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AN INTERNAL MARKETING APPROACH TO CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION

A travel management perspective, Case VTT: Moving to self-service with an online booking tool

Master´s Thesis
in Marketing

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1 INTRODUCTION

The motive behind conducting this study stemmed from curiosity towards exploring how marketing could be applied as a facilitator of intra-organisational processes. In this chapter the course is described of observing the field of internal marketing and choosing change implementation as example content, learning to emphasise the human aspect of change, merging the examined areas together, and finally, getting acquainted with communication as a key tool for realising earlier suggestions. It is also illustrated how the underlying original purpose was then reshaped into research questions, and to conclude, the construction of the study's structure is explained.

1.1 Exploring the background of the study

Before further describing the research framework designed for this study, the main themes of change and change management, internal marketing and communication are observed from a somewhat broader perspective, with the aim of gaining understanding on them and providing definitions.

Change management

It has been recognised by many parties that we live in a time of exceptional change, and a common phrase used for describing the business environment today is the statement of there being nothing permanent left except for constant change (see, for example Lanning 2001, 1; Ballantyne 2003, 1242; Beer 2008, 405; Yates 2008, 21–22). Burke (2008, 25) illustrates the situation by stating that as change in organisations today is never truly over, one could argue that it has been added to the list of death and taxes. Therefore, many might agree with Paton and McCalman (2000, 6) who declare that any organisation that ignores change does so at its own peril, as organisations have been forced to constantly go through dramatic and fundamental changes, not only to compete and be competitive in the future in the increasingly evolving global business environment, but to merely survive (Kotter 1996, 18; Appelbaum & Callagher 2000, 53; Thomson & Hecker 2000, 160; Helms Mills, Dye & Mills 2009, 55).

Helms Mills et al. (2009, 34) argue that change today has come to be understood as something real, necessary and inevitable, while Zorn, Page and Cheney (2000, 515) along with Lewis, Schmisseur, Stephens and Weir (2006, 115) observe that organisations and popular management discourse appear to embrace and celebrate constant change, which creates assumptions that guide managerial practice and the interpretation of managerial actions. As a consequence of the pace of change accelerating and all organisations having to be prepared to respond to and even anticipate change, it has been ar-

gued that no study of organisational life is complete without complementary studies of the way change affects it and how that change can be managed (Senior 2002, 1; Helms Mills et al. 2009, 15). Indeed, change has been an active and rich area in management research for decades, and in recent years, it has become a powerful business and an attractive field of endeavour, with hundreds of books and millions in consulting fees devoted to the selling and implementation of change programmes (Kanter 1999, 15; Bommer, Rich & Rubin 2005, 733; Helms Mills et al.2009, 10–11, 35–36; Templin 2009, 20). Helms Mills et al. (2009, 13) also note that many articles on change, while the focus may vary, carry the same underlying message: if an organisation has not been involved in some sort of change initiative, it may not be living up to its potential. They also suggest that for the organisation, engaging in change can mean being on the cutting edge, and for managers, it can be seen as a way of being progressive (Helms Mills et al. 2009, 13, 34).

When it comes to the reasons behind the need for constant change, Paton and McCalman (2000, 9) and Lanning (2001, 9) summarise that the factors necessitating movement from the status quo may rise when current performance and the operation of a business are no longer on a par with the requirements from inside the company or with the outside business environment, and likewise, Helms Mills et al. (2009, 4) note that the operations in organisations are impacted by a variety of both internal and external factors.

In addition to the variety of sources change in organisations might have, it is, Helms Mills et al. (2009, 32) argue, vital to understand that it comes in many forms. According to Kanter (1999, 16) and Senior (2002, 1), change is created constantly and on many levels, and all people in organisations are concerned and involved with it. Correspondingly, Senior (2002, 274) and Helms Mills et al. (2009, 32) further argue that first, a number of different ways for categorising organisational change exist, ranging from change that happens incrementally and which may affect only one part of an organisation to the more radical frame-breaking or discontinuous change that pervades almost every aspect of an organisation’s functioning, and second, some change emerges, while at other times it can be planned. Similarly, Reunis, Santema and Rozemeijer (2005, 216–217) argue that change can be spontaneous or forced upon its recipients. In addition, Hayes (2007, 3) notes that while changes in organisation may be large or small, evolutionary or revolutionary, they can also be either sought after or resisted. As for reactions to change, Senior (2002, 274) argues that expectations with respect to the ease with which change happens vary according to its perceived complexity, and Helms Mills et al. (2009, 9) propose that it is not so much the scale of the change that is important to consider, but the extent to which impact is felt within the organisation.

In the meantime, however, midst the discussion on change and the various triggers to and types of it, some have also stopped to question the need for organisations to change

constantly. For instance, Kotter (1996, 18) notes that in earlier eras, with less global competition and slower-moving business environments, change and transformation were significantly less common than today, stability was the norm, and a ruling motto: *If it isn't broken, don't fix it*. Similarly, Zorn et al (2000, 517) note how change has come to the forefront of popular and managerial thought as a slogan that prevents debate and its own examination, and Helms Mills et al. (2009, 170) state that as change has become almost an imperative in today's business environment, reflecting on the value and importance of stability has become rare. Furthermore, Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (2004, 178) present a dilemma related to the situation: while organisations need to change, due to the changing business environment, continuity is also vital, and in several respects, organisations need to stay the same, but in others, they must change. In fact, Helms Mills et al. (2009, 170–171) note, there are organisations whose very success actually relies on the fact that they have not changed over the years, and therefore, they suggest, stability and a relative lack of change could be seen as the very definition of enduring institutions. Similarly, Abrahamson (2004, 4) wishes to underline that while change or perish is a much cited rationale, many organisations do actually change *and* perish, or more accurately, change and therefore perish, as in some cases, rapid and continuous change might rip an organisation apart.

