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Employer attractiveness

A quantitative survey of preferences among
Swedish civil engineering students regarding future employers

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Abstract

The purpose of this thesis is to measure the importance of different factors that contribute to employer attractiveness among students. Further, its purpose is to measure how those same students perceive a case company, Ramböll, relating to those same factors. The method used to satisfy this purpose is a quantitative survey among Swedish civil engineering students at three Swedish universities, Uppsala Tekniska Högskola, Luleå Tekniska Högskola and Chalmers Tekniska Högskola. The survey got a response rate of 19% and the results show that the majority of the respondents think that factors such as learning opportunities, self development and independence are most important for employer attractiveness. Further, the respondents perceives Ramböll as a company that offers challenging and interesting tasks, but does not offer high salaries and is not a high status organisation.

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1. Introduction

In today's labour market, there is a greater need to find the right person for the right job than there has been before, and the specific competencies of the individual employee are becoming more significant. At the same time, people with in demand competencies have greater possibilities to choose between different jobs. In order to tempt the most competent individuals, firms therefore need to position themselves as attractive employers. This positioning is broadly termed employer branding. The term employer branding was first coined by Ambler and Barrow in 1996, when they defined an employer brand as "*The package of functional, economic and psychological benefits provided by employment, and identified with the employing company*"¹.

In order to work effectively with an employer branding strategy, it is important to be able to evaluate how well the strategy achieves its targets. To do this, we must have a method for measuring how attractive an employer is. Two branches of employer attractiveness can be distinguished. First, it is important to know how attractive the employer is among the company's current employees. This could be called internal employer attractiveness. Second, it is equally important to be able to measure how attractive the employer is in the eyes of prospective future employees. This second branch can be called external employer attractiveness. This branch can be further subdivided into two categories. First, we have external employer attractiveness from the viewpoint of experts with experience in the field. Second, we have external employer attractiveness from the viewpoint of novices, predominantly students. Novices do not possess expert knowledge, but on the other hand, they bring certain other useful characteristics. They are cheap since they don't demand as much payment as experts, they are easy to mould into what the company needs and finally they usually have a fresh perspective on things.

1.1 Problem

The problem for this thesis is thus narrowed down to deal with the problem of measuring the employer attractiveness among novices among potential future co-workers. These novices among potential future co-workers are assumed to be made up of students.

¹ Ambler T. & Barrow S., 1996, *The employer brand*, Journal of Brand Management, vol. 4, pp. 185–206.

1.2 Purpose

The purpose of this thesis is to measure the importance of different factors that contribute to employer attractiveness among students. Further, we intend to measure how those same students perceive a case company relating to those same factors.

1.3 Delimitations

In addition to the delimitations to our thesis that were introduced in the problem section, we will further delimit our population to consist of students within civil engineering programs, since those are the students who are relevant as prospective future employees for our case company. The survey will be made in three of the seven largest universities in Sweden.

1.4 Case company

The case company in this study is Ramböll which is one of the largest consultancies in Scandinavia. They have about 6500 employees and have 140 offices world wide. The most of their activity is related to the infrastructure business which include larger constructions project from start to goal.

2. Theory

In order to achieve an understanding of what factors motivate students to perceive one employer as more attractive than another, or to choose one job rather than another, we need to understand the fundamental aspects of human motivation, as well as how different drives and needs can influence our choice of employer. Therefore, in this section, we will consider needs-based theories of motivation.

2.1 Motivation theories

This thesis will make use of the definitions of the terms motivation and needs from McShane and Von Glinow. They define the terms motivation and needs in the following way.

Motivation def. = *“The forces within a person that affect his or her direction, intensity and persistence of voluntary behaviour”*

Needs def. = *“Deficiencies that energize or trigger behaviours to satisfy those needs”*²

However, we will make one small correction to the definition of the term needs. In their definition of the term needs, McShane and Von Glinow make use of the very concept they are trying to define. We don't consider it proper to use the term that is supposed to be defined in the definition itself, since in this case, if you don't understand the term that is defined, you won't understand the definition either. Therefore our definition of the term needs will be.

Needs def. = *“Deficiencies that energize or trigger behaviours to overcome those deficiencies”*

The connection between needs and motivation is that when a person has a need, he will be motivated to satisfy that need.³

2.1.1 Maslow's needs hierarchy

The needs hierarchy theory of American psychologist Abraham Maslow is one of the best known and most widely cited theories of motivation. According to Maslow, humans have

² McShane S. L. & Von Glinow M. A., 2005, *Organizational Behaviour*, McGraw-Hill/Irwin, New York, pp. 140

³ McShane S. L. & Von Glinow M. A., 2005, pp. 140.

instinctive needs that are hard-wired into human nature. These needs are structured in a hierarchy of five levels. These five levels are

1. *Physiological* – biological needs such as the need for food, water and air, without which one would not survive.
2. *Safety* – needs such as the need for security, stability and health.
3. *Social* – this includes needs for love and belongingness.
4. *Esteem* – includes both self-esteem as well as social esteem received from others.
5. *Self-actualization* – constant development of one's own personality and fulfilment of one's potential.

These five levels are listed from lowest to highest, and the theory is that people are inclined to be motivated to satisfy needs from lower categories first. Maslow's theory further states that even though people are motivated to fulfil needs belonging to several of these levels at the same time, we are primarily motivated by needs which relates to the lowest unsatisfied category. As needs from the lower levels become satisfied, people tend to become increasingly motivated to fulfil needs from a higher category. The only level that stands out among the five is the highest one – *Self-actualization*. Maslow states that needs on this level do not become saturated, but instead people just want more and more of self-fulfilment. The critique against Maslow's theory includes that it is too rigid and static and that the needs of people are in fact more dynamic and changing than Maslow recognizes. It has also been argued that needs do not cluster around these five categories and that satisfaction of one level of needs do not always lead to an increased motivation to satisfy needs in the next higher category.⁴

Relevance of Maslow's needs hierarchy to this thesis

Among the population of this study, that is, students in civil engineering programs in Sweden, we might be inclined to suppose that the most basic physical needs at the first level of Maslow's needs hierarchy are largely satisfied. However, the degree of need among students in our population to fulfil needs at all of the other four levels will be investigated. We will not, though, test or make use of Maslow's theory of progression to different levels, since we do not follow our population's development over time.

⁴ McShane S. L. & Von Glinow M. A., 2005, pp. 141

2.1.2 Alderfer's ERG theory

As a reaction to Maslow's theory, American psychologist Clayton Paul Alderfer modified Maslow's hierarchy into the following (from lowest to highest prioritized needs):

1. *Existence* which mainly corresponds to the two lowest categories in Maslow's theory, that is, physiological needs and safety needs.
2. *Relatedness* which is roughly the same as belongingness needs in Maslow's theory.
3. *Growth* which is basically the same as Maslow's categories of esteem and self-actualization.

According to Alderfer, these needs are hard-wired into human nature. Alderfer stated, as did Maslow, that although people can be motivated to satisfy needs of different categories at the same time, they tend to focus more on the lowest unsatisfied level. The major difference of Alderfer's theory compared to Maslow's is that Alderfer's ERG theory introduces a frustration-regression process. This means that if a person does not succeed at satisfying a need on one level, he will regress to trying to satisfy needs on a lower level. Alderfer's theory has received greater empirical support than Maslow's, both because human needs tend to cluster more around the levels introduced by Alderfer than around those that Maslow introduced and because the two-way process of satisfaction-progression and frustration-regression better describes how human motivation behaves. Still, Alderfer has come under criticism. The major points of this criticism have been that different persons have different needs hierarchies, and that a need hierarchy can even change over time for the same individual. To conclude, the major point of criticism against both Maslow and Alderfer has been that even though humans might have need hierarchies, they are not as hard-wired into human nature as Maslow and Alderfer suggest.⁵

Relevance of Alderfer's ERG theory to this thesis

We, the authors of this thesis, are of the opinion that Alderfer's ERG theory in a useful way builds on the foundation that Maslow's need hierarchy laid out. The ERG theory gives us an even stronger case for investigating the needs of our respondents for relatedness and growth. Again, we are assuming that the existence needs are largely satisfied among our population.

⁵ McShane S. L. & Von Glinow M. A., 2005, pp. 141

However, we will not study any progression-regression mechanisms, since we only take a snapshot of our populations needs right now, and do not study the development of our populations needs over time.

2.1.3 Herzberg's two-factor theory

Another reaction to Maslow's needs hierarchy was Herzberg's two-factor theory of job satisfaction. Herzberg differentiated two categories of factors that influence people. The first of these categories consists so called of motivator factors, and the second is called hygiene factors.

- *Motivator factors*
 - Achievement
 - Recognition
 - Work itself
 - Responsibility
 - Career opportunities
 - Development
- *Hygiene factors*
 - Pay and benefits
 - Company policy and administration
 - Relationships with co-workers
 - Physical Environment
 - Supervision
 - Status
 - Job security

The motivator factors are mainly linked with the higher levels of needs in Maslow's and Alderfer's theories, such as esteem and growth. These factors determine an employee's job satisfaction. Hygiene factors lies outside the actual job tasks and are related to the lower levels of needs in Maslow's and Alderfer's theories. According to Herzberg, these factors can

provoke dissatisfaction, but they cannot motivate. Therefore, an employee's motivation cannot be affected by changing hygiene factors only.⁶

One major deficiency with Herzberg's theory is that factors that influence an employee are seldom either purely a motivator factor or purely a hygiene factor. Factors are usually not isolated but are dependent on each other. For example, career opportunities, which Herzberg lists among motivator factors, are often dependent on company policies and administration, which is listed as a hygiene factor. As another example, the factors achievement, recognition and development are all listed as motivator factors, but all these factors can be greatly influenced by relationships with co-workers, which is a hygiene factor according to Herzberg.

