – a positive energy.

R: Yes, this is what we wanted to achieve, and also our aim with the dialogue sessions was to identify what factors employees experience that motivate them to live up to promises. What is your perception of factors that energized the group and the process?

MM: It is very clear that when the got tasks and you start to reflect over some problems and challenges and how to cope with these, when they were working with these they …. Well they almost levitated

R: They were flying of inspiration you mean?

MM: Yes you had to catch them flying away… (chuckle) no, but they were really inspired.

R: So you need to "awaken" their inspiration then?

MM: That is a good question, I fully agree… they were also energized by some kind of feeling of togetherness when they arrived at the same conclusion about some problem solving, they supported each other and got to some kind of a 1+1=3 phenomena, synergies…

R: You were earlier talking about empowerment, that there is too little empowerment and that hinders the flow, can you comment some more on this?

MM: It is obvious that if you keep the operational level aside in decision-making they are excluded, and that is always negative. That's humane…people always complain about things that come from outside, when one is not included, whether it is something good or bad. If it is bad it becomes some steps in the worse direction if they are excluded. Even if you take just one member of a group to participate in decision-making so this person is the spokesperson for the group… It is really strange that this has not been understood (among management).

R: What else would you say is "eating" the motivation despite lack of empowerment?

MM: Well there is a phenomenon we have had in our firm, changes and outsourcing. It is ongoing and has occurred too many times. It is change upon change upon change … too many times. And management says that change is on-going, but I think that we would need some balance between the two. In case of constant instability there will be a feeling of insecurity and then it is hard to go the extra mile, give your soul to the job. You just become afraid of loosing your job.

R: So it is about how management communicates and arguments then?

MM. That, too. Argumentation is one thing, but it needs to be more real, …so that they understand and sense that they (employees) are included… then again too much consensus (the Swedish model) can be too slow.

R: Hmm … you were saying something about "giving your soul"?

MM: Yes it is precisely that… empowerment. To get the people with you … it is very simple this … perhaps it is that we have a different history than Sweden, they have not been in war for a very long time. But we have constant "information bombing" about our wars .. this and that war and all that goes with the wars .. so for our freedom you need to bow and be satisfied. Perhaps our (Finnish) leadership is a war legacy, you give orders and orders come from superiors because that is in our history, and it takes a long time for this to change. But perhaps gradually…

R: In regards of the process you previously mentioned terms like freedom and sense of togetherness. Can you elaborate further, what do they mean?

MM: It is when you work as a team you need to know what tasks the other team members have, how we will proceed and how we will co-operate, what is my responsibility. That is motivating. But if you have your eyes covered like a horse, it is not perhaps that bad, but you'll become passive. But if you have a sense of belonging and know your co-workers and what they are doing you feel like a part of the system and you get more motivated, it'll be both push and pull.

R: So you mean how people feel, and act upon their emotions?

MM. Yes it's this with us humans … that we try to be so rational, but mostly it is about emotions after all.

R: You talked about becoming inspired, do you think there are other emotions that are important in changes ?

MM: Security. The feeling that you have a job for a longer period, that you get food on the table for the family, that I am needed, that others respect me. That I am needed and I have my role, I am not irreplaceable, but I am needed.

R: Security functions as a foundation for positive emotions, you mean?
MM: Exactly, inspiration and security.

R: We talked about internal customer care and external customer care?

MM: Yes we need to take care of people internally first, because this is the foundation for customer care. This is like rings on the water, it starts from within, when we are satisfied and it's good, then it is easier to work with customers.

R: What in your opinion is good internal customer care?

MM: Teamwork, an understanding of the team tasks, what I do, what the others do, how we co-work, why am I needed, respect, information, communication, to know where we stand and dialogue when it comes to development.

R: Is internal customer care the internal marketing process that is needed to integrate the idea of external customer care (ECC) in the consciousness of the firm then?

MM: That is my sentiment, you need to build it from the inside and get it organized, then when the motivation and the inspiration is there, then you sort of let them loose and the ECC works "by itself" … you provide the steps and the frames for the strategy, but within that …
R: so you mean that the ICC energizes the ECC, to integrate the ECC?

MM: Yes, that is how the formula works, ICC and all the modules are in place and then folks are motivated.

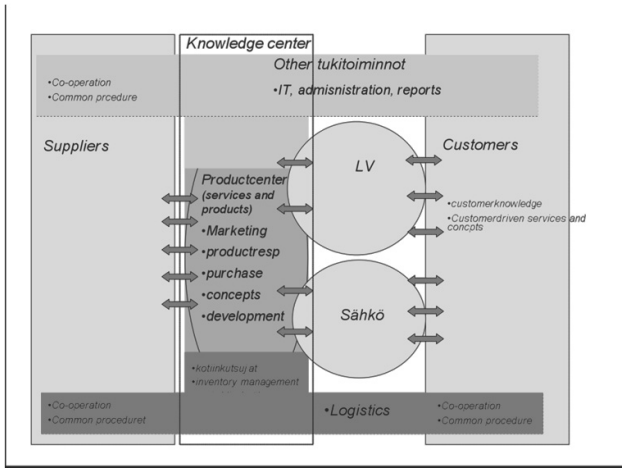
R: How about the customer knowledge the co-workers have, how is it utilized in building the logic for the ECC, is it utilised?

MM: Too little, but in the recent customer inquiry both customers an suppliers were interviewed, and based on those answers an inquiry was made among employees, compared the answers and at some points there were differences between what employees thought customers expect and what customers expect.

Group session December 2004
Presentation of employees' experiences and their conclusions about how customer care could be improved, what motivates employees to live up to the customer care promise, and evaluation of the process.