Still, as Helms Mills et al. (2009, 170) note, in most organisations, failure to change is seen as a recipe for disaster, and successful change considered preventing potential threats to organisational survival, at the same time bestowing prestige on those associated with change. Likewise, Zorn et al. (2000, 516–517) observe that with the pressure for change surrounding organisations today, the recommended response is to organise for continuous change, to become a flexible organisation able to adapt quickly to environmental changes. Yet, despite the vast discussions supporting the drive towards successful change, the success rate of many change initiatives within organisations has been less than enviable (see, for example Helms Mills et al.2009, 33, 41). Sharma (2008, 23) proposes that change is correlated with pain, and is met in organisations with general apathy at best and stiff resistance at worst, and Abrahamson (2004, 3) states the relentless tidal shifts of change create pain at almost all levels in organisations and make change more difficult to manage, more costly to implement and more likely to fail. Thus, Beer (2008, 405) suggests that organisations, in general, are not adaptive; they are unable to transform their capabilities and behaviour to fit the changing business environment, and Morgan (2001) illustrates the situation with all the change efforts going on these days by stating that the workplace sometimes seems to have transformed into one continual change initiative, where change fatigue is widespread, and it's aggravated by a natural tendency to distrust change that is imposed from above. According to him, while to some it might be a relief to know that only a few of these efforts will actually be carried through to completion, that knowledge doesn't do much for morale (Morgan 2001).

According to Helms Mills et al.(2009, 41–42), the lack of success, together with increased competitive pressures, has served as a catalyst for the focus on understanding what makes change work, and as a result, an increase in study dedicated to change can be observed. Paton and McCalman (2000, 36) wish to highlight that, actually, change itself might not necessarily be a problem, as the possible sources of difficulty often lie in an inability to effectively *manage* change, which, according to Helms Mills et al. (2009, 10–11), is important for many reasons. Thus, Burnes (2005, 85) summarises, managing and changing organisations appears to be getting more rather than less difficult, and more rather than less important, and given the rapidly changing environment in which organisations operate, there is little doubt that the ability to manage change successfully needs to be a core competence for organisations.

As for definitions of change management, Hayes (2007) considers it to be about modifying or transforming organisations in order to maintain or improve their effectiveness, while according to Snell and White (2009, 200), it broadly refers to the activities associated with organisational change, and it includes the organisation's initiatives or strategies designed to change its people, technology, structure, processes, or a combination of those. However, it has been noted by many authors that managing change effectively is not easy and might pose challenges (see, for example Green 2007, 260; Hayes 2007, 21; Chew & Choo 2008, 112), and in accordance, Hayes (2007, 89) and Schein (2008, 50) consider human change and its management a complex process, while Woodman, Bingham and Yuan (2008, 211) refer to it as both an art and a science.

In the meantime, Helms Mills et al. (2009, 11), in accordance with Pettigrew, Woodman and Cameron (2001) also note how some argue that change needs to be understood from a holistic perspective; one that provides both a theoretical grounding and a practical application. As for the theoretical perspectives on change management, they propose that all management theories could be considered to be at the root of today's discourse on organisational change, adopted and well integrated current change models and techniques, including the early theories of scientific management and the human relations approach, as well as organisational behaviour concepts, with learning theory, motivation theory, organisational culture and theories of leadership and decision making. (Helms Mills et al.2009, 16, 24, 31–32.) In the meantime, Pettigrew et al. (2001) criticise change research and suggest that it should include multiple contexts and levels of analysis, focus on the role of time, history and process, link process to outcomes, provide international comparisons, and pay attention to the receptivity and pacing of change, and moreover, Abrahamson (2004, 5) notes how many change management theorists have not provided help on how to lead and manage change in organisations in a world of already excessive change.

Hence, it could indeed be argued, Helms Mills et al. (2009, 11), propose, that the process of change in organisations today is as much shrouded in threat and fear as it is

in opportunity and promise. To conclude, Appelbaum and Callagher (2000, 53) propose that organisations that are willing to change, prepare for change, and learn how to manage without over-controlling, might have a better than average chance of living beyond the average corporate life span, and Yates (2008, 21–22) suggests that organisations good at facilitating certain types of change could outperform their competitors.

Thus, in summary, Helms Mills et al. (2009, 9) observe, it can be claimed that change has been recognised as an important success factor in the survival of organisations, and several of ways of managing it have been developed. The authors further observe that when first introduced, change management research concentrated on discrete areas of behavioural science, focusing on leadership, training and attitude change, and eventually, aspects from the emerging fields of action research, laboratory training, participative management and survey feedback came together into a systematic approach aimed at changing the organisational structure, beliefs and value. (Helms Mills et al. 2009, 9). This approach then became known as *organisation development* (Helms Mills et al. 2009, 9), which, Lanning (2000, 11) observes, is the term under which the discussion on change in organisations is often handled.

When it comes to further examination and definitions, according to French and Bell (1990, 308), organisation development is based on a set of assumptions and values about people and groups in organisations, and instead of a program with a temporary quality, it is a process of planned improvement aimed at developing the organisation's internal resources for effective change in the future. Similarly, Burke (2008, 14, 31) notes that organisation development can be defined to be about managing and leading change in organisations, and Paton and McCalman (2000, 154, 165) define organisation development as an ongoing process for instigating and implementing change aimed at resolving issues through effective diagnosis and management of the organisation's culture, and as a process by which the members of an organisation can influence change and help the organisation achieve its goals, with which Senior (2002, 308) agrees and further illustrates that it can be said to have two important characteristics: first, it can be considered a process of change with a framework of recognisable phases, which take the organisation from its current state to a new, more desired, future state, and second, within and across these steps, it can be perceived a collection of activities and techniques that may help the organisation to move through these phases.

Furthermore, according to Jamieson and Worley (2008, 108, 110), organisation development always intends to produce two types of outcomes: individual development and organisation improvement, and the core values of the approach can be considered to be choice, participation, human dignity and learning. Similarly, Roth (2008, 493) states that organisational development, through attention to social responsibility and humanistic values, seeks to address the challenges emerged from many technical capabilities,

focused on operational and financial results, having had dehumanising effects on employees.

Finally, Cummings (2008, 1) summarises how organisation development, driven by organisations' increasing need to adapt to the rapidly changing environment and to manage change almost continuously, has spawned diverse approaches and methods, and from the origins of helping organisations cope with internal social problems, the approach has expanded to address more strategic issues of how organisations can structure and manage themselves for competitive advantage in a rapidly changing global environment. Meanwhile, Burke (2008, 14, 31) observes that among the various definitions for organisational development, some commonalities can be found, and in accordance with Lanning (2001, 11), notes that most definitions include one or more of the terms planned, applied behavioural science, system-wide, and improving an organisation's capacity for change and development. Similarly, Jamieson and Worley (2008, 109) consider organisation development a, somewhat imperfect, field of practice devoted to combining applied behavioural science and the art of change, and according to Paton and McCalman (2000, 121) even though the model is not new or radically different from the writings of many leading authors in the field, what it does, is placing design and development in the context of managing change. Ultimately, French and Bell (1990, 308) underline that it is a collaborative approach, not something that is done to somebody, but a process of people working together to improve their mutual effectiveness in attaining their mutual objectives.