Another major deficiency with Herzberg's theory is that it hasn't found much research support. Still, Herzberg's theory has been important for the development of recent theories of job design and the job characteristics model, which will be examined in the next section.

Relevance of Herzberg's two-factor theory to this thesis

Herzberg's theory provides us with a strong fundament and structure for our investigation into factors of what makes an employer attractive. Together with those of Maslow and Alderfer, Herzberg's theory constitutes the foundation and background upon which much of the rest of our theory is built.

2.1.4 Innate human drives

Even though Maslow and Alderfer have come under criticism for their assertion that human needs are hard-wired into human nature, there is still a lot of research being made about innate human drives as the source of motivation. According to Harvard Business School professors Paul Lawrence and Nitkin Nohria, there are four fundamental innate human drives. These are the drives to acquire, to bond, to learn and to defend.

1. *The drive to acquire* includes the drive to seek, take control and retain both material objects and personal experiences. This is the basis for competition and peoples need for status and recognition.
2. *The drive to bond* is the drive to engage in social relationships and to form and retain connections to other humans.

⁶ Eriksson-Zetterquist U., Kalling T. & Styhre A., 2005, *Organisation och organisering*, Liber AB, Malmö, pp. 135

3. *The drive to learn* relates to our inherent need to understand ourselves as well as our environment.
4. *The drive to defend* ourselves as well as our friends, family and social group. This relates not only from protecting ourselves physically, but also to protect our possessions and belief systems.

The relationship between the innate drives and motivation is that we initially react emotionally on stimulus and our innate drives make us act quickly when there is a need for it. Our rational thinking works more slowly and will help us to correct our behaviour if we on deliberation perceive that there is a need for a different course of action from that decided on the basis of our emotions.⁷

Relevance of the theory of innate human drives to this thesis

With this theory as a basis, this thesis will investigate to which degree our population perceive the importance of status, recognition and competition (drive to acquire). It will also investigate the perceived importance of forming social relations and teamwork (drive to bond). Further, it will investigate the importance of having flexible tasks and development opportunities such as education (drive to learn). We will not use the “drive to defend” part of this theory in our study.

2.1.5 Theory of learned needs

Apart from innate needs we also have learned needs that we develop through our experience, upbringing and through social norms. The American psychologist David McClelland studied three important learned needs; need for achievement (nAch), need for affiliation (nAff) and need for power (nPow).

- *Need for Achievement (nAch)* refers to the need for taking on reasonably challenging mission and deliver a good result, as well as getting concrete feedback on performance. This need also makes us competitive.
- *Need for Affiliation (nAff)* denotes a need to be approved by people. People with a strong need for affiliation usually perform good in jobs with a high degree of social

⁷ Lawrence P. R. and Nohria N, *Driven: How human nature shapes our choices*, 2002. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco Ch. 4-7.

interaction such as various mediating roles or when conflict avoidance is called for. However, they are usually less effective in positions when they need to make decisions which can create conflicts such as allocating scarce resources.

- *Need for Power (nPow)* signifies a need for controlling both other people and material resources. They want to achieve this control to benefit both themselves and others such as the organization they belong to or their family and friends. It is common among leaders in various positions to have a strong need for power.⁸

Relevance of the theory of learned needs to this thesis

The theory of learned needs will support and motivate our investigations regarding our population's perception concerning the importance of three aspects. The first aspect is that of being put to challenging tasks and receiving unambiguous feedback on ones performance on those tasks (need for achievement). The second aspect is that of being able to form positive relationships with ones co-workers (need for affiliation). The third aspect is that of having the opportunity to rise in a career towards leading roles (need for power).

2.2 Job design

Job design is "*the process of assigning tasks to a job, including the interdependency if those tasks with other jobs*".⁹ Factors that can be used in designing a job are specialization, rotation, enlargement, enrichment and empowerment. In this section we will give accounts of each of these five important concepts, as well as a theory of job characteristics, and specify in which way they can be used in our overall purpose of finding out what our target group perceives as being the most important factors in a job.

2.2.1 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction represents a person's opinions of his or her working context. The term *job satisfaction* describes the perceived satisfaction with one's work environment, one's emotional feelings at work and how enjoying one's work is. Job satisfaction is really a collection of attitudes about specific facts of the job¹⁰. The difficulty in understanding this term is that it is dependent on each individual experience, so it is difficult to say what makes a

⁸ McShane S. L. & Von Glinow M. A., 2005, pp. 145

⁹ McShane S. L. & Von Glinow M. A., 2005, pp. 184

¹⁰ McShane S. L. & Von Glinow M. A., 2005, pp.122

person satisfied with the work. Different studies have been able to make a connection to different cultures and the job satisfaction in these cultures. According to some studies of American workers, between 30 - 50 percent would change work if they got offered a similar job with a slightly higher payment¹¹.

The meaning of money

There are different job design strategies to motivate employees. One parameter in those strategies is the salary or benefits. Money is not just an economic medium to describe the employment relationship. McShane and Von Glinow mean that money has a much deeper and more complex meaning. They compare this emotionally meaningful object to food and sex. Money is a parameter that affects our needs, our emotions and self-perception.

2.2.2 Job specialization

Job specialization is defined as *“the result of division of labour in which each job includes a subset of the tasks required to complete the product or service”*. One of the most prominent spokesmen of job specialization was the industrial engineer Fredrick Winslow Taylor. Talyor introduced what has been called scientific management in the early 1900s. Job specialization has a number of advantages.

1. Less overhead in changing tasks.
2. Fewer skills are required to perform the job so less resources need to be spent at training.
3. Specialized jobs are mastered more quickly.
4. Employees with specific skills can be matched more easily to the job that fits those best.

¹¹ McShane S. L. & Von Glinow M. A., 2005, pp.123

However, there are several drawbacks to job specialization.

1. Specialization can lead to tedious, trivial and socially isolating jobs.
2. Employees only see a small part of the process and are therefore incapable of comprehending the larger picture in which their work is situated. This in turn counteracts feelings of loyalty and purpose from the employee.
3. Specialized jobs tend to be less motivating.¹²

2.2.3 Job characteristics

The job characteristics model was developed by Hackman and Oldham in 1976. The theory was a reaction to Herzberg's two-factor theory. While Maslow's, Alderfer's and Herzberg's respective theories were structured into different separate categories, Hackman's and Oldham's job characteristics model is integrative and emphasize the need to conform the different categories to each other. The categories used in the job characteristics model are

- *Skill variety* – the employee performs different tasks that demand various skills and competencies.
- *Task identity* – the employee performs work that comprises a whole product from beginning to end.
- *Task significance* – the significance of the work to the organisation and/or to society at large.
- *Autonomy* – the degree to which the employee has independence to determine his work speed and methods.
- *Job feedback* – the employee gets unambiguous and relevant feedback of his performances.

According to the job characteristics model, employees tend to be more motivated and experience greater job satisfaction when their job characteristics score high on these factors.

The negative sides of the job characteristics model is that the factors listed above do not motivate every person all the time. For example, autonomy might have an adverse effect if the employee does not possess sufficient competence.¹³

¹² McShane S. L. & Von Glinow M. A., 2005, pp. 185

¹³ McShane S. L. & Von Glinow M. A., 2005, pp. 187.

2.2.4 Job rotation

Job rotation means that employees move around and perform different types of work at different places, with intervals that can range from a couple of hours to several weeks. The positive aspects of job rotation are that it prevents tediousness, it encourages employees to acquire several different competencies, and finally it reduces strain injuries from performing repetitive work.¹⁴

2.2.5 Job enlargement

Job enlargement relates to the practice of incorporating several different tasks into one job. Where job rotation means changing places with other employees between different tasks, job enlargement means that one employee has a larger number of tasks included in his job specification. The positive aspects of job enlargement are that it improves flexibility among employees, and that it can have a motivating effect on the employee. However, it only motivates under the right circumstances. For example, the employee needs to have both the freedom and knowledge to coordinate the several different tasks that he is supposed to perform.

2.2.6 Job enrichment

Job enrichment involves the employee in having more responsibility for his work, and this incorporates both planning, performing and evaluating one's own work. Job enrichment leads to feelings of responsibility.

2.2.7 Empowerment

Empowerment is a psychological concept represented by four dimensions: self-determination, meaning, competence and impact regarding the workers role in the organisation. To be satisfied with one's work, all of these four dimensions must be satisfied. The employee's freedom and independence is expressed in self-determination and the importance of the work

¹⁴ McShane S. L. & Von Glinow M. A., 2005, pp. 188.

in terms of meaning it conveys to the worker¹⁵. Extending employees competencies can empower them to have strong feelings of self-efficacy, that is to say, they can be confident about their ability to perform their work in a good way. Empowerment also lets people experience that their decisions and actions have influence on the organisation.

Relevance of job design to this thesis

Since our aim is to achieve an understanding of which factors drives and motivates students within our target group to seek certain employers, a theory of job design is naturally of great importance to us. Within all of the above mentioned areas, we can distinguish factors that we can use to better understand the needs of our target group.

2.3 The employer brand

As stated in the introduction, the concept employer brand occurred in 1996 and the first definition of the expression is demonstrated by the figure 1¹⁶. This is an early prototype of the employer brand mix, which describe the key factors that influence the employee's experiences of the employer brand.