Groups present drawings/PP on how they experience that managing practices and living up to the promise customer care would work. One example depicted below in figure.
First groups comments:

- What we produced shows the factors that we find that works in managing customer care and is motivating....
- That is, it would need to be rationalized so that we would have one customer friendly service/product centre... Our customers would take us more seriously then.
- We have this credibility problem in the field in many areas, that is if we compare us with other wholesalers they do it completely differently from how we do it...
- They do it like we suggest here, they have these competence centres and then one "chief" that is responsible for orchestrating the entire system.



R: Ok. These (refers to figure and drawings) are what you produced, your solutions, and it depicts what kind of managing of practices you find motivating. And I repeat the question, can you specify more precisely what in the process (of coming up with this specific solutions) did you find motivating? That is how we worked during the process.

Figure 13 Example of employees' suggestion of solution for managing of practice in regards of foundation that enhances motivation

Group evaluation about process (one spokesperson for each groups):

- Well it must have worked well when we produced such swell solutions (smiles).
- We got to share experiences and perceptions and opinions.
- And we all agree that the customer is the king, we want to serve the customers and we really do, and need to think about the customer.

R: So you came up with some kind of shared understanding then?
GMs:

- Yes, and perhaps we serve the customers too well, we even provide them with shoelaces if they wish, and we really pamper them.

- …Maybe even too much…
- Our wholesaler role is a bit like that, then we go to extremes and soon we will provide them (customers) with crystal lamps if they wish. So perhaps we need to rethink carefully what we really should to sell…

R: So you are talking about the right logic then?
GMs:

- Yes and now lately it seems that the training has focused mostly on IT solutions and such.

- In practice it is possible to give too much compensations and we do it perhaps too easily. We need to rethink here, and this (the process) has been good because now, when reasoning together, we can see to it that is doesn't not run out of control.

- It has been very good that we have been able to ventilate our experiences on these issues, this is good for us all. I have never previously been in meetings like these.

- And the training has to be real customer/sales training, not how you use some system. There are always alternatives to the products, and the salesperson has to know more than the products, all firms like us have alternative products. That is not the thing. It is how you serve the customer that makes the difference. But not all salespeople know how to serve the customer, and then you start giving compensations to them (customers) …

- I was thinking here of different trainings.. for sales managers and salespeople. How you could get balanced, that is to get yourself into balance, it is also about how you use your time and get more time for people around you …

- For example when you deal with customers over the phone .. you have to know what it is about. And even if the customer is in a hurry you do not have to give any discounts and such (if you know what it is about), or if the customer does not get what he needs from other wholesalers …this kind of dealing has disappeared complete, now you just need to be very fast

- Exactly, just do a quick deal and if they (customers) want 10 % off the price might just do it, if the meter goes on read … you just need to be fast. The new phone system has made it really complicated it is not user friendly at all … so when you change and renew things they would need to be preceded by a process like this, so that you really get the experiences form the field, how things would work and so…

R: And what in these kinds of processes motivates you, what gives this energy?
Group:

- All levels have to contribute with their experiences and perceptions that give it energy. No theories will do it; it is in practices that things get organized.
- Solely communication or just information does not motivate; that they have decided this and this …There would have to be this kind of auditing sessions, really there should, when you can just "shoot" your own opinions, that is motivating. You might write the wrong answer (in internal surveys) but when you get together and discuss things, you see the others faces, people's reactions etc and you see what they say. It has to be in an early phase not when it has been decided upon already "like here it is, you just have to agree".

R: So the timing is crucial?
GMs
- Yes, not when they already have decided upon something
- And not just the sales and buying people, the support people need to be involved, they come up with important things. The customer "is all over"; it can be the drivers of the warehouse…
- We could have like government plenary sessions (smiles). For real, that is no stupid idea and then in a way … well there would be the managers from different areas like logistics, product managers and some big chiefs etc

R: Is it a question of who can participate so that you get to answer honestly?

- Well you would have to be able to address straightforward questions like; how good is this and how do you find this? So you need answers both from those who can decide and those who know have it is (us) …right away
- Such a process would include buying, sales, bookkeeping, logistics… Now it is like here we have a problem and that goes to the manager and from the managers to the board, from the board to logistics etc. It does not get straight to the point, and this does not serve the customer process.

R: So direct dialogue then?
GMs:
- Yes a forum for direct dialogue and discussions
- Then you would be able to express directly what is wrong
- I was watching Krisse (stand-up comedian) yesterday on TV. She said that "love the people close to you except for if they are complete morons" …so. This would be good in a discussion panel, that if you love e.g. logistic, not that profoundly but still …(smiles, laughter)
- And as many seats there are in the auditory that many should attend. A notification of the date in the intra

R: And people would come then?
- Yes this is so important for each of us that you just put it in the calendar.

R: When we had these sessions what was the atmosphere, can you recall?
GMs:
- Well it is always good when you get to express you opinions and experiences
- At least I said what I think, which I always do… but I have to admit that during the past three years there has been this … it's like forced and you have had to force yourself to go by what has been decided, like "ok let's just do it this way even if it is not working (sigh) there is not anymore the … it feels like whatever you suggest to whomever nothing happens that would enable us to work better. Sometimes it feels like it would be nice if someone form It or any other department came to our department and asked "how can we help you in this and this. No one ever came! We are their customers! If the ladies and gents would bother coming down …
- Well I've said that I can come and talk about our issues, but I don't know where I could go … And what if we'd go and tell them how to do their job … accounting …haha

R: So how important is internal customer care for the bid picture?
- It is extremely important

What seems to be the Problem?

The challenges managers perceived in Case II are depicted as a drawing, according to SSM principles of rich picture building (to determine the problem, rich picture building is used as explained in Chapter 2). The larger circles in the drawing depict the core themes. The smaller circles are properties of the larger ones. As the figure reveals, the issues exist in a constellation and no linear cause-effect relationships are revealed in the drawing. All issues somehow relate to each other on some aspect. Therefore, antecedents to some core variable would be hard to determine as the categories may function both as cause and effect in a non-linear manner.