Internal marketing

According to Gummesson (2000, 27), in marketing terminology, the concept of internal marketing is usually reserved for the application of marketing management knowledge – originally developed for external marketing – on the internal market of an organisation, the employees. Meanwhile, Foreman (2000, 125), Ferdous (2008, 225) and Snell and White (2009, 196) note that in recent times, marketing professionals and scholars have given considerable importance and attention to internal marketing, and Snell and White (2009, 196) further observe that the nature of such studies relates to defining the concept, which has proven to be challenging, mentioned also by Foreman (2000, 125). Similarly, according to Wieseke et al. (2009, 137), the underlying mechanism of how management can foster its positive effects still remains largely unknown, and Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 3) and Lings and Greenley (2005, 290) note that despite rapidly growing management and academic literature on internal marketing, relatively few organisations actually apply it in practice, and among the main problems contributing to this is the lack of a single unified concept of what is meant by internal marketing, which still remains ill-defined and poorly operationalised. In accordance, Flipo (2000, 63) observes that defining the concept is not simple, as at best, it is ambiguous with very different

meanings, and at worst, can sometimes even be considered an approach for manipulating people. Finally, as for the reasons for internal marketing not having achieved the wide-spread recognition amongst managers that it might deserve, Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, ix) argue that the concept was well ahead of its time, while Snell and White (2009, 200) propose that the fact that it remains ill-defined can be largely attributed to its wide ranging contextual possibilities.

Moreover, Wieseke et al. (2009, 123) note that despite its appeal and benefits, little empirical research exists on internal marketing, and Varey and Lewis (2000, 300) state that systematic work to examine how the various forms of internal marketing could be operated in a variety of settings and a suitable terminology would be needed, in such a form that makes sense generally to managers and not only to marketing specialists, which is somewhat in accordance with Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 3) who propose that a clarification at the definitional level would be necessary.

Nevertheless, several authors have attempted to define internal marketing. For instance, Grönroos (1990, 223) discusses it as a unifying concept for more effectively managing a variety of interfunctional and frequently well-established activities as part of an overall framework aiming at a common goal, and Hogg, Carter and Dunne (1998, 883) and Hogg and Carter (2000, 108, 109) propose it could be defined as using marketing techniques within the organisation to create and communicate corporate values, and as bringing about changes in employee attitudes and assumptions in order to influence the organisation's culture. Flipo (2000, 64), in turn, proposes that internal marketing could be considered a managerial perspective aimed at internally taking advantage of the competitive forces that shape the external markets, while enhancing co-operative behaviour among employees. Furthermore, Ballantyne (2000a, 274) considers internal marketing a relationship development strategy for the purpose of knowledge renewal and suggests that it could be used for developing relationships between staff across internal organisational boundaries (Ballantyne 2000b, 43), while according to Gilmore (2000, 76), the use of the term marketing in an internal context comprises of marketing concepts and theories that can be utilised in managing the efforts aimed at satisfying the needs of the internal customers. Both Ballantyne (2000b, 43) and Gilmore (2000, 76) further argue that the end purpose of internal marketing activity is to enhance external customer relationships, while Gummesson (2000, 27) suggests that even though in the end, the goal of internal marketing might lie in making employees better equipped to eventually handle the organisation's external marketing, it may also be used to support employees with understanding and adapting to present conditions, as well as to major changes. Ultimately and most recently, adopting a social identity theory perspective, Wieseke et al. (2009, 123) propose that internal marketing is fundamentally a process in which leaders infuse into followers a sense of oneness with the organisation, formally known as organisational identification.

When it comes to the origins of the concept, according to Varey (2000, 281), much of the literature on internal marketing has risen from the fields of retail service management and professional service marketing, as an approach to improving service quality and profitability, and Voima (2000, 238–239) notes that the origins of internal marketing can be said to be found in the transaction-based approach to marketing. Furthermore, based on literature of over two decades, Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 4) observe that three separate yet closely interwined strands of development of the internal marketing concept exist: an employee satisfaction phase, a customer orientation phase, and a strategy implementation or change management phase.

In the meantime, as for the possible benefits of internal marketing, many have stated that it has come to be seen as a mechanism for reducing departmental and interfunctional friction and organisational inertia and for motivating and integrating employees towards the effective implementation of corporate and functional strategies, as developing a marketing-oriented initiative that delivers a relevant value proposition through improved sharing of information and alignment of objectives might help to reduce anxiety and replace resistance with determination, commitment, greater loyalty and understanding (Rafiq & Ahmed 1993, 222; Dunne & Barnes 2000, 194; Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 9; Varey 2002, 221). Dunne and Barnes (2000, 204) further propose that a potential for deeply personal value creation exists, which may be seen when employees perceive that the organisation has recognised and genuinely cares about meeting their needs.

Related to such notions, Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, ix) and Varey (2002, 218) note that it has been shown that any type of organisation could use internal marketing to facilitate the implementation of organisational strategies. Similarly, Varey and Lewis (2000, 296) suggest that a broadened concept of internal marketing could help to mobilise an organisation's purpose by providing a mechanism for co-producing and arranging organisational values and ambitions in a way that is meaningful to each one of the organisation's members, and Ballantyne (2003, 1254) highlights that even though it might at first glance seem to be no more than conventional marketing exchange turned inward, the emphasis is on mutual value, where two sides to the benefits are transparent to all parties, and promises made are fulfilled. In addition, Lings and Greenley (2005, 291–292) discuss establishing an internal marketing orientation, which involves the generation and dissemination of intelligence regarding the wants and needs of employees, and the design and implementation of appropriate responses to meet them.