¹⁵ McShane S. L. & Von Glinow M. A., 2005, pp.191

¹⁶ Barrow, S. & Mosley R., 2005, *The employer brand*, pp. 9

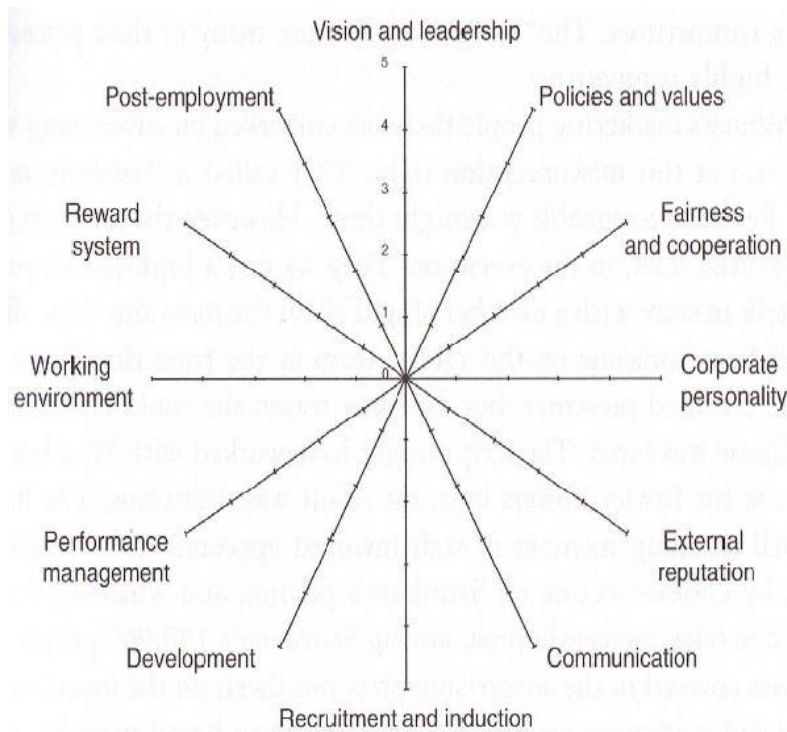


Figure 1: Model of employer brand¹⁷

To position the organisation's employer brand, all of the factors in figure 1 must be included in the marketing strategy. In the book "*The employer brand*" by Simon Barrow & Richard Mosley, the authors describe the different problems an organisation might face during the design of their employer branding strategy. Five issues that are central to the design of an employer branding strategy are:

- *Employee profile.* What type of people are you aiming to recruit?
- *Proposition.* What is the most common reasons for people's commitment and loyalty to the organisation?
- *Values and personality.* What are the most common described characteristics for the organisation?
- *Benefits.* How can the benefits of working within the organisation best be described?
- *Differentiators.* Which features differentiate the organisation from others?

¹⁷ Barrow, S. & Mosley R., 2005, *The employer brand*, pp. 9

3. Method

3.1 Research design

3.1.1. Qualitative vs. quantitative research methods

A number of different approaches to fulfill the purpose of this thesis can be conceived.

On the one hand, a qualitative study facilitates a more in-depth understanding of the problem at hand. At the same time, however, the results from a qualitative study are more difficult to generalize¹⁸. That is to say, it's more difficult for us to know whether the results extracted from a qualitative study comprising only a small number of respondents would be the same had the study been made on a larger body of respondents, and most importantly, whether it can be generalized to the population at large.

On the other hand, a quantitative research method usually gives results that are easier to generalize. In order for the results from a quantitative study to be valid in general, however, the body of data collected from the population must be sufficiently large. If a survey is conducted, this means that the response rate must be large enough. Exactly how large is a matter of discussion, but we estimate that a response rate of approximately 50% would give us a valid result. Lower response rates than that would mean a proportionally lower degree of generalizability. The most negative aspect of a quantitative approach is that the results from the study do not give us an in-depth view into each and every respondent's opinions.

For the purposes of this thesis, we conclude that the most effective research method would be a quantitative study. It is not the purpose of this study to achieve an in-depth understanding of every single respondent. Rather, our aim is to draw general conclusions about our population, and through the use of a quantitative method, we will be able to do just that.

3.1.2. Type of survey

A quantitative survey can be conducted in several ways. One way is to go out in the field and hand out paper survey forms to respondents. In our case this would have amounted to visiting

¹⁸ Eriksson L. T. & Wiendersheim-Paul F., 2001, *Att utreda, forska och rapportera*, p. 84

class rooms at universities. Because of a lack of opportunities for traveling to universities across the country, this approach was abandoned.

Another strategy for performing a quantitative survey is to contact prospective respondents by telephone. Due to the prohibitive administrative cost in both time and money that would be required to contact close to 1 000 prospective respondents by telephone, this approach was also abandoned.

A third strategy for performing a quantitative survey is to send out survey forms by ordinary mail. We assumed that this would lower the response rate significantly since the respondent would have to go out of his way to post the survey form back to us. Also, it would incur a significant cost in postage to use this approach.

The final strategy, and the one that we choose as our type of survey, was the web form. An e-mail was sent out to each prospective respondent. This e-mail contained a letter describing the purpose and form of the survey and a link to the website where the survey was placed. By using this type of survey, we believe that we have avoided the administrative expenses that would have been incurred if we had used any other survey method. We also believe that since it is faster and easier to answer a web form than to go out and post a paper form, we have achieved a higher response rate than what we would have achieved by using an ordinary paper survey. We do believe, however, that we would have got a higher response rate if we had gone out to classes and physically distributed the survey form. However, as previously stated, this ideal type of survey was not possible to perform due to lack of resources.

3.2 Ethical discussion

The e-mail addresses that were used were the student's university e-mail addresses. These e-mail addresses are registered by the universities and all students who belong to a university has an address on the form firstname.surname.xxxx@student.university.se. The email addresses were collected from different universities in different ways. Most of the universities in Sweden are connected to Ladok, which is a large database that contains information about grades and which courses the students are taking. Other universities use their own systems, such as Updok at Uppsala University. Most of the e-mail addresses were collected from these

two systems but also from the respective websites of the universities. These e-mail addresses are free to use if they are used for student related activity without advertising.

3.3 Web form

The link in the e-mail points to a website where the students can do the questionnaire. The answers are stored in a database. There are six alternative answers to each question that concerns the attractiveness of work. These are; not correct, badly, equally, better, correct and don't know.

The questionnaire consists of three parts. Firstly, there are five simple questions for positioning of the respondent regarding age, genus and education. This is important; otherwise it is impossible to see which answers that come from different groups. The second part of the questionnaire contains questions that are related to the theory. The purpose of these questions is to find out what features of a future employer this segment of students perceives as most important. In part two there are 14 questions altogether and how the questions are related with the different theories is shown in figure 2 below.

In the third part the questions are focused on the case company Ramböll. The goal of these questions is to be able to investigate how attractive the case company Ramböll is for the students in this segment. Before the student is able to answer these 14 questions about Ramböll they have to answer if they know about the company. If they answer *no* on that question they will not be able to answer the third part of the questionnaire.

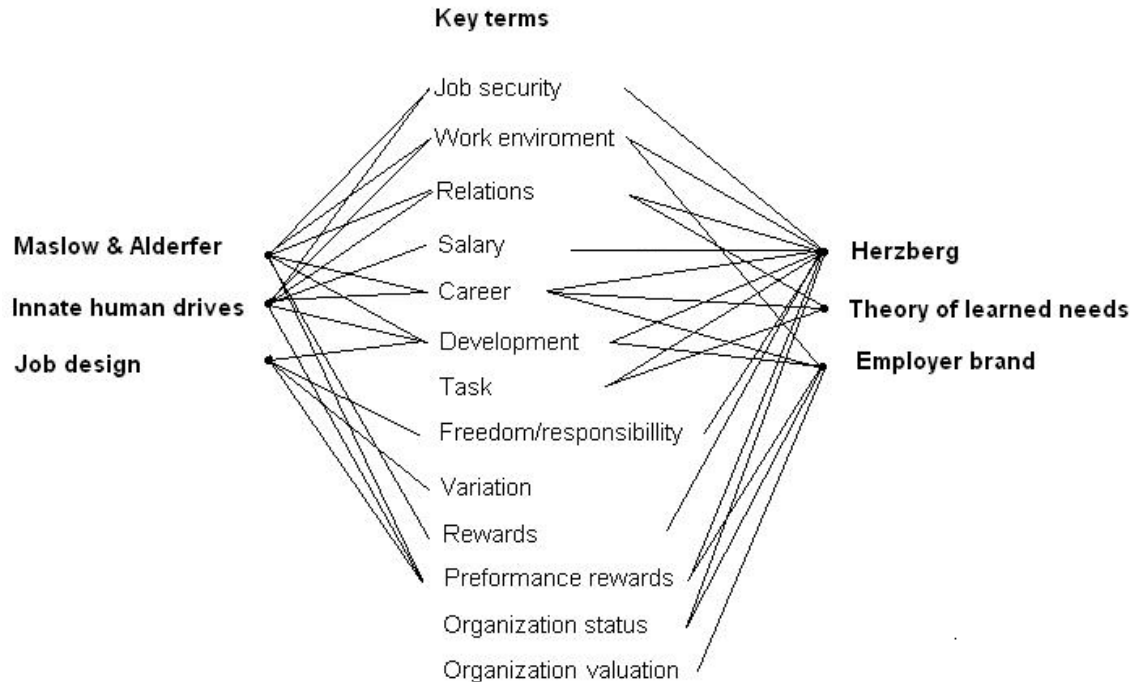


Figure 2: Correlation between theories and key terms in the questions.