APPENDIX 4 PROMISE TYPOLOGY

PROMISE TYPOLOGY: Contextualization and Valuation of Promises				
BRAND PROMISE	Relationship aspect of promise	Service Aspect of Promise	My/Our promise (s) (wild promises)	Individual Valuation
1. Emotional Promise	1. Value Promise & Interaction promise	Face-to-face service in value practices	What I/we promise in interaction with customers (e.g "shoelaces")	Relevance? Importance? Meaning? Promise is Doable?
2. Experience promise What does the promise (first choice) mean? How am I included? What is expected of me?	What kind of value is offered to the customer? How do I contribute? How does the interaction occur? What is expected of me?	What is expected of me in terms of Reliability? Assurance? Empathy? Tangibility? Responsiveness ?		
BENEFITS OF PROMISES				
Customer Benefits	My/our support		My/Our valuation	
How do customers benefit of value offerings (services/products) financially, psychologically, processually, emotionally in own value creation	How do I support customers benefits		Relevance? Importance? Meaning? Promise is Doable?	
General reflections:				

APPENDIX 5 LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

TPF – the Three Promises Framework, a triadic promise management model. It was initiated by Calonius (1986), introduced by Grönroos as *the service marketing triangle* (1996), and by Bitner (1995) as *service promises and related activities* model. It has been further developed by Little (2004) by placing customer value at the centre, as a conceptual model for creation and delivery of customer value. It depicts the interplay between giving-, enabling and keeping promises in value creation, co-creation and formation. It is the foundation for the redirected PI-model introduced in this thesis.

GT – Grounded Theory. GT has inspired the analyses of this study. According to Strauss and Corbin (2007) GT is a general qualitative analyses methodology for developing theory that is empirically grounded. Theory evolves during the actual research process through continuous interplay between analyses and data collection. GT is described a structured qualitative method where the aim is to reveal meaning, acknowledge the possibility of multiple answers to problems and provide insight (Goulding, 1999). GT has been used as a methodology in research areas where already some knowledge exists of some phenomenon, to deepen the understanding and to provide fresh insights on existing knowledge (ibid). The GT process is structured in phases of "data collection", memoing, coding and categorization as an iterative process. *Constant comparison* during which data collection and analyzes occurs simultaneously, and *theoretical sampling* in which decisions about what kind of data is further required is determined by the theory that is being constructed are essential to GT (Suddaby, 2006). These form the backbone throughout the analyses process, during which constant comparison between the themes and categories that emerge of the data occurs. According to Packer-Muti (2009: 141) GT provides frameworks by which data can be broken down into manageable pieces and the researcher can begin to conceptualize in "the direction the data points". According to Glaser (2002) GT considers multiple perspectives among participants (in the research). By conceptualizing the researcher, who has captured the perspectives, raises these perspectives to a higher abstraction level. Typically grounded theorists begin with general research questions (Charmaz, 1990)

CGT – Constructivist Grounded Theory. The constructivist, evolved form of GT draws upon traditional GT features and processes, but admits the researcher to adjust the process according to the need placed by the researcher and the researcher's choice of ontological and epistemological stance-points.

SSM - Soft Systems Methodology. SSM is a qualitative actions research methodology within management science that adopts a systems thinking and futures approach. It sets out to solve real life problems, departing from "the future" in clarifying current issues. Therefore it is a creative method, which lets its participants, the problem owners, construct solutions to problems in deciding on meaningful action in a situation. It draws upon constructivist assumptions in assuming that we can create our own future. It is "an organized way of tackling messy situations in the real world" (Checkland, 1999:1). It is flexible and broad in scope. It provides with a "methodology for operating the endless cycle from experience to purposeful action" (ibid:4). Is basic though is "to formulate some models which is hoped will improve the real-world situation, and use them by setting them against perceptions of the real world in a process of comparisons" (ibid 6). This way of structuring the action process was used in case II of this study, and the empirical material of the process was analysed following

constructivist GT procedures, as a continuation on case I. (Thus exploring the same issue in a similar context but different setting).

SL - Service Logic. This view represents the Nordic School approach to service research. It emphasises that the customers create the value for themselves and the firm can facilitate in this value creation, in particular during interactions with the firm, when also co-creation might occur (Grönroos, 2011). It sees service as a mediating factor in customers' value-creation processes. This view also emphasise the importance of employees as a part-time marketers during service activities, and thus as possible value facilitators. From a managerial point of view internal marketing is emphasised within the SL discourse. It also emphasises that suppliers should make active use of existing interactions with its customers, and even create more of these interactions in relation to the following goal of marketing:

"The goal for marketing is to engage the supplier with significant customer practices and contribute to value creation in those practices, in a mutually beneficial way (Grönroos and Ravald 2010).

SDL – Service Dominant Logic of marketing. A current marketing research stream in the worldwide marketing community, initially initiated by Vargo and Lusch (see Vargo and Lusch, 2004a and 2004b). This view to marketing adopts a service-centric philosophy, and takes a meta perspective on services. It emphasizes co-creation of value, and sees the service system as the appropriate analyses unit. It sees services as a configuration of resources, including people, information and technology. It adopts a resource-based view on employees (which inherently is passive and static) and employees' role in value co-creation is discussed only briefly without subject position. Even if "it" (the employee resource) is granted agency when mentioned as an operant resource it is, in the discussions, treated as an operand resource that customers can integrate in their value-creation. The tone of discussing employees is managerialistic and objectifying.