Moreover, Varey and Lewis (2000, 299) suggest that marketing specialists could take part in co-ordinating exchange processes across all business functions, and also, in disseminating process know-how and tools in the organisation. However, Snell and White (2009, 206–207) argue, when applying internal marketing a diverse approach should be consulted in developing an effective program that meets the organisation's strategic

direction, which implies that internal marketing cannot be treated as a specialist area residing within the functional responsibility of any one department. Similarly, Dunne and Barnes (2000, 194, 211) propose that in order to provide greater utility and results to their organisation, it might prove useful to coordinate the efforts of both marketing and human resources functions to identify and address the needs and concerns of employees, and Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 57, 61) suggest that internal marketing would seem dependent on supporting human resources management policies if it is to succeed. Also in accordance, Snell and White (2009, 195) further note that internal marketing is indeed practised, with varying degrees of sophistication, in order to execute wide ranging projects related to marketing and human resources.

Furthermore, Dunne and Barnes (2000, 213) also observe that it has been suggested that human resources departments would develop a program of internal relationship marketing aimed at developing the relationship between the employee and the company, thereby addressing both marketing and human resource issues, and Lings and Greenley (2005, 290), who discuss establishing an internal marketing orientation, argue that one of its fundamental ideas is the concept of exchange between employees and the organisation, examined in the human resources management literature, specifically in the application of equity theory.

However, applying marketing inside the organisation does not go without possible challenges. For instance, presenting another perception, Mudie (2000, 267) argues that marketing's agitation, vitality and creativity are absent in internal marketing, and describes internal marketing as impersonal, unemotional and hygienic, operating in a vacuum starved of controversy, power and conflict, while Varey (2000, 289) argues that even though marketing has been theorised as participative, voluntary exchange, it is still mostly practised as strategic or consensual. Mudie (2000, 255) also suggests that the vast array of persuasion techniques that employees are subject to can be considered inappropriate, and marketing conduct, either internal or external, may sometimes risk to be seen as manipulative and exploitative. Thus, internal marketing practice may face several challenges from the organisational environment, and its thoughtless application might even lead to employee cynicism toward their organisation (Dunne & Barnes 2000, 210; Mudie 2000, 270). Consequently, Zorn et al. (2000, 557) underline that in any persuasive process, there are obvious ethical questions to be considered and any parties promoting and engaging in active persuasion processes should also discuss such tactics as persuasive, and Dunne and Barnes (2000, 210) suggest that the position of an internal marketing initiative should to be carefully communicated and implemented. Finally, Varey (2002, 215) suggests that internal marketing should be viewed as a management philosophy for both motivation and support, rather than a short-lived exhortation program or campaign to boost attention, while Varey and Lewis (2000, 294) more

generally state that marketing should aim at being a mechanism of exchange, not a bundle of co-ordinated techniques for mass manipulation.

Communication

Communication can be considered an important aspect of organisational life, and according to Tourish and Hargie (2004b, 12), attempts to even define what organisations are would founder without a clear acknowledgement of communication processes. Indeed, the authors also note, organisational communication is among the fastest growing of academic disciplines, and research publications in the field have mushroomed in the latest years, with considerable evidence presented to show that companies with effective communication strategies are successful, while those with poor internal communications tend to struggle (Tourish & Hargie 2004a, xii). Similarly, in another study, engaging employees in the business through communication, involving internal communicators in managing change and measuring the performance of communication programs were mentioned among the secrets of top performing organisations (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2007, 7)

However, despite the breadth of the field of research on communication, Tourish and Hargie (2004a, xii) note that a gap still remains between the triangular strands of the day-to-day practice of organisations, management theory and communications research. Therefore, they stress the importance of devoting time and resources to communication and building bridges between the often disparate study fields of management and organisational communication (Tourish & Hargie 2004b, 6). Likewise, Russ (2008, 209) proposes that more research is needed about these communication approaches, as most organisations must frequently make vital changes to compete and survive in the global marketplace, especially given the high rate of failure of most change initiatives, while Dawson (2004, 73) argues that communication is a complex process that, despite all current research efforts, requires further debate and critical appraisal.

The importance of communication has also been underlined by many authors regarding both (internal) marketing and change management. As for internal marketing, Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 198, 201) argue that its common application is in the crafting of internal communication strategies, and Stauss and Hoffmann (2000, 143) consider the target group of employees and the instrument of communication policy of the highest relevance. Meanwhile, Varey (2000, 289) argues that is perhaps ironic that in the field of marketing, which has its emphasis on exchange and communication, has not been in close contact with the field of communication, and Varey and Lewis (2000, 295) suggest that internal marketing could actually be considered internal communication, since marketing is simply a special case of a human communication process. Furthermore, Frambach and Schillewaert (2001, 165) discuss an example of innovation adoption and argue that as it is largely an information-processing activity, suppliers' communication

activities will not only create awareness, they also influence potential customers' perceptions of the innovation, and thus it could be stated that marketing communications indirectly affect potential adopters' propensity to adoption. Finally, in his article, Ferdous (2008, 223) attempts to extend the notion of integrated marketing communication to an organisation's internal marketing and consequently show how the concept of internal communications may enhance profitability resulting through employee buy-in, commitment and trust.

Thomson and Hecker (2000, 160), among others, observe how organisations are going through dramatic and fundamental changes in order to survive in an increasingly competitive, fast-moving global environment and further note that with flatter organisations, less clear reporting lines and the blurring of roles and job titles, the lines of communication have become more complex and messages more difficult for employees, and similarly, according to Zorn et al. (2000, 515), the work experience of many is filled with communication about and promoting change.

Indeed, communication has widely been recognised as a critical factor in successfully implementing any change in an organisation, and numerous authors have noted that no initiative designed to implement change in the organisation can succeed in isolation, as successful change requires a portfolio of linked communication activities (Appelbaum & Callagher 2000, 50; Hogg & Carter 2000, 121; Paton & McCalman 2000, 92; Zorn 2000, 535; Lanning 2001, 24–36; Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 195; Cameron & Green 2004; Angdal et al. 2005, 51–52; Hayes 2007, 177; Welch & Jackson 2007, 177; Burke 2008, 25; Gilley, Dixon & Gilley 2008, 153; Russ 2008, 208; Yates 2008, 22; Peus, Frey, Gerkhardt, Fischer & Traut-Mattausch 2009, 170; Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 2). Furthermore, Zorn (2000, 535) considers change communication a practical necessity in the competitive business and government environment and Thomson and Hecker (2000, 165) stress the importance of communication and internal marketing by stating that during periods of change, they may have deep effects on the overall effectiveness of employees. Similarly, Lewis et al. (2006, 119, 132), in their study on the advice from a sample of bestselling popular press books, on communication during change implementation, found that nearly all the books for practitioners, at one point or another, to one degree or another, acknowledged the critical importance of communication. They also found that in response to expected resistance, or in an effort to simply ensure a smooth implementation of change, authors often encouraged change implementers to communicate frequently and enthusiastically about change, and recommended a number of general strategies for communicating and introducing change initiatives.