Figure 2 describes the relationship between the theory section and the fundamental concepts behind the survey. Each of the 13 concepts in the middle column in figure 2 relates to one question in the survey. The lines connecting those concepts to the theories show which theories that supports each question. In total the web form contains 33 questions which are half of the maximum limit which is recommended by Eriksson & Wiendersheim-Paul¹⁹.

3.3.1. Three archetypes

We found it important to construct the questions that the survey was made up of in such a way as to facilitate analysis of the results of the survey. In order to do this, we used an own-defined model consisting of three mutually opposing extreme archetypes of personalities. These three archetypes are *the careerist*, *the student* and *the friend*. One can think of these archetypes as personality traits that make up the three axis of a three dimensional coordinate system. The three archetypes are described below.

- *Careerist*. This archetype describes a person that prefers jobs that result in power and status. The salary is important because it is connected with the civilian status. These

¹⁹ Eriksson L. T. & Wiendersheim-Paul F., 2001, *Att utreda, forska och rapportera*, pp. 55

persons also prefer to work for an organization that has a good reputation. This archetype draws on the theories *Drive to acquire*, *need for achievement* and *need for power*.

- *Friend*. This archetype describes people that prefer to have a strong employment security and who values relationships to colleagues highly. They look for work places that focus on a healthy work environment and they also feel the need to agree with the company's values. The theories that describe this archetype are *Drive to bond* and *need for affiliation*.
- *Student*. This archetype describes a person who prefers to work in an environment that gives room for development and education. The "student" archetype also prioritizes work content ahead of salary. To describe this archetype, theories like *drive to learn* and *need for achievement* are used.

The idea is that each respondent will be characterized by a combination of these three archetypes, and each respondent's personality can be described as a composition of different degrees of the three archetypes. Each respondent will receive three coefficients; one for each archetype, depending on how he/she answers the questionnaire. For example, a respondent who answers that he/she prefers a high salary will have a high *careerist* coefficient, and a respondent who answers that he/she prefers good social relations will have a high *friend* coefficient.

The twist to the questionnaire is that a respondent is not able to answer that he/she values everything. Part two of the survey contains 14 questions. In each one of those questions, two of the three archetypes are put against each other. The purpose of this is to make the respondent choose between archetypes, so that they cannot answer "high" on all questions. In this way, the respondents are not able to say that everything is important, they have to choose. An example question is given below:

	Stämmer inte alls	Stämmer dåligt	Varken eller	Stämmer bra	Stämmer helt	Vet ej
Jag vill ha ett arbete där jag hela tiden lär mig nya saker, och prioriterar detta högre än lönenivån.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Figure 3: Example of a question.

If a respondent answers this example question by checking the “not correct” or “badly” alternative, this is taken as an indicator that this respondent is more akin to the *Student* archetype than the *Careerist* archetype. On the other hand, if a respondent answers “better” or “correct” on this example question, this is taken as an indicator that this respondent is more akin to the *Careerist* archetype than to the *Student* archetype.

The keywords that are shown in figure 2 are the main subjects in each question. These are listed in the left column in table 1 below. In the third column is the two subjects that are put against each other and in the fourth column to the right the different archetypes that are put against each other are listed.

1	Working security	Working security Career	Careerist Friend
2	Relations	Relations Working tasks	Friend Student
3	Further education	Further education Salary	Student Careerist
4	Personal development	Personal development Working security	Student Friend
5	Working tasks	Working tasks Career	Student Careerist
6	Working environment	Working environment Salary	Friend Careerist
7	Variation	Variation	
8	Salary	Salary Working tasks	Careerist Student
9	Freedom/ responsibility	Freedom/ responsibility Working security	Student Friend
10	Organizations values	Organizations values Salary	Friend Careerist
11	Organizations status	Organizations status Working tasks	Careerist Student
12	Acknowledgement	Acknowledgement Salary	Careerist Friend
13	Teamwork	Teamwork	Student Friend
14	Power/ Career	Power/ Career	Careerist

Table 1: Main subjects in each question and the comparison in subjects and archetype.

3.4 Respondent characteristics

After the survey was closed, we calculated three real numbers (x , y , z) in the interval $[-1, 1]$ for each respondent, that together describe each respondents character according to our model of the three archetypes. The first number in this treble, x , is a measure of the degree to which the respondent is a “careerist”. The second number in the treble, y , is a measure of the degree to which the respondent is a “student”. The third number in the treble, z , is a measure of the degree to which the respondent is a “friend”. The higher the number for a certain character dimension, the more explicit this character trait is in the respondent, according to our model. Thus, if a respondent for example receives the score $(0.32, -0.15, -0.17)$, then this respondent is a strong “careerist”. On the other hand, if a respondents scores $(-0.5, 0, 0.5)$, then this respondent is a strong “friend”. The three numbers were calculated according to the following algorithm:

1. The answers were mapped onto scores according to the following schema:
 - “not correct” $\rightarrow -1$
 - “badly” $\rightarrow -0.5$
 - “neither nor” $\rightarrow 0$
 - “better” $\rightarrow 0.5$
 - “correct” $\rightarrow 1$
2. For each question, the score for the question was added to the first character trait in the forth column in the row corresponding to the question in table 1, and the score was subtracted from the second character trait in the forth column in the row corresponding to the question in table 1.²⁰ If no answer was given or if the answer was “Vet ej”, then this answer was discarded from the calculation.
3. Finally, the sum of scores from all the questions was normalized for each respondent, so that each number in the trebles lies in the interval $[-1, 1]$.

²⁰ **Example:** If a respondent answered “Stämmer bra” in question 1, then the careerist trait were given 0.5 points, and the friend trait was given -0.5 points. Further, if a respondent answered “Stämmer inte alls” on question 2, then the friend trait was given -1 point and the student trait was given 1 point. If the respondent answered “Varken eller” on the third question, 0 points were given to both the student and the careerist trait. Notice that this means that the sum of all three scores will always be zero.

3.5 Selection

We estimate the total number of civil engineering students in Sweden to be 5 000. They are located at the seven largest universities and several smaller education centres around the country. Of the seven larger universities, three universities that are spread out geographically in Sweden have been chosen. These universities are Chalmers Tekniska Högskola, Luleå Tekniska Högskola and Uppsala Tekniska Högskola. These represent about twenty percent of the civil engineers who studies at the larger universities. The smaller universities are not represented in this survey because the classes at those universities contain too few students which results in too large administrative work. All students from the three selected universities were chosen to be asked to participate in the survey.

3.6 Sources of error

It is a known fact that surveys that are based on Web forms are more criticized than classical surveys that are based on paper form. The reason for this is the difficulty to be sure that the right person has answered the questionnaire. We have overcome this by using passwords to the web site. Each respondent received a unique link to the website, including a password as the query string. This link was on the form

www.studentattityd.nu/page1.aspx?id=<password>

Each respondent received a unique password. When a respondent submitted his answer, that password was disabled. In this way, we achieved two things. First, no person who was not a respondent could gain access to the survey form. Second, no respondent was able to answer the survey twice. Through this mechanism, we believe that we overcame the most common problems with sources of error in web surveys. Of course we cannot guarantee that the right person has answered the questionnaire, since a respondent could click the link and then let his friend do the questionnaire, but this problem would occur for any type of survey and we perceive the risk for this kind of sabotage to be negligible. One other problem with web forms is that it is more difficult for a respondent to pose questions concerning the survey to the researchers. A contact e-mail address was given in each e-mail that was sent out to the respondents, but the question still remains whether respondents actually use this facility even when it is needed.

4. Results

4.1 Positioning

To be able to describe the set of persons who responded to the survey, we asked them a series of questions regarding what university they attend, their current year of studies, gender and age. Henceforth, the term population will be used to refer to the set of persons that we have invited to participate in our study, and the term respondents will be used to refer to those among our population that actually answered the survey. In total, the population consisted of 925 students who had the ability to answer the questionnaire. Among those, 176 answered, and thus make up the respondents to the survey. The answer rate for the survey was thus 18.8%. In diagram 1 below, the response rate from the different universities is shown.

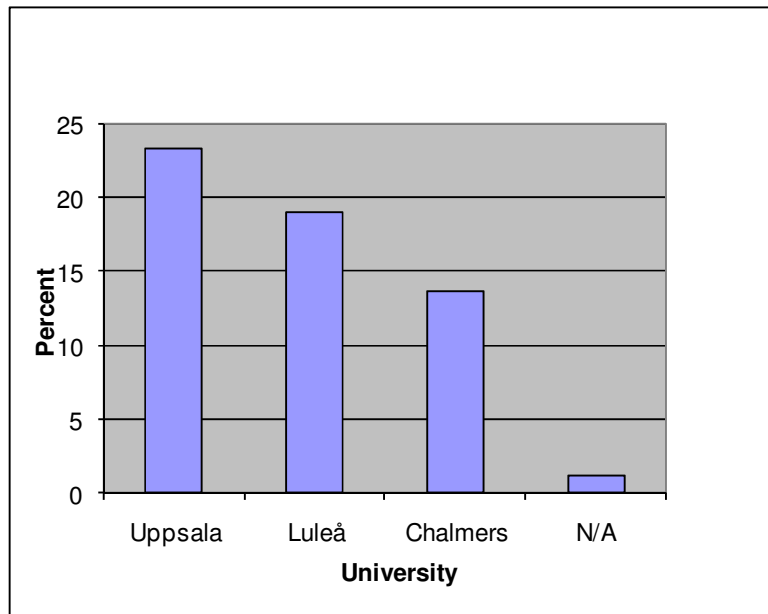


Diagram 1: Response rate in each university (answers/population).