HSL - the Human Service Logic. A service logic introduced based on the findings of this study. It suggests six principles as the underpinnings of co-active managing of value practices. It considers employees and their motivation as essential in value creation and formation. It adopts a humanistic stance and a co-active mode to managing value practices. It places human interaction at centre and emphasises the role of active human interaction in contact-points (service encounters) and employees as pivotal value facilitators in these. In particular it pays attention to employees' experiences in customer interaction, and employees' role in not only keeping promises but all the aspects of the TPF. It argues that employees have an important role as enablers towards management, in subject positions as active and knowledgeable and as value facilitators towards customers. This logic underpins the PI-model. This logic is suggested as parallel to the other current prevailing logics. Drawing in particular upon the SL view, the HSL suggests an alteration towards a more de-managerialized, practice-based logic that fully appreciates the input of employees considering their view on motivation. It draws upon the idea of integrating experiences and co-active power sharing.

IM 1 – Internal Marketing. IM is a subfield to service research. The term was coined as an umbrella concept for internal activities and processes required for developing a service orientation, a service culture and an interest in marketing inside the firm. It was initially derived from the notion of employees as the internal market. It operates as a holistic management philosophy and process, which purpose is to ensure customer consciousness among employees and prepare and motivate employees to act in a service-oriented manner. It should be an integral part of strategic management. It

consists of two processes, communication and attitude management. Involving employees in planning and decision-making is emphasised. IM starts from top-management. IM is not the same as HR. IM offers strategic guidance to HR on how to use HR tools in line with strategic customer issues. It refers to the enabling aspect of the TPF (Grönroos, 2000). IM as defined by Ahmed and Rafiq (2002:10): Internal marketing is a planned effort using marketing-like approach directed at motivating employees, for implementing and integrating organizational strategies towards customer orientation".

IM 2 – As defined in this study: The purpose of IM is to enable the firm to live up to its value promises congruently; ensuring that what is promised in all the firm's communication is possible to live up to in value practices. Living up to value promises occurs by co-active managing of value practices and co-active enabling of resources that employees require (to live up to promises) in value practices.

This definition on IM draws upon the HSL and is expressed in the PI-model. It grants agency to co-workers by adopting a humanistic and capability-based view. It notes employees' experiences as valuable input in co-active managing. It suggests co-workers, i.e., employees' and managers' joints efforts to ensure that systemic consciousness of promises is integrated throughout the firm. Developing service and social competences is emphasises as an aspect of IM in this definition. This definition of IM pays in particular attention to employee motivation, drawing on their experiences.

PI Model – The Promise Integration Model. The PI-model is a suggestive, eclectic framework drawing upon the HSL and expresses an employee discourse on motivation in a service context. It is an adapted and extended version of the promise management TPF model. The PI suggests re-ordering and directing the triadic giving, keeping and enabling TPF into a pentagonal constellation by adding a co-mode to all its aspects and suggesting two additional aspects, co-active managing and systemic consciousness of promises. It depicts the TPF as a constellation from a practical, systemic and service employee angle. It draws upon humanistic co-workership and introduces a new perspective on the TPF model. It reorders, reorients and reframes it from promise management to a dynamic promise-living perspective, directed by human principles.

APPENDIX 6 DISCOURSE ANALYSES ON IM

List of analysed articles

A1	Antecedents of internal marketing practice: some preliminary empirical evidence	Gounaris,	International Journal of Service Industry Management. Vol. 19, No 3, 2008 pp. 400-434
A2	Internal Networks for Internal Marketing	Ballantyne, D.	Journal of Marketing Management, 1997, 13 pp. 343-366
A2b	INTERNAL MARKETING, COLLABORATION AND MOTIVATION IN SERVICE QUALITY	Ballantyne, D.	This paper draws in part on material from Christopher, M., Payne, A., and Ballantyne, D., Relationship Marketing, to be published by Heinemann, London, in 1991
A3	Internal service barometers Conceptualization and empirical results of a pilot study in Switzerland	Bruhn, M.	European Journal of Marketing Vol. 37 No. 9, 2003 pp. 1187-1204
A4	Internal marketing issues and challenges	Ahmed, P. and Rafiq, M.	European Journal of Marketing Vo. 37. No.9, 2003
A4b	Advances in the internal marketing concept: definition, synthesis and extentions	Ahmed, P. and Rafique, M.	Journal of Services Marketing, Vol. 14 No. 2, 2000, pp. 449-462
A5	Internal Marketing: a means for creating a sales or marketing orientation? The case of UK retail banks	Papasolomou, I.	Journal of Marketing Communications 8 pp. 87-100 (2002)
A6	2006: Can internal marketing be implemented within bureaucratic organisations?	Papasolomou, I.	International Journal of Bank Marketing Vol. 24 No. 3, 2006 pp. 194-212
A7	The Role of Leaders in Internal Marketing	Jan Wieseke, Michael Ahearne, Son K. Lam, & Rolf van Dick	Journal of Marketing Vol. 73 (March 2009), 123–145
A8	(2004) Dialogue and its role in the development of relationship specific knowledge	Ballantyne, D. (2004).	Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing Vol. 19. Number 2, 2004. Pp. 114-12 Print
A9	(2001) The impact of internal marketing	Bansal, A., Mendelson, M.;	Journal of Quality Management, Vol. 6 pp. 61-76