A key implication of all this, according to Hargie and Tourish (2004, 251), is that communications need to flow smoothly in all directions. However, as they also note, this will not just happen, it has to be facilitated. Correspondingly, also according to a

recent study, companies that communicate with courage, innovation and discipline, especially during times of economic challenge and change, have been found more effective at engaging employees and achieving desired business results (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 3).

1.2 Defining the purpose and structure of the study

By reflecting upon the notions observed on change and the managing of it, it would seem that change today is something almost all organisations face and need to aim at managing successfully, which has been noted to be challenging, resulting in that many change initiatives fail. What's more, Woodman et al. (2008, 211) note, a lot more change occurs in organisations than gets examined, written about, shared or used to develop and improve theory, and therefore, there appears to be room for further insights on the subject, and supporting that thought are Kets de Vries and Balaz (2008, 93) who indicate that life in organisations should not be wept over or laughed at, but understood and then improved.

Based on such insights, *managing change* towards success is chosen as a main theme and the context for this study. Furthermore, of special interest regarding change is the implementation phase, on which, assuming that all has gone well, the foundations of an achievable strategy for change will have been laid (Paton & McCalman 2000, 91). Lanning (2001, 1), too, proposes that it is the implementation phase and the effective tools used for carrying out the implementation where more attention should be paid and new constructs introduced and applied. Furthermore, several authors argue that the success of any program or effort is affected by how well it is implemented, and that many organisations have discovered to their cost that the formulation of brilliant strategies is next to useless without effective implementation (see, for example Paton & McCalman 2000, 91; Frambach & Schillewaert 2001, 167; Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, x, 103).

Also building on remarks from the field of current research and writings, *internal marketing* is studied as the main approach through which success with change implementation could be achieved. Such a decision could be seen to be supported by observations such as that of Snell and White (2009, 196), who note that most recent developments in the discussion suggest broadening the concept to include implementation processes of functional strategies, as internal marketing as a change management methodology has been suggested in a number of studies.

The third main theme in this study is holding *people* central when aiming for success with change, based on insights observed when studying change management and internal marketing, as well as the overall notion that as organisations consist of people, any change that requires things starting to be done in a different way, simply won't get im-

plemented unless individuals in the organisation adjust their behavior accordingly, in summary referred to by Paton and McCalman (2000, 267) as change management being about people management.

Sharing a similar view, Jobber (1995, 594) notes that the implementation of a new strategy may have profound effects on people in the organisation, and Zorn et al. (2000, 516) consider getting employees to buy into changes once they have been decided on at the top and are then to be implemented a key question. Similarly, Hultman and Axelsson (2005, 184) state that organising individuals' activities in an organisation is to a large extent about finding ways to make people behave according to certain patterns.

However, Hayes (2007, 151) notes, even though when thinking about managing change some might assume that organisations are well-integrated entities within which everybody works harmoniously together, where decision making is logical and rational and where people share similar views of the world around them and act to promote the interest of the organisation as a whole, that is rarely the case. Similarly, Kim and Mauborgne (2003), along with Woodman et al. (2008, 188) note that all parties involved in change programs might not necessarily have the same agenda, and it is not rare for attempts to lead change to get hindered by competing interests, while Paton and McCalman (2000, 176) argue that it is difficult to force change, as the parties most likely to be negatively impacted will resist the strongest. Finally, Hayes (2007, 227) suggests that change implementers need to develop an understanding of how people respond to change, and need to know the course of events associated with the process of transition, and the kinds of actions they can engage in to facilitate adaptation.

Therefore, in this study, based on notions regarding the importance of affecting individuals' behaviour when implementing change with success as it goal, of interest is to explore, not just the behaviour of change recipients, but further, the attitudes behind their behaviour, in order to develop an understanding of what the underlying elements affecting individuals' attitudes, and through them behaviour, are regarding change, as building on such observations, more appropriate means for supporting them with adopting it could perhaps be designed. Furthermore, in addition to considering understanding them, inviting people to participate and get involved with change implementation is also regarded among the key means for reaching success. Finally, by considering the human element key in change implementation, it could be argued that a point-of-view related to the field of organisational development is chosen.

Ultimately, due to the emphasis given to it both in the fields of internal marketing and change management, the fourth main theme of interest in this study is *communication*. In addition to regarding communication as a possible tool for supporting change and applying marketing internally, it is also observed as the means for putting into action many of the supportive strategies suggested by authors from the other fields studied. Also at the basis of that theme choice, and somewhat the others as well, are notions

such as that of Varey and Lewis (2000, 300), who state that empirical research is needed in order to reveal how internal marketing could operate as a process for change management in organisations, and to develop a framework that deals with the integration of marketing, quality management and human resource management principles – all based on contemporary communication theory.

Thus, in this study, the aim is to explore how change could be implemented towards success, and how internal marketing could be applied to support that. However, as it has been noted that the human element is vital when aiming for success with change, and should be taken thoroughly into consideration, the means for supporting change with internal marketing are mainly explored as ways for affecting individuals' attitudes in order to achieve behavioural change, through first observing what affects attitudes. Then, with all the insights accumulated from different fields on supporting successful change implementation, the goal is to explore the field of communication in order to find the key means for putting into action the strategies proposed.

Based on such notions, the main purpose of this study is presented as: How could internal marketing as an approach for change implementation be facilitated? The purpose has further been divided into three research questions:

What does change implementation in organisations consist of?

What elements does internal marketing involve?

In what ways can change implementation be supported?

In this study, the empirical phase of research is conducted within the field of travel management, with the example case of introducing an online self-booking tool to employees.