We have aggregated the respondents from different programs into two program categories. The program group *Construction Engineers* includes the programs: "Byggnadsekonomi", "Byggproduktion", "Byggteknik" and "Konstruktionsteknik". The program group *Environmental Engineering* includes the programs: "Geologi- och geoteknik", "Miljö- och vattenteknik", "Samhällsbyggnad" and "Väg- och vattenbyggnad". Diagram 2 below shows the breakdown of respondents into the two program categories.

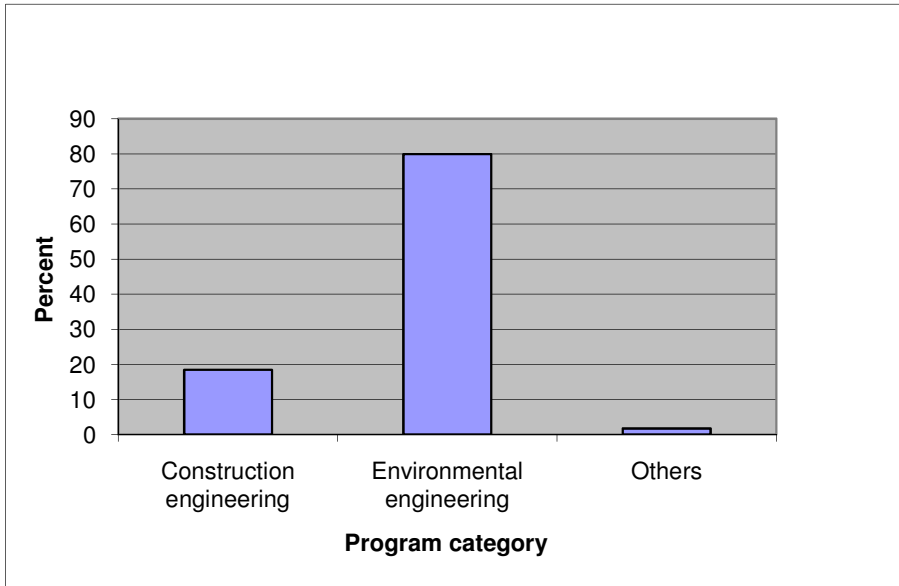


Diagram 2: The breakdown of respondents into different program categories.

Diagram 3 below shows how the respondents were distributed in different years of studies.

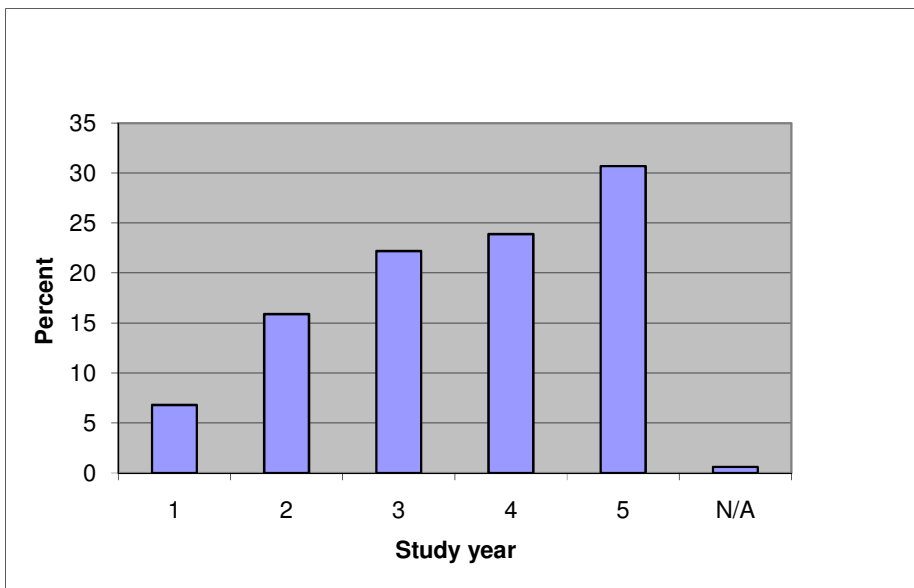


Diagram 3: Percentage of respondents divided into years of studies.

Diagram 4 below shows the gender distribution among the respondents.

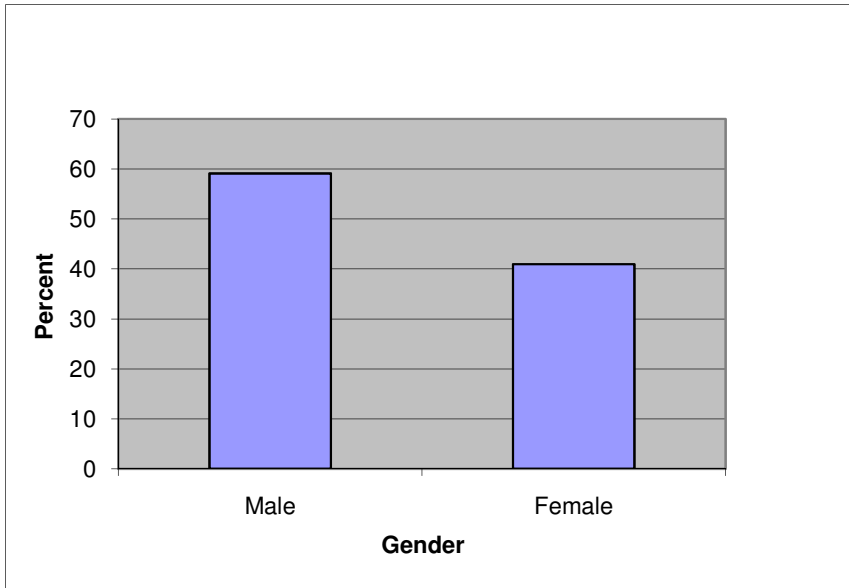


Diagram 4: Percentage of respondents divided into genders.

Diagram 5 below shows the age distribution among the respondents.

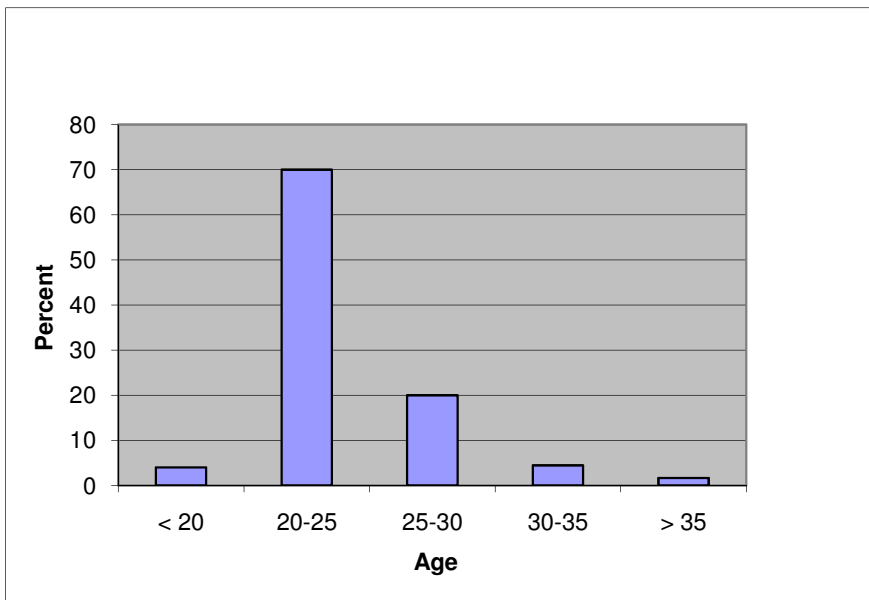


Diagram 5: Percentage of respondents divided into age groups.

4.2 Preferences regarding future employers

To investigate the results from part two in the survey a correlations test was made. The purpose of this test was to see what questions are strongly correlated to each other. When a question is correlated to another it means that the answer data for those questions are similar. The correlations ρ that are used are Pearson's model which is defined as:²¹

$$\rho_{X,Y} = \frac{\text{cov}(X, Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} = \frac{E((X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y))}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} \quad (1)$$

In equation (1) the covariance $\text{cov}(X, Y)$, for stochastic variables X and Y , is divided with the standard deviation for both X and Y (σ_X and σ_Y) to normalize the covariance. The covariance is the product of the expected values of the two variables. The expected value is calculated by:

$$E(X) = \sum_x xP(x) \quad (2)$$

The result from the correlation is a real number in the interval $[0, 1]$. High numbers mean that the correlation is strong and the data looks similar. A verification of this is possible to see in table 6 below. One can see that the correlation between the same questions has value one. Table 6 shows the correlations between the questions in part two of the survey.

	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10	Q11	Q12	Q13	Q14
Q1	1													
Q2	0,06	1												
Q3	0,11	0,09	1											
Q4	0,23	0,12	0,21	1										
Q5	0,37	0,10	0,32	0,09	1									
Q6	0,31	0,23	0,35	0,07	0,48	1								
Q7	0,03	0,18	0,07	0,14	0,11	0,06	1							
Q8	0,17	0,10	0,48	0,02	0,35	0,29	0,06	1						
Q9	0,27	0,12	0,12	0,21	0,08	0,15	0,05	0,08	1					
Q10	0,21	0,02	0,31	0,02	0,15	0,24	0,11	0,12	0,00	1				
Q11	0,21	0,22	0,12	0,10	0,15	0,03	0,05	0,45	0,05	0,01	1			
Q12	0,12	0,17	0,29	0,15	0,22	0,25	0,14	0,21	0,03	0,36	0,09	1		
Q13	0,04	0,05	0,08	0,13	0,04	0,03	0,20	0,07	0,06	0,02	0,05	0,06	1	
Q14	0,30	0,01	0,06	0,39	0,34	0,21	0,12	0,29	0,29	0,07	0,25	0,16	0,08	1

Table 6: Correlation between the questions in part 2 of the survey.