	activities on external marketing outcomes	Sharma, B.	
A10	Study internal marketing for better impact	Schultz, D.	Marketing News, Vol. 36. Issue 2002
A11	Integrating internal marketing with participative management	Davis, T.	Management Decisions 39/2 (2001) pp. 121-130
A12	Internal marketing: a qualitative study of culture change in the UK banking sector:	Kelemen *et al*	2007
A13	Fostering corporate entrepreneurship through internal marketing	Leonidas A. Zampetakis and Vassilis Moustakis	European Journal of Innovation Management Vol. 10 No. 4, 2007 pp. 413-433
A14	Achieving a customer orientation using "people-power" the 5th P	Judd, V.	European Journal of Marketing Vol. 37 No. 10 2003 pp. 1301-1313
A15	Exploring the relationship between corporate, internal and employer branding	Carley Foster, Khanyapuss Punjaisri and Ranis Cheng	Journal of Product & Brand Management 19/6 (2010) 401–409 Emerald Group Publishing Limited [
A16	Service Management and Marketing; Managing Internal Marketing: a Prerequisite for Successfully Managing Customer Relationships	Grönroos, C.	John Wiley & Sons, Ltd. England. Chapter 14, pp. 330-553
17	Internal Marketing Tools and concepts for customer focused management	Ahmed, P. and Rafiq, M.	Book: Butterworth-Heinemann An imprint of Elsevier Science, Oxford GB
18	Intersvqual, an integral adaption of the Gap model in large service organizations	Frost, F. and Kumar, M	Journal of Services Marketing, Vol. 14, Issue No. 5, 2000, pp. 358-377
19	A market driven approach to business development and service improvement in the hospitality industry	Bowen, J. (1997)	International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management 9/7 pp. 334-344
20	A Broadened conception of Internal marketing	Varey, R. and Lewis, B.	European Journal of Marketing, 1999, Vol. 33, Issue 9/10
21	Customer orientation of service employees Its impact on customer satisfaction,	Henning-Thurau, T.	International Journal of Service Industry Management Vol. 15 No. 5, 2004

	commitment, and retention.		
A22	THE BRAND INSIDE: THE FACTORS OF FAILURE AND SUCCESS IN INTERNAL BRANDING	Mahnert, K. & Torres, A.	Irish Marketing Review Volume Number Vol.19, No 4, 2007 pp 413-433
23	Internal branding: Exploring the employee's perspective	King, C., and Grace, D.	Journal of Brand Management (2008) **15,** 358–372.
A24	Captivating company: dimensions of attractiveness in employer branding	Berthon, P.; Ewing, M.; Hah, Li, L.	The International Journal of Advertising, Vol. 24 No 2, 2005 pp.151-192
25	Building an internal marketing management calculus	Schultz Don E.	Interactive Marketing. VOL. 6 NO. 2 PP 111–129. OCTOBER/DECEMBER 2004
26	The role of internal branding in the delivery of employee brand promise	Punjaisri, K., Wilson, A.	BRAND MANAGEMENT VOL. 15, NO. 1, 57–70 SEPTEMBER 2007
27	The Buy-in Benchmark: How Staff Understanding and Commitment Impact Brand and Business Performance	Thomson, K., de Chernatony, L., Arganbright, L., Khna, S.	Journal of Marketing Management, 1999, 15 pp. 819-835
A28	Why Internal Branding Matters: The Case of Saab	Bergstrom, A., Blumentahl, D., Crothers, S.	Corporate reputation Review Vol.5, No 2/3, 2002 pp. 133-142 Print
A29	More than a name change – internal branding at Pearl	Zucker, R.	Scm vol 6, issue 4 June/July 2002 pp. 24-27
A30	Customer Orientation of Service Employees	Hennig-Thurau, T.	International Journal of Service Industry Management Vol. 15 No 5, 2004
A31	Selling the brand inside. You tell your customers what makes you great. Do your employees know?	Mitchell, C.	Harvard business review. January 2002 Vol. 80, Issue 1 pp 99-110
A32	Beware pitfalls that kill branding efforts	Matchtiger, B.	Marketing News 2004 Vol. 38, Issues 4
A33	Building a Service Brand: Stages, People and orientations	De Chernatony, L.; Drury, S.; Segal-Horn, S.	The Service industries Journal. Vol. 23, N. 3 (may 2003). pp. 1-21
A34	Building brand community	Devasagayam, R. and Buff, C., 2010	Journal of Product and Brand Management 19/3 (2010) pp.

	membership within organizations		210-217
A35	Practice papers Inside out: How employees build value	Ind, N. 2003	Brand Management Vol. 10. No 6. Pp 393-402. August 2003

APPENDIX 7 ANALYSES EXTRACTS , APPENDIX TO SECTION 4.2.3

Questions asked the texts:
Q1: How does the text discuss IM/IB, as a method, program, perspective, metaphor?
Q2: How does the text discuss the purpose/function of IM?
Q3: Why is IM needed?
Q4: Who is responsible for IM?
Q5: How does the text discuss employees in general?
Q6: What does the text say about employee motivation?
Q7: What position(s) in value practices does the IM discourse ascribe service employees?
Q8: How are employees suggested to be treated/managed, what should be done to/with/ together with them?
Q9: What in relation to employees/about employees is excluded from the text?
Q10: Are employees addressed as subjects or objects?

A1 Perspective Objects/resource	Antecedents of internal marketing practice: some preliminary empirical evidence, Gounaris, 2008

Q1: A program. An IM program would thus aim to understand what such employees (right kind of employees) value and try to become responsive to their needs in order to increase the organizations attractiveness as potential employer to the specific segment of future employees who share such characteristics as openness and extroversion (404) "actions such as employee attraction and selection, employee socialization, empowerment, participation in decision making and establishment of accurate and open information between employees and management. (404)"
Q2: The firm's ability to keep its promise is highly dependent on extent to which service employees are customer conscious and also satisfied with their job. To increase the company's service effectiveness (404). Academia considers the application of marketing internally to be analogous to the principles that govern the way a company applies marketing externally (Berry, 1987; Green et al 1994, quoted in Gounaris, 2008: 415)
Q3: A way to overcome this barrier (employees negative influence on market orientation) is the implementation of IM programs: employees. IM is crucial in fostering market-driven organizational capabilities (425). To develop customer consciousness among employees (415). If marketing is practiced without IM it become marketing malpractice (416)
Q4: The organization, marketing function
Q5: Service employees are reported to influence negatively the development of a market orientation hindering thus the service company's effort to become more customer centric(400). Employees may resist change which may deter a company from offering superior service. This may be explained by the lack of training or ignorance or they feel they may loose political power. (402). "When discussing the management of salespeople in general, achieving high levels of sales personnel satisfaction with their job is an important function for the marketing department (414).
Q6: Not all employees are equally enthusiastic with the idea of making the extra effort that is frequently necessary in order to meet customers' expectations. Certain personality characteristics influence the employees' tendency to be customer oriented. Employees who lack, for instance extroversion and openness can hardly be genuinely customer oriented. (402)