As for the structure of the study, to begin, a framework is built based on earlier studies and writings, and the first chapter has been designed to provide insights to all the research questions in a manner that allows information to accumulate towards the end. Implementing change towards success is discussed first, with some deliberately defined limitations. First, change is considered something with a beginning, a middle part and an end, as opposed to a constant state of being. The parties involved in change are referred to as either the change implementers, who are on the side of initiating the change, or the change recipients, to whom the change is targeted, and who might need to adjust their behaviour in order for the change to be implemented – or from their point-of-view, adopted. Also, a choice of not setting a limit to the type, origin or size of change is made, and thus insights are gathered from a variety of perspectives.

The tools for applying internal marketing are discussed second, also with a set of limits. Internal marketing is presented as a tool suitable for facilitating any intra-organisational process, in the framework of this study change implementation that doesn't cross the organisation's outside boundaries, and even though it has been observed and understood that many earlier studies and writings on internal marketing have

been conducted with an external goal in sight, insights from them are also included in the discussion.

The third part involves examining the attitudes of individuals and their possible underlying causes, the ways in which they could be influenced, and how the information obtained could then be employed for supporting change implementation. As for limits, not very detailed descriptions are discussed, and the possible attitudes of individuals towards a certain change initiative are classified into positive, neutral and negative.

After that, the means for influencing the change recipients' behaviour are discussed, by observing how positive attitude could be enforced and negative overcome. As the structure has been designed for accumulating information, in the discussion are included insights and suggestions from all the previous areas discussed. In the final part of the first chapter, the field of communication is examined to find the means most appropriate for designing communication strategies for supporting change implementation in the various ways suggested in the previous section.

Subsequently, the two stages of empirical research conducted for this study are discussed and their findings presented. The goal of the empirical phase is to develop a deeper understanding of change implementation and the ways to support it, through insights from the practical field. As this study has had the opportunity for close to cooperation with two organisations, the Finnish Business Travel Association FBTA and VTT Technical Research Centre of Finland, for conducting the empirical phase, valuable and deep practical expertise has been offered for designing the context, travel management in organisations, set based on the researcher's personal interest and the cooperation partners' field-specific knowledge. Moreover, as a practical example case of change implementation in a travel management context, the broadening of the use of an online travel tool at VTT is observed.

Then, before discussing the results, the means and research approaches designed and studied for obtaining and analysing them are described. With the two stages of research, the goal is to obtain perceptions from respondents representing either the change implementers or the change recipients in the framework of implementing a travel management tool. This is done through first conducting qualitative interviews with travel management experts, and then inviting VTT employees to participate in a quantitative survey.

Ultimately, to conclude the study, the information gathered on the different phases are combined in order to strengthen the understanding of how the important, yet often challenging, change implementation could be supported by internal marketing. In addition, the results of the study will be made available to FBTA and the travel management at VTT, for instance to be considered when planning and executing the implementation of the new online tool, and thus this study aims at providing insights to both academic discussion as well as the practical field.

2 INTERNAL MARKETING AS AN APPROACH TO SUPPORTING CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION

In this chapter, the main themes of the study are explored in order to build a framework for understanding how change implementation could be supported towards reaching its goals with internal marketing, through affecting individuals' attitudes in order to achieve behavioural change. Then, after all the insights accumulated from different fields on supporting successful change implementation, the field of communication is observed for ways of putting into action the strategies proposed.

2.1 Implementing change in organisations

Klein and Sorra (1996, 1055, 1057) define implementation as the process through which the targeted organisational members' appropriate and committed use of an innovation is gained, while Agndal, Axelsson and Melin (2005, 43) propose that implementation is attained by individuals through an ongoing process where they interpret and act in regard to the organisational and environmental pressures to, triggers of and barriers to change. Paton and McCalman (2000, 2) compare implementing change into taking a journey, which is impossible without first addressing the purpose of the trip, the route one wishes to travel and with whom.

2.1.1 Setting the goals for implementation: defining success and failure

Lanning (2001, 15, 23) proposes that one way of looking at change is to begin with searching the ingredients for a successful change effort, as according to him, if objectives are set at helping managers successfully plan and implement change, it is important to define what success means. Mathews (2009, 7) argues that the goals of change management lie in refashioning and resurging structures, technology and people in accordance with the framework laid for the situation, while Green (2007, 245) suggests that change implementers should aim at creating orientation to change, and then organising, mobilising and implementing the transition.

As for examples of possible change initiative objectives, Klein and Sorra (1996, 1055) note that a range of implementation outcomes exists, and Jobber (1995, 614) illustrates the objectives of change by means of a ladder of support, which ranges from outright opposition to full commitment, and according to him, implementers need the skills to deal with opposition and foster commitment. The stance of *direct opposition* is taken by those with much to lose from the implementation, and who believe they have

the political strength to stop proposed change. With *resistance*, opposition is less overt and may take a more passive form such as delaying tactics. *Compliance* means that people act in accordance with the plan, but may do so without much enthusiasm. Yet a higher level of support is gained when people *accept* the worth of the plan and actively realise its goals. However, it should be noted that while their minds may be won, their hearts are not set on fire, which limits the extent of their motivation. The ultimate goal in an effective implementation programme is *commitment*, when people not only accept the worth of the plan but also pledge themselves to secure its success. (Jobber 1995, 598–599.)

When it comes to evaluating implementation success, Salminen (2000, 15) proposes that all change efforts can be placed somewhere along the continuum between extremely successful and total failure. According to him, the success of change initiatives could be defined as the degree to which it meets the goals set for it, is implemented on schedule and within budget, generates positive operational and economic results, and is perceived as successful by most internal and external stakeholders (Salminen 2000). Meanwhile, Nadler (2008, 449) considers successful change to depend on a strategy that is data based and diagnostic, and on leaders who through their ownership and participation become the instruments of change. According to him, successful change is both top down and bottom up; it is evolutionary, both planned and opportunistic (Nadler 2008, 449).

In the meantime, while many change initiatives have helped organisations to adapt to shifting conditions, improve their competitive standing and better their position for the future, several authors have also noted, as briefly observed also earlier in this study, that difficulties may arise with change implementation, as in many situations the results of change initiatives have been disappointing, with wasted resources and burned-out, scared or frustrated employees (see, for example Kotter 1996, 3–4; Varey 2002, 216; Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 105). Similarly, Pfeifer and Schmitt (2005, 298) recognise implementation among the most problematic stages in change processes and Lanning (2001, 1) argues that although undergoing developments can be considered important for organisations, as noted also by Hayes (2007, 21), many change efforts simply fail to achieve their intended outcomes. Unsuccessful change efforts might fail to produce the intended performance enhancements, end up being delayed or much more costly than budgeted, and in some situations, might even cause harm to the overall performance of an organisation (Lanning 2001, 1). According to Klein and Sorra (1996, 1055), implementation failure occurs when employees use the innovation less frequently, less consistently, or less diligently than required for the potential benefits of the innovation to be realised.