²¹ Blom, G & Holmquist, B, 1998, *Statistteori med tillämpningar* s. 128.

As can be seen in the table 6 some questions are correlated more than others and this is how it should be. Each question compares two archetypes as described in the method section above. This means that the questions that belong to the same group should be more strongly correlated. An example of this is question 11 and question 8 who are strongly correlated. This is what could be expected since both of these questions contrast the archetype *Careerist* with the archetype *Student*. The different colours in the table are showing the different groups.

- Red = Careerist against Friend
- Pink = Student against Careerist
- Green = Friend against Student

The question 7 and 14 must be treated specially because these do not put two types of personalities against each other and are therefore not colour marked.

The following diagram shows the distribution of the three archetypes *careerist*, *friend* and *student*. In these diagrams the values are calculated in the way that is described in section 3.4 and divided into five intervals. The higher a respondent scores in one of the three archetype dimensions, the more alike this archetype the person is. The mean values taken across all respondents for the three archetype dimensions are:

Careerist	-0,27
Friend	0,05
Student	0,22

Table 7: The mean values of the three archetypes.

The mean value of this calculation shows that most of the respondents belong to the group *student* and the smallest group is the *careerist*. As can be seen in diagram 6, respondents tend to score low in the *careerist* dimension.

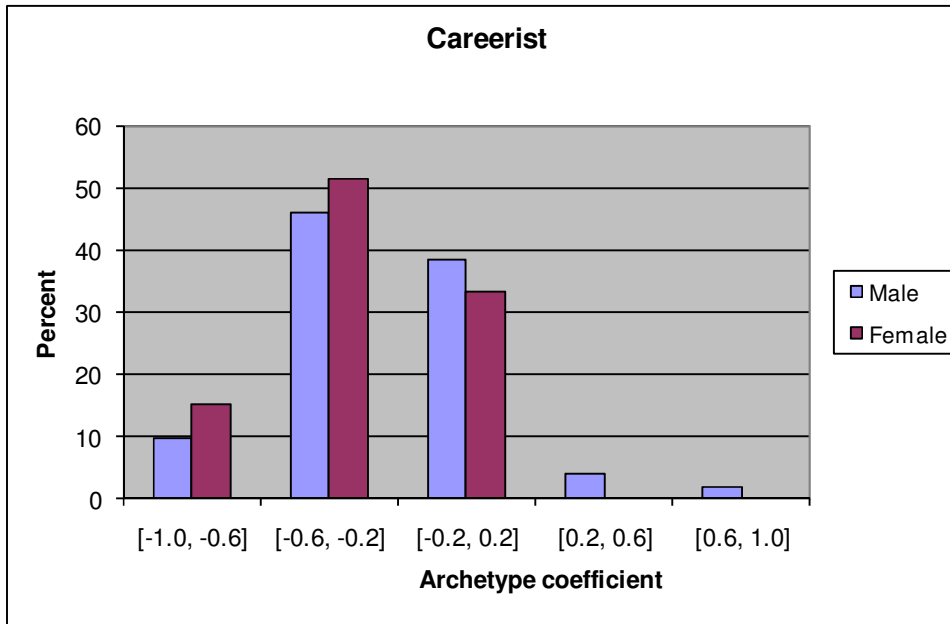


Diagram 6: The Careerists distribution of males and females.

Taking a genus perspective the results show that males generally scores higher while females generally scores lower in the *careerist* dimension. In the next diagram, the distribution of the archetype dimension *friend* is shown. Females generally scores slightly higher than males in this dimension.

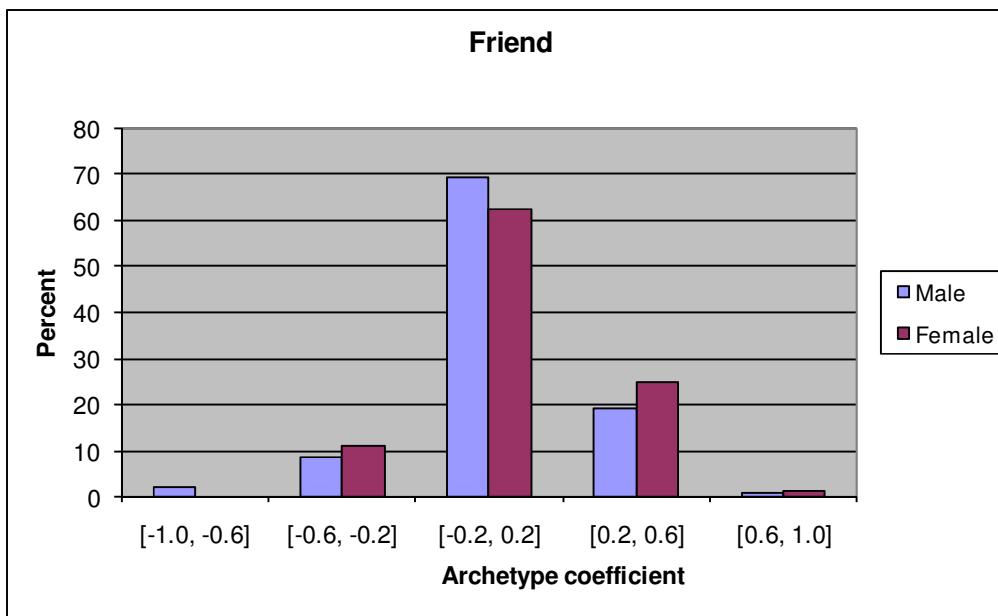


Diagram 7: The Friends distribution of males and females.

In the third diagram that shows the results mapped onto the *student* dimension, the distribution has a clear weight towards high scores.

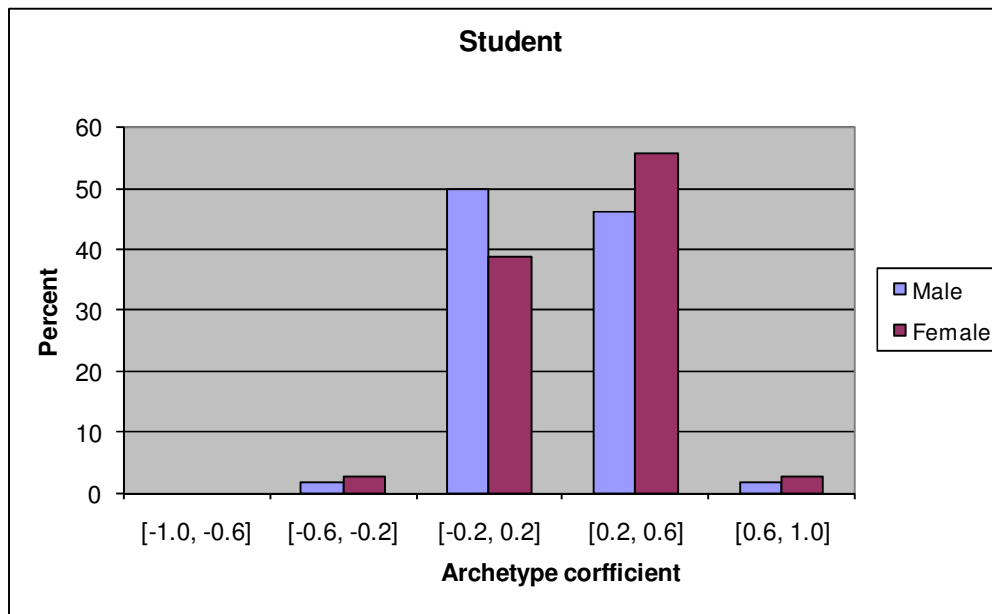


Diagram 8: The Students distribution of males and females.

The results show that females have a slightly stronger tendency towards the archetype *student* than males.

4.3 Case company

Before the students were able to answer the questions in the third part of the survey that contains questions about the case company Ramböll, they needed to answer if they recognised the company. In this question 72 percent of the respondents answered yes to this question and the gender distribution is shown in diagram 9.

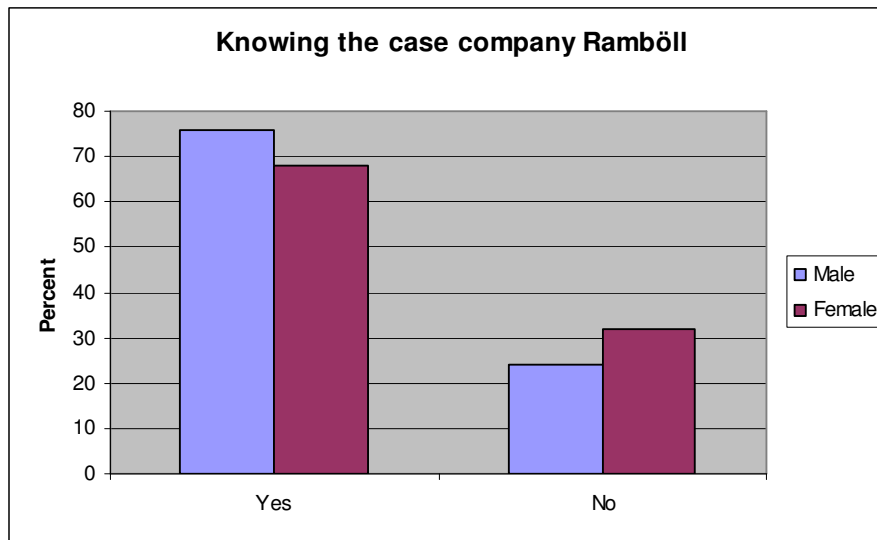


Diagram 9: Percentage of students that recognise the company Ramböll.