Q7: Important, but the may hinder the firm to become customer centric
Q8: listening to their (employees) needs. Fulfilling their needs with IM programs. Recruiting the right people
Q9: *What (employees') needs in particular are to be fulfilled? Employees' experiences, gender issues.*
Q10: *Employees addressed as objects (managed "management of salespeople")*
C: Objectifies and assumes that management promotes a service climate and employees who lack openness and extroversion cannot be genuinely customer centric.

A2 E as Capabilities, subjects (implicit)	Internal Networks for Internal Marketing Ballantyne, D. 1997 Employees Perceptions of process. Knowledge renewal is explored, notes employees experiences of their motives (for specific service/change issues). Aim is to further understanding of the IM-process. Places employees in first order positions as to their experiences of service/change.

Q1: An organizational activity which is said to improve external market performance (pp.343)
Q2: Required for: Implementing marketing strategies (343) where organizational behaviour is challenged to match customer requirements (ibid)
Q3: There is more to improving service than improving the quality of front-line staff. Many service managers, through experiment and experience, now realise that reliable service at the customer interface depends on the quality of the support system in place as well (344). Internal communication and a need for motivated and customer consciousness employees (345).
Q4: Management, outcome depends on legitimacy of purposes (of IM)
Q5: Active individuals.
Q6: "There is little evidence in the literature to suggest how internal marketing develops or motivates customer conscious employees, or contributes to external market performance (346). Identified individuals' own values and motives, and the commonalties of their hopes and fears (350). "In the changes process the idea was that volunteers would find their own motivation for involvement and in so doing they would contribute to their own self development and to customer service improvement." (351) *Implies intrinsic/individual motives, and self-development relating to motivation.*
Q7:-
Q8: Employees as active subjects in "Internal marketing modes connect in a complementary ways as a relationship development process, and internal networks enable discovery of new knowledge and transfer knowledge (364)
Q9: (gender noted but not analysed)
Q10 Employees subjects in IM process. IM: consistis of 4 modes of knowledge creation, which also enables internal relationship development.

A2b Subjects	INTERNAL MARKETING, COLLABORATION AND MOTIVATION IN SERVICE QUALITY: Ballantyne, D. ;1991

Q1: ""Internal marketing is any form of marketing within an organization which focuses staff attention on the internal activities that need to be changed in order that marketing plans may be implemented" (pp 2)
"The Internal Marketing task might further extend to
empowering and enabling internal customers and internal suppliers to get together in quality review teams" (pp2).
Q2: "Internal Marketing as a concept can be extended to involve creating and organizational climate where cross-functional quality improvement can be sponsored and worked on by the staff whose job tasks are involved" (pp.10)
Q3:If quality is not 'built in' to the delivery systems, variations in the process are

experienced by customers as poor or inconsistent service at the front counter (pp:)
Q4: *management*
Q5: "Arguably, we are all prisoners of the process. Most of the time staff 'act-in' rather than 'act-on' the system"
Q6: **'**value searching" if the 'Customer First' mission is largely congruent with individual personal values, there is motiv(ation) for action." (13)A further value motive is the prospect of personal growth, something that many people have not considered. So adding up the opportunities for self growth, practical and fulfilling approaches to work, and a focus on the customer (pp 13)
Rewards are intended to lead behaviour in certain directions, or to reinforce existing behaviour. Under what customer service conditions do rewards actually motivate staff? (pp17) & "Theories on rewards-motivation are anchored historically in the economic rationalism of the scientific management theorists and are often unhelpful. It is nonetheless true that top management can quickly get across their own priorities, values and assumptions by consistently linking rewards and punishments to the behaviour they want to encourage. (17)
'Quality' is a motivator so long as the quality improvement process is seen to be customer orientated, an opportunity to test one's personal limits, and in so doing contribute to the organisation's success (17)
Motivators: Value searching, personal growth, rewards, quality
Q7: "What constitutes 'performance' is the sum of the performance processes for which staff are the agents. Certainly 'front line' service staff must perform well and need education in customer service skills. This is an important Internal Marketing function. However, efforts to improve 'front line' service performance by improving staff 'customer service' training add cost, not value, unless the design of work activities, the environment in which service is delivered, and the work processes involved are also targeted for quality improvement, part of a continuous diagnostic review" (pp8) (see Figure 2).
Q8: "When staff participate in the quality improvement process, the beneficiaries are the staff, as well as shareholders and customers". (pp 4)
Q9: *Explicit discussion of employees experiences of the process (IM-process is the unit of analyses). Gender as an issue*
Q10 A dialogic approach. Sees (all) employees as subjects in dialog and knowledge creation

A3 Objects	Internal service barometers: Conceptualization and empirical results of a pilot study in Switzerland Bruhn, M., 2003, developed a NSSI (Internal service satisfaction index)