As for the reasons for failure, Paton and McCalman (2000, 142, 176) suggest that most failures at the implementation stage result from unanticipated consequences of the change process, and mention misunderstanding what change is about, as according to

them change is a journey, not an event. An old saying exists: *If you fail to plan, you plan to fail.* (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 20) and also in change efforts, the lack of planning and preparation may lead to failure (Paton & McCalman 2000, 142). According to Varey (2002, 216) and Hayes (2007, 87), many difficulties with change implementation can be accounted for by treating planning and implementation separate, and Paton and McCalman (2000, 35, 168) underline the importance of both planning and management, as, according to them, change does not occur on an ad hoc basis. However, in an article by Morgan (2001) it is suggested that organisations need to be ready to make changes to the change plan, and in accordance, Senior (2002, 357) and Pfeifer and Schmitt (2005, 297) argue that even though the implementation process needs to be planned and controlled, a change process is usually dynamic, and thus success is more likely when plans remain flexible. Finally, Paton and McCalman (2000, 35) suggest that as time is a vital commodity that never seems to exists in abundance, a balance is needed between planning and execution.

Meanwhile, as a possible result of a change effort failing, Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 199–200) present a negative cycle of implementation. When managerial perceptions are unclear, employee commitment is affected, and that vagueness and low commitment have unfavourable consequences to the progress of implementation. In the negative cycle, ideas are not shared and sufficient support to the knowledge and learning effort is not gained. (Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 200.)

According to Kotter (1996, 19), based on previous records about unsuccessful change efforts, some might even have come to the conclusion that organisations are, simply, unable to change much, but yet, many success stories also exist in the field of change, and difficulties with implementation can be overcome. Moreover, Green (2007, 202) underlines that due to the uncertain nature of change, taking wrong turns might actually be part of the process towards success, and Morgan (2001) suggests that according to experts, learning from previous internal change projects and best practice guidelines might help reduce the risk of failure.

2.1.2 Reaching for the goals: change implementation as a process

When it comes to observing the field of managing change, according to Mathews (2009, 7), it has been approached from different angles based on the theoretical predilections and preferences of both theoreticians and practitioners of management. Morgan (2001) proposes that among to the reasons for unsuccessful change efforts is the failure to address the underlying processes used to get the work done, and according to Senior (2002, 205), regardless of the content of any change, many have agreed that it is in fact the process through which the organisation must go to get from one state to another that

brings the most problems. Somewhat similarly, as in his study, Lanning (2001, 2) found that according to survey results from internal change projects, half of the respondents lacked knowledge on how to carry out change in organisations, he suggests that a clear need can be found for a practical construct for implementing change, and finally, Mathews (2009, 7) argues that change ought to be introduced into the organisation in a systematic manner. In accordance, Storey (1992, 118–119) suggests discussing more the how than the what of change processes, and based on extensive case studies he argues that managers attempting to implement change processes tend to pose themselves three questions: how to intervene, where to intervene and how to maintain change.

In his study, Lanning (2001, 12) observes that one of the most acknowledged theories and practices in the field is that of planned change, the notion of which has led to different kinds of models for carrying out the planning itself as well as the action following it, and what these models describing change have in common is that they all contain a sequence of phases, or steps or stages, to be carried out. Lanning (2001, 10) further argues that planned change processes can differ from each other when it comes to the scope and the subject matter of the case, or the thoroughness of change, and Angdal et al (2005, 51–52) propose that the type of change involved has an effect on the planning efforts as well as the suitable routes for the change process, as well as on the duration of the actual implementation phase.

Lewin's model

As for example Lanning (2001, 12) and Helms Mills et al. (2009, 42) note, an important figure in the creation and development of the field of organisational change is Kurt Lewin – sometimes even considered the creator of the planned approach to organisational change. Among Lewin's best known contributions is the three step change process, which comprises of *unfreezing* the old, moving to new, and *refreezing* the new behaviour or situation. Lewin is said to have believed that groups were consistently in a quasi-stationary state, analogous to a river flowing; in constant motion but in only one direction. That balance was maintained by social forces, some driving, others resisting the flow, and only by changing or driving the resisting forces could change occur. With further study of the phenomenon of group change, Lewin observed that higher levels of group performance were often short-lived; employees tended to return to their original behaviours after the change was implemented. (Helms Mills et al.2009, 47.) According to Helms Mills et al. (2009, 47) Lewin[1] concluded that in order for change to be permanent, old habits need to be discarded and new ones firmly established. Based on that notion and further research, he then presented the three step model of change.

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[1] Lewin, K. (1947) Frontiers in Group Dynamics. *Human Relations,* Vol. 1, 2–38.

To summarise the stages, at the first level, group members have a felt need for change, which can be achieved through confrontation or education. In the case of a group or organisation, the members must understand the need for change, and have a desire for it. It needs to be made clear why the old way of doing things no longer is acceptable. The second stage is where the change actually occurs and the organisation moves to the desired state, and new policies, procedures, structures, behaviours, values and attitudes are developed. On the third and final stage of the model, changes are reinforced and supported, and it is essential to ensure that organisation systems are consistent with the change, and for example reward systems and social support may be used to encourage desired behaviours. (Helms Mills et al.2009, 48.) According to Shani and Docherty (2008, 502), in Lewin's model, the first phase of unfreezing indicates the insights, attitude changes, and even new knowledge and skills that are prerequisites for the coming change process, and the third phase of refreezing has similar implications, including the acquisition of the competences, norms and values necessary for the new system to function efficiently and effectively.

Helms Mills et al. (2009, 49) consider Lewin's contribution to the discourse of planned change undeniable. They state that managing change requires significant organisational commitment both before and after the change, and the model and its stages consider the organisation's environment in its entirety, and recognise the need for openness to change before it occurs, and support for change once it has occurred. They argue that although originally recognised many decades ago, these still remain the biggest oversights organisations make when attempting to implement change initiatives. (Helms Mills et al.2009, 49.)