The percentage of the respondents who recognized Ramböll in different years of studies is shown in diagram 10.

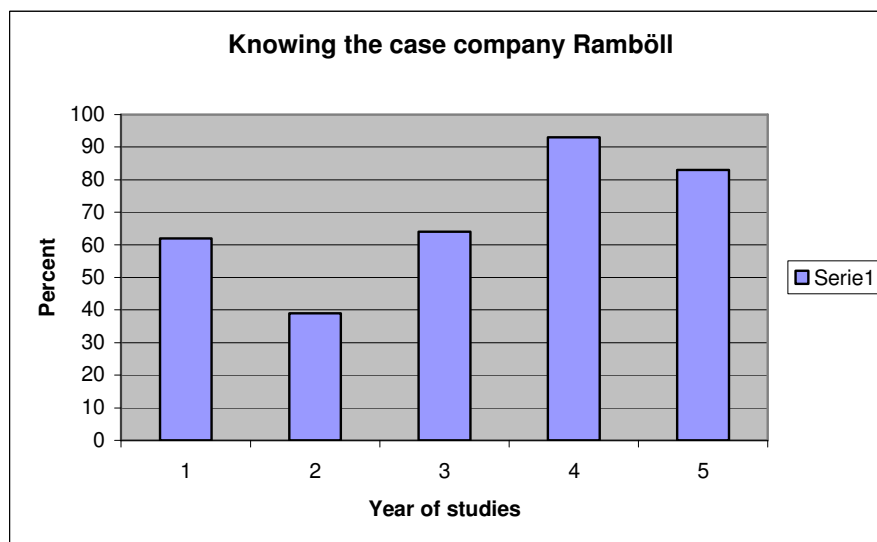


Diagram 10: The part of students in grade 1-5 that recognises Ramböll.

Diagram 11 shows the percentage of students that recognised Ramböll, divided into the different universities.

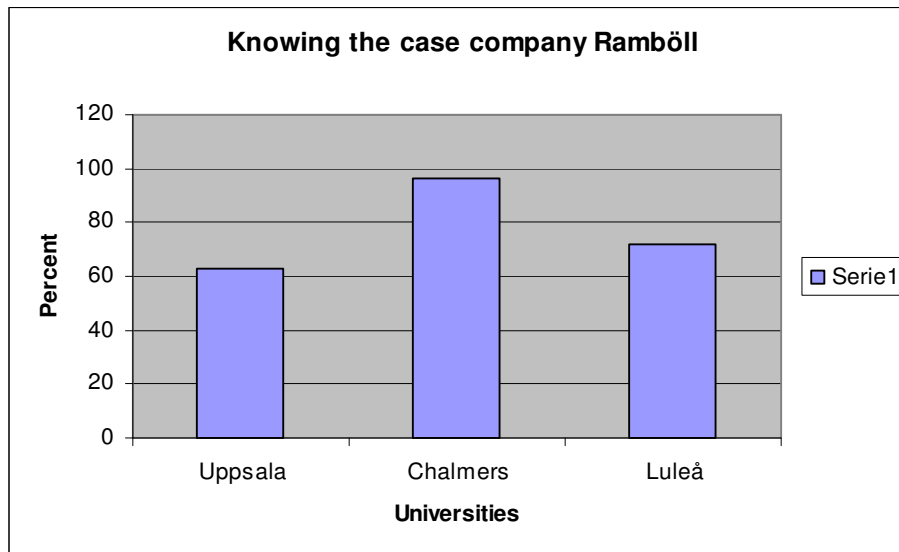


Diagram 11: The part of students in different universities that recognises Ramböll.

As can be seen in diagram 11, students at Chalmers Tekniska Högskola have good knowledge about Ramböll with 96 percent of the respondents answering that they recognised the company.

The correlation analysis for the questions that belong to the third part of the survey is made in the same way as the correlation analysis for part two. In these questions, different archetypes are not put against each other; they are just connected to the main subjects in table 6.

	Q15	Q16	Q17	Q18	Q19	Q20	Q21	Q22	Q23	Q24	Q25	Q26	Q27	Q28
Q15	1													
Q16	0,70	1												
Q17	0,56	0,54	1											
Q18	0,16	0,28	0,48	1										
Q19	0,36	0,37	0,32	0,24	1									
Q20	0,15	0,40	0,40	0,38	0,21	1								
Q21	0,14	0,00	0,28	0,23	0,38	0,38	1							
Q22	0,26	0,29	0,44	0,67	0,24	0,77	0,40	1						
Q23	0,16	0,21	0,43	0,60	0,19	0,24	0,23	0,19	1					
Q24	0,43	0,48	0,61	0,24	0,46	0,30	0,48	0,41	0,35	1				
Q25	0,04	0,44	0,48	0,53	0,33	0,46	0,26	0,46	0,59	0,39	1			
Q26	0,50	0,08	0,18	0,03	0,11	0,00	0,00	0,16	0,23	0,20	0,42	1		
Q27	0,22	0,13	0,14	0,23	0,06	0,29	0,15	0,17	0,14	0,24	0,15	0,03	1	
Q28	0,27	0,44	0,54	0,66	0,25	0,40	0,29	0,57	0,43	0,35	0,69	0,16	0,51	1

Table 8: Correlation between the questions in part 3 of the survey.

The mean values of the answers from questions 15-28 in the questionnaire are shown in diagram 12 below. Questions 15 through 28 in diagram 12 corresponds to theme 1 through 14 in Table 1. The vertical line in the diagram shows the variance in each question.

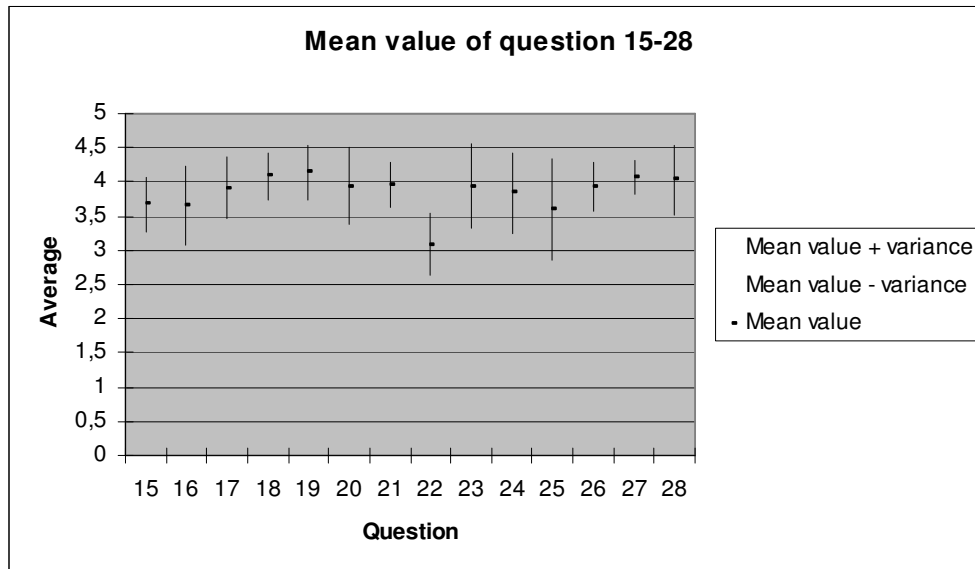


Diagram 12: Mean value with variance of question 15 to 28.

As can be seen in the diagram 12, questions 18, 19, 27 and 28 have a higher average than four and question 19 has the highest value.

Diagram 13 shows the mean value of the answers of question 15-28, divided into our three archetypes. Each respondent were placed in the archetype category that he was most akin to. The purpose of this diagram is to show how respondents with different personalities perceived Ramböll.

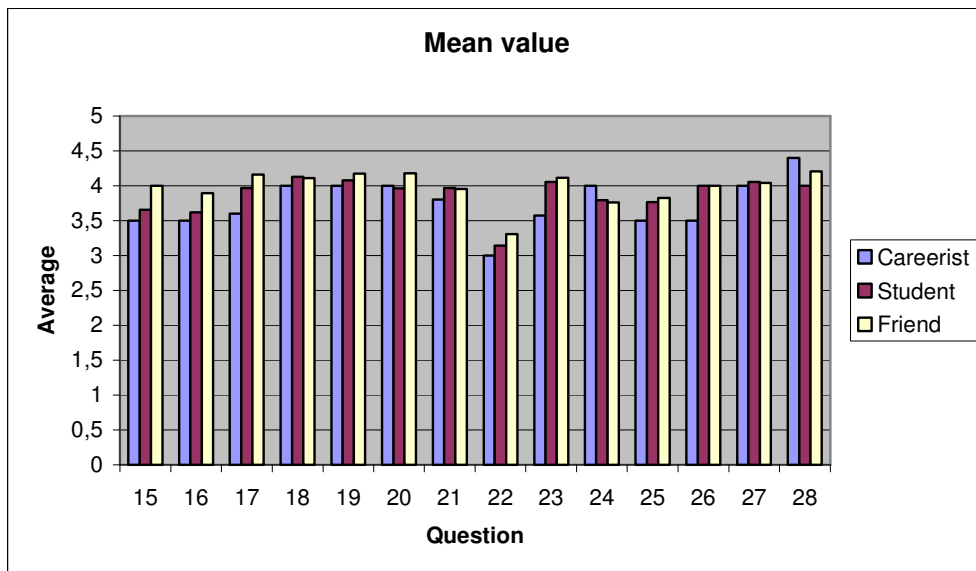


Diagram 13: Mean value represented by each archetype.