Q1: *Provides with a performance management tool.* This paper deals with services provided within an organization, outlining a model to measure internal customer satisfaction and perceptions of internal quality. Adapting the concept of the service profit chain which is used still frequently to illustrate the relationship between external customer satisfaction and economic success, this article proposes that the external service quality can be attained only after internal performance prerequisites have been investigated and
Q2: "quality provided by other parts of the organization, the purpose (of this paper) is to introduce an integrated measurement model, namely the internal service barometer, for identifying and measuring such factors as well as for demonstrating how the findings may be
applied to generate internal customer orientation." (1188).
Q3: Internal service: "Therefore, monitoring internal customer satisfaction is an essential prerequisite both for improving internal supplier-customer relationships and for attaining higher external customer satisfaction, retention, and long-term financial success" (1190). For managing and controlling internal customer orientation (1199)
Q4*: Employees should be satisfied with internal service*

Q5: The comparison of satisfaction indices provides information that can be used for internal segmentation or benchmarking.
Q6: Nothing
Q7: Not discussed
Q8: *To/Done With/ implies that employees are a resource to be managed*: In the corporate world, on the other hand, the primary task is to implement a comprehensive system for
controlling performance. Internal service barometers can provide a company with most such answers it needs, thereby offering a means for improving both internal and external customer orientation". (pp.1201)
Q9: *Experiences measures workers and employees' perceptions ten items that underpin internal service quality of internal (adapted form national service indexes US, Sweden and Switzerland). Gender. Motivation. Employees as actors and subjects.*
Q10: Objectifying

A7 Objects	The Role of Leaders in Internal Marketing, 2009 Jan Wieseke, Michael Ahearne, Son K. Lam, & Rolf van Dick, USA

Q1: IM is the fundamentally a process in which leaders instill into followers a sense of oneness with the organization (123). However "There is little empirical research on internal marketing despite its intuitive appeal and anecdotal accounts of its benefits"
Q2: Philosophy, activities, communication (139) – should focus on contaminating follower with OI (a psychological state that is susceptible to fluctuations) charisma – a trait
Q3: "As long as people have the need to enhance self-esteem, which forms the basis for social identification, actions aimed at raining the organizational identification of both managers and employees should enhance the delivery of the company promise to both internal and external customers
Q4: - *charismatic leaders, in practice, by instilling OI in followers*
Q5: Assumes that: "What leaders do, think and feel should have a profound impact on followers" (126). BU managers influence on Customer-Contact employees OI (Model pp 127). Organizational identity is important in boundary-spanning context (pp.139), but middle management's role is often neglected (ibid). "Followers may resist change efforts such as sales territory alignment", salesperson's OI with the firm might increase the likelihood that he or she will readily accept the change" (140)
Q6: Leaders should create, enact and perpetuate "the motivational drive for meaning" 139 "Charismatic leaders have a profound influence on followers' attitudes and behaviour, ranging from heightened motivation, trust in leaders, and low role conflict " (126). *Leaders influence followers to be motivated, by instilling OI-*
Q7: *Not the issue, presumed important.*
Q8*: Employees are strongly influenced by leaders. Draws upon a hierarchal view and partition in us-them; leaders-followers. Drawing on van Kippenbers et al. 2004 they claim that*: "Leaders who identify strongly with the organization actively strive to enhance the status of their group and to fulfil collective goals, even in the absence of personal benefits. The leaders group-oriented actions will be perceived by the follower as evidence of the values of the organization and therefore enhance followers OI" 127. This draws " upon emotional contagion; someone catching the emotion being experienced by another, wherein the emotion of the receiver converges with that of the sender". This can occur on both conscious and subconscious levels.
Ascribe leaders power: Leaders are powerful in their position and can by their behaviour and emotions order by contamination employees subjectivity towards OI (instill into employees); this leaders are thought to be able to contaminate the minds of their follower, i.e. employees, both positively and negatively. Meaning creates the ling between individual and organizational identities (139).

Q9*: Employees experiences (survey, hypotheses testing), gender*
Q10: Objectifies strongly. Leaders are in the position of being able to order employees subjectivity towards OI by contaminating emotions and mental models by communicating mostly to employees. Followers are under the managers' hegemony.

A23 Subject E's as Capa-bilities	Internal branding: Exploring the employee's perspective: This article explores the differential effect that internally oriented initiatives have on an organisation's human capital and its subsequent impact on the organisation's brand, from the employee's perspective. King, C., and Grace, D. 2008 .

Employee perspective, internal market orientation (IMO)
Rq 3(4):"What factors are considered by employees to be necessary for them to successfully deliver their organisation's brand promise?
Explores how organisations engender an IMO.
Q1: adoption of internal oriented initiatives (4), directed at employees improving service quality and bringing the brand to life, is advocated.
Q2:Internal brand management is argued as being such a resource that engages and inspires employees to deliver the brand promise, and, therefore, deliver a competitive advantage
Q3: Enables the firm to deliver its brand promise
Q4: The organization, management
Q5: Employees as Capabilities, Experiences
Q6: (in order to create a synergy or bond between the employee and the organisation that (care for/commitment) is considered significant enough for the employee to not only be able to, but more importantly, motivated to deliver the brand promise, a more broader or richer approach to knowledge creation is required. Such an approach acknowledges an employee's 'need' to go beyond ability, to encapsulate attitude (how the employee feels about
what they are doing), as well as awareness (employee comprehension as to what they are supposed to be doing)
- a consistent theme flowing through all critical factors, that being, the adoption of **humanitarian approach to employees** (necessary to deliver the brand promises)
    - wanting to inspire employees require the communication of clear **goals that are personal and immediate in order for employees to engage**.