According to Helms Mills et al. (2009, 43), the contributions of Lewin have had a lasting impact on the discipline of change, and actually, many of more modern theories in the field of organisational change can simply be seen as evolutions of his original ideas, and Hayes (2007, 82) summarises some of such process models for change, which can be considered elaborations of Lewin's original model. According to him, the models highlight the importance of diagnosis, strategies and plans, and implementation. Diagnosis consists of giving attention to where the organisation is now and to what a more desirable and attainable state would look like. Strategies and plans are needed to move the organisation towards the desired state, and finally, implementation is when intentions are translated into actual change efforts, and it also involves managing the interpersonal and political issues associated with change. (Hayes 2007, 82.)

However, as Helms Mills et al. (2009, 49) also note, Lewin's widely recited change model was developed during significantly times. Some critics of the continued use of Lewin's model suggest that today's more turbulent times call for newer, more relevant tools, while others argue that organisations today lack the time to unfreeze or refreeze, and similarly, the face of the workforce has changed since the 1940s and 1950s, with

increased diversity, which calls into question the relevance and applicability of behaviour research of that time. (Helms Mills et al.2009, 50.) According to Mathews (2009, 8), Lewin's model is vague and ambiguous and lacks clear specifications and clarifications when mega change efforts are undertaken. Also, it lays emphasis on human factors alone, and thereby, ignores aspects of the internal and the external environment of the organisation. He further states that soft elements can determine the very nature of change management, but managing these aspects alone is not sufficient to implement the planned change. (Mathews 2009, 8.)

Kotter's model

According to Helms Mills et al. (2009, 52, 53), among the most recent and popular prescriptions for planned change is Kotter's model, which is an example of the prescriptions available to organisations wishing to address change within the realm of organisational development. When discussing his model, Kotter (1996, 4–16) proposes that while the downside of change is inevitable to some degree, as pain is present whenever human communities are forced to adjust to shifting conditions, a significant amount of the anguish sometimes related to change can be avoided. He then presents the steps needed for achieving successful change of any magnitude in organisations in a model of eight stages, with the most common mistakes made when trying to implement change in organisations at their basis. According to him, the first four steps in the process help defrost a hardened status quo, and the phases five to seven then introduce the new practices, while the last stage grounds the changes in the organisational culture and helps make them stick. (Kotter 1996, 4–16, 20–22.)

The first step is titled *establishing a sense of urgency*, and it comprises of examining realities and identifying and discussing potential crises or major opportunities, and on the step people start to notice and share the need to change things (Kotter 1996, 21; Kotter & Cohen 2002, 7). Kotter (1996, 5, 44) further argues that a sense of urgency is necessary because without it, people in the organisation are not likely to give the often essential extra effort or make the sacrifices needed, and among the ways of raising the urgency level are creating a true crisis by allowing errors to blow up instead of correcting them at the last minute, putting more honest discussions about the organisation's possible problems up in organisational communication, and bombarding people with information about future challenges and opportunities. Meanwhile, in accordance with the goal of creating create awareness regarding the need for change, Angdal et al. (2005, 46) when discussing Kotter's model, note that while it might not be necessary to do that among a wide group of people, it is crucial not to ignore the ones that might potentially oppose change.

On the second step a *guiding coalition* is created, by putting together a group with enough power to lead change, and getting the group to work together like a team (Kotter

1996, 21; Kotter & Cohen 2002, 7). When building a coalition that can make change happen, Kotter (1996, 66) presents three important aspects. First, the right people with strong position power, broad expertise and high credibility and with both leadership and management skills need to be found, then, trust needs to be created through carefully planned off-site events and lots of talk and joint activities, and finally, a common goal is needed, which is sensible to the head and appealing to the heart (Kotter 1996, 66). Building coalitions is also discussed by Kanter (1999, 18). She argues that change leaders need the involvement of people who have the resources, the knowledge, and the political clout to make things happen: the opinion shapers, the experts in the field, the values leaders. According to her, even though it might sound obvious, coalition building is perhaps the most neglected step in the change process. (Kanter 1999, 18.)

The third step involves the guiding team *developing a vision and strategy*, which includes a vision to help direct the change effort, and strategies for achieving that vision (Kotter 1996, 21, Kotter & Cohen 2002, 7). According to Kotter (1996, 7), the lack of an appropriate vision might easily lead to confusing, incompatible and time-consuming projects that go in the wrong direction, or nowhere at all, and Paton and McCalman (2000, 12, 142) illustrate that if the people in an organisation do not know where their organisation is going, they can't get there, and defining a future that no one can buy into will slow or hinder the change itself. In accordance with such notions, in a study by Lewis et al. (2006, 119), it was found that maintaining or establishing a vision for the change is a prominent activity identified for change leaders by many authors. Moreover, Bommer et al. (2005, 739) suggest that vision articulating behaviour on the part of the leader is one important means of bringing about a felt need, which is important as without a perceived need on the part of employees, change may be viewed as unnecessary and disruptive with little chance of real change taking place, and in accordance, Peus et al. (2009, 170) note that an inspiring vision, which justifies sacrifices on the way to achieving it, is an important factor in facilitating positive employee reactions to change. However, in Morgan's (2001) article, Kanter notes that it's very difficult for leaders to spell out in advance precisely what the future state should look like, and so many who try merely get it wrong. According to Morgan (2001), a good leader uses an approach referred to by Kanter as IKIWISI – I'll know it when I see it.

On the fourth step, that *vision is communicated* and people begin to buy into the change, which starts to show in their behaviour (Kotter & Cohen 2002, 7). When communicating the change vision, every vehicle possible is used to constantly communicate the new vision and strategies, and the guiding coalition role models the behaviour expected of employees (Kotter 1996, 21). Angdal et al. (2005, 47–48) propose that when communicating goals and means, one should always meet, and never avoid, fears, opposition and lack of understanding change, while Senior (2002, 256) and Pfeifer and Schmitt (2005, 298), argue that barriers to success might result if visions and strategies

are not communicated to employees in a comprehensive way and strategic objectives are not broken down by means of target definitions on the employee level, as the participation of those affected is not achieved. However, if ambitions related to the change process are perceived as unrealistic or unclear, the intended change is likely to never be realised. Thus, strategy