In diagram 13 one can see that the archetype *friend* is generally more positive in the questions that concerns Ramböll. In two questions the type *careerist* has the highest mean value and the subjects in these questions are *organization's values* and *career opportunities*.

5. Analysis

The response rate of the survey was approximately 19%, which means that the validity of the results is relatively low. However, certain patterns which are of interest can be seen in the results.

5.1 Positioning

As can be seen from diagram 1, there was a significantly higher response rate at Uppsala University than at the other two universities. One thinkable reason for this is that this thesis is written at Uppsala University. This factor cannot, however, explain why the difference in response rate between Luleå and Chalmers are just as big as the difference between Uppsala and Luleå.

Diagram 3 shows that the further in its education a student has come, the more likely he/she is to respond to this survey. This can be explained by the fact that students in the higher grades are more interested in questions relation to future employers, and they have also reflected more about their preferences concerning future employers.

Diagram 4 shows that the majority of the answers to the survey came from males rather than females. Unfortunately, we do not know the ratio between males and females in the population. Therefore we cannot give a certain reason for this. One plausible reason for the larger number of male answers might be that there simply are more male students in the population than female students.

5.2 Preferences regarding future employers

From table 6 we can see that questions that expose the same dichotomy (careerist-student, careerist-friend or student-friend) tend to be more correlated to one another than questions that do not expose the same dichotomy. There are a number of exceptions though. Notably, questions 5 and 6 are strongly correlated. Question 5 exposes the student/careerist dichotomy, while question 6 exposes the friend/careerist dichotomy. What this shows is that the three dimensions; careerist, student and friend, are not completely independent of each other. Rather, there is a small degree of correlation between the dimensions. The case with questions

5 and 6, for example, shows that there is a certain degree of correlation between the student and the friend dimension, especially when those dimensions are contrasted with the careerist dimension.

Table 7 shows a fundamental result of this thesis. It shows that the respondents in general are most akin to the *student* archetype, and least akin to the *careerist* archetype, with the *friend* archetype in between. Thus, there is a clear tendency for the respondents of this survey to value opportunities for learning, independency and development higher than career opportunities and high salaries.

From diagrams 6, 7 and 8 it is evident that males are more akin to the careerist archetype than females, while females are more akin to the student archetype than males. There is no clear tendency for either males or females to go either way regarding the friend archetype.

5.3 Case company

Diagram 9 shows that approximately 70% of the respondents know the case company Ramböll. Relatively more males than females know Ramböll

Diagram 10 shows that relatively speaking, more students know Ramböll in the higher grades than in the lower. This can be explained from the assumption that students in the higher grades generally are more knowledgeable concerning prospective future employers than are students in the lower grades. In diagram 11 it can be seen that Ramböll is very well known at Chalmers, but not as much in Uppsala and Luleå.

As can be seen from diagram 12, Ramböll received the highest score on questions 18 and 19. From the snapshots of the survey in the appendix we can see that those questions concern challenges and interesting tasks respectively. From diagram 12 we can also see that Ramböll received the lowest score on questions 22 and 25, which according to the appendix relates to salaries and the company's status among the general public.

Also of interest to the case company Ramböll will be that the main contributors to the low scores in questions 22 and 25 relating to salaries and the company's status were the respondents who could be characterized as careerists, as can be seen in diagram 13. This

means that careerists do not think that Ramböll offer high salaries and status, which according to our model is what careerists want. On the other hand, careerists rated Ramböll relatively high in question 28 which relates to career opportunities. This makes it hard to analyze how attractive Ramböll is to careerists in a general perspective.

One other pattern worth mentioning is that respondents who could be characterized as *friends* gave Ramböll a relatively high score on questions 15 and 16, which relates to employment safety and social relations. This is an indicator that respondents who can be characterized as *friends* think that they can get what they want from Ramböll. On the other hand, respondents that can be characterized as *friends* also give high scores on other questions than those that are related to the friend archetype. The reason for that can be that the answer on the questions which concern Ramböll is positive biased, as can be seen in mean value diagram (diagram 12).

No clear pattern can be seen from diagram 13 regarding respondents who can be characterized as students.

6. Conclusions

The main conclusion of this survey is that the students in civil engineering programs in Uppsala, Luleå and Chalmers tend to value opportunities for learning, development and independency highest. Further, this group values social relations and employment safety moderately high. Lastly, this group values career opportunities and high salaries the least.

We can also draw the conclusion that males at civil engineering programs in Uppsala, Luleå and Chalmers tend to value career opportunities and salaries slightly higher than females, although both males and females does place a low value on career opportunities and salaries. Further, females value learning opportunities, development and independency higher than males, although both males and females do place a high value on learning opportunities, development and independency.

The case company Ramböll scored highest among respondents in questions relating to challenging and interesting tasks. Those areas were also declared to be among the most important qualities of a prospective future employer. On the other hand, Ramböll scored

lowest among students in questions relating to salaries and the company's status. Those areas were declared to be among the least important qualities of a future employer. From this the conclusion can be drawn that in general students tend to think that Ramböll can offer them what they want the most.

7. References

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Articles

1. Ambler T. & Barrow S., 1996, *The employer brand*, Journal of Brand Management, vol. 4

Appendix

Questionnaire, first side

Vid vilken teknisk högskola studerar du?

Vilket program läser du?

Vilken årskurs läser du?

Är du man eller kvinna?

Hur gammal är du?

Slutfört: 25%

Questionnaire, second side

Markera för varje påstående i vilken mån du tycker att påståendet stämmer in på dig.

	Stämmer inte alls	Stämmer dåligt	Varken eller	Stämmer bra	Stämmer helt	Vet ej
Jag vill ha ett jobb där jag har goda möjligheter att klättra i karriären om jag presterar bra, även om jag har låg anställningstrygghet om jag misslyckas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Jag anser att en god gemenskap och nära relationer till mina arbetskamrater mer än väl kan kompensera för mindre intressanta arbetsuppgifter.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Jag vill ha ett arbete där jag hela tiden lär mig nya saker, och prioriterar detta högre än lönenivån.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Jag skulle kunna tänka mig att byta jobb för att prova på en ny utmaning, även om jag trivs bra med mitt nuvarande jobb.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Jag föredrar att arbeta med uppgifter som jag tycker är intressanta framför att klättra så långt som möjligt i karriären.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
För att jag ska trivas på mitt jobb anser jag att miljön, såsom trivsamma lokaler, behaglig ljudnivå och närhet från min bostad är viktigare än lönenivån.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Jag vill hellre vara "generalist" och ha stor variation i mina arbetsuppgifter så att jag kan lära mig många olika saker, än att vara "specialist" med stor kunskap inom ett smalare område.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Till sida 3 av 4

Slutfört: 50%

Questionnaire, third side

Markera för varje påstående i vilken mån du tycker att påståendet stämmer in på dig.

	Stämmer inte alls	Stämmer dåligt	Varken eller	Stämmer bra	Stämmer helt		Vet ej
Jag vill ha ett arbete med hög lön, även om det skulle innebära mindre intressanta arbetsuppgifter.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Jag skulle föredra att ha frihet att själv utforma och planera mina arbetsuppgifter, även om detta innebär att jag hålls ansvarig om jag misslyckas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Jag vill arbeta för en organisation vars värderingar stämmer överens med mina, även om det skulle innebära att jag får en något lägre lön.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Jag vill arbeta för en organisation som har högt anseende och status i allmänhetens ögon, även om detta innebär att jag får mindre intressanta arbetsuppgifter.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Som belöning för ett väl utfört arbete vill jag hellre få beröm, erkännande och uppskattning av mina kollegor, chefer och andra personer i samhället, än belöning i form av pengar.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Jag föredrar att arbeta självständigt framför att arbeta i grupp.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Jag vill arbeta med att leda andra.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐

Till sida 4 av 4

Slutfört: 75%

Questionnaire, fourth side

Vi har i denna undersökning valt ut Ramböll som fallstudie. Känner du till Ramböll?

Välj här

Till sida 4 av 4

Slutfört: 80%

Questionnaire, fifth side

Markera för varje påstående i vilken mån du tycker att följande påståenden stämmer in på Ramböll

	Stämmer inte alls	Stämmer dåligt	Varken eller	Stämmer bra	Stämmer helt		Vet ej
Ramböll erbjuder en hög grad av anställningstrygghet.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Ramböll arbetar aktivt för att skapa goda relationer mellan medarbetare.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Ramböll erbjuder stora möjligheter till vidareutbildning.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Ramböll erbjuder utmaningar.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Ramböll erbjuder intressanta arbetsuppgifter.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Ramböll erbjuder en god arbetsmiljö.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Ramböll erbjuder varierande arbetsuppgifter.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Ramböll erbjuder hög lön jämfört med sina konkurrenter.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Ramböll erbjuder möjligheter att få ta ansvar.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Ramböll har värderingar som stämmer överens med mina.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Ramböll har högt anseende och status i allmänhetens ögon.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Ramböll erbjuder möjligheter till prestationsbaserade belöningar i form av pengar.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Ramböll erbjuder goda möjligheter att arbeta i team.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐
Ramböll erbjuder goda karriärmöjligheter.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐		☐

[Skicka](#)

Slutfört: 100%