a broader or holistic approach to IMO through increased employee commitment and emotional attachment to the brand serves as the basis for motivating employees to want to deliver the brand promise and, in turn, frames how to foster a working environment that retains, as well as attracts, prospective employees
Q7: "Through the internalisation of the brand, employees are better equipped to fulfill the explicit and implicit promises inherent in the brand and, therefore, expected by customers".
Q8**: cared for**: that the adoption of a traditional human resource approach to the development of skills and knowledge i.e. training, within an organisation is insufficient. Concern for an employees ability (how the employee is supposed to do their job) to perform, is often all that is considered important, or all that employees 'needs', to do their job effective
Q9: Gender
Q10: *Subjects cared for*

A24 Exp. subjects	Captivating company: dimensions of attractiveness in employer branding Berthon, P.; Ewing, M.; Hah, Li, L Studied employer the attractiveness construct, and students experiences

Q1: Themes such as 'internal advertising' and 'internal branding' have recently entered the marketing lexicon. One component of internal marketing that is still

underdeveloped
is 'employer branding' and specifically 'employer attractiveness'. Pp 151
Q2: "In fact, Kotler (1994) defines internal marketing as 'the task of successfully hiring, training and motivating able employees to serve the customer well'. The present study is concerned primarily with the successful 'hiring of employees' in Kotler's (1994) definition". Pp 151
Q3: "Examines how astute employers can embrace the principles and practices associated with external brand management and marketing communication, internally. In other words, it extends beyond the HRM notion of recruitment advertising (Gatewood et al. 1993) and considers how firms might assess the degree to which they are considered to be 'employers of choice' and in the process, attract the
highest-calibre employees". Pp. 152
"We define 'employer attractiveness' as the envisioned benefits that a potential employee sees in working for a specific organisation. The construct may be thought of as an antecedent of the more general concept of employer brand equity". Pp 156
"Employees are becoming central to the process of brand building and their behaviour can either reinforce a brand's advertised values or, if inconsistent with these values, undermine the credibility of advertised messages.
"It is therefore important to consider how employees' values and behaviour can be aligned with a brand's desired values" (Harris & de Chernatony 2001)". Pp 153
Q4: It is often considered simply as a motivation or reward programme, often within the province of sales, brand and product managers, HR and motivation people. That is
tactical, not strategic, work. Thus most senior managers shy away from being involved except for providing some resources and tacit approval of programmes. For the most part, IM often gets little visible senior management support. While many senior managers agree that IM is important, there appear to be few who actively champion the cause. Thus most senior managers shy away from being involved except for providing some resources and tacit approval of programmes.
Q5: One of the major issues with IM is that it is often difficult for employees, particularly those who are not 'customer facing', to understand how IM affects them, their jobs, the customer or the organisation. A 'pull-and pack' worker in an order delivery department may never ever see a customer of the firm. The same is true for IT, maintenance, product
sourcing managers and the like. Thus it is often difficult for them to understand that the work they perform, the activities they conduct and the responsibilities they have are even related to customer satisfaction and customer loyalty. Further, when the focus of the organisation is on
efficiency and cost cutting, even customer-touching employees find it difficult to relate to customer-focused programmes. Witness the customer service centre where, in too many cases, customer service representatives are rewarded on the number of calls they handle per hour, not on the number of customers satisfied. *Difficulty lies in employees understanding???*
Q6: *Nothing other than "IM perceived simply as a motivation program"*
Q7: Not discussed
Q8: "Thus, just as marketing is seen as being too important to be left only to marketers, so too human resources is seen to be too important to be left solely to the HR function". "As organisations seek both to attract new employees and retain existing staff, employment advertising and employment branding will grow in importance". Pp 167 *Employees as Human resource*
Q9: *Gender, Motivation, employees experiences of*
Q10: *Objects. Treats employees as an operand resource (the quantity on which an operation is to be done)*

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HELENA LIEWENDAHL

WHAT MOTIVATES EMPLOYEES TO LIVE UP TO VALUE PROMISES: AN EMPLOYEE DISCOURSE

Motivation is a popular notion in today's worklife. Employees, in particular those who work in traditional customer service, should be motivated to care for their customers. Service literature assumes that managers are able to order subjectivity towards employees and see to it that employees are motivated. This study deviates from this viewpoint by adopting a humanistic and systemic stance. It sees motivation as an intrinsic process, and employees as active subjects in worklife as well as owners of their motivation. It takes an employee perspective as it sets out to explore their motivation to live up to value promises.

Value promises is another topical concept. Currently, companies promise all kinds of things that should enhance customers' value formation. Often these promises deviate from what actually occurs in service encounters, and psychological contracts such as value, brand and service promises are broken. Currently employees do, despite the increase of e-services, have a substantial role in delivering promises. The more complex and abstract the promise is, such as "the best service", the more is required of employees to live up to it. The more emotion work embedded in the promise, the more important motivation for living up to it becomes.

Taking value practices, i.e., service encounters and firm internal practices underpinning these as its locus, this study explored employees' experiences by identifying issues that employees found having an impact on their work in customer interface, and thus influencing their motivation. A number of demotivating as well as motivating factors were identified: Too abstract marketing ideas and fuzzy promises, as well as a paternalistic and objectifying stance towards employees do impinge motivation negatively. Truthful authentic promises that reflect value practices as they are, and employees having agency to participate not only in delivering, but also in enabling and giving promises, to name a few, were found to have a positive impact on motivation. By noting these factors, this study strives to widen our understanding of the mechanisms that underpin employee motivation in a service context.

The thesis suggests a Human Service Logic (HSL) as a new paradigmatic perspective to service research, parallel to the other current prevailing service logics. As central to employee motivation, the HSL emphasises *social- and service competences*. Drawing upon the three promises framework a *promise integration* (PI) model is suggested. The PI model introduces a new perspective on the TPF model; reordering, reorienting, and reframing it from promise management, governed mainly by managerial control, norms, and procedure, to a dynamic promise-living perspective, directed by human principles and co-active managing of value practices. The HSL framework, and its PI model, describes an employee discourse on motivation in a service context.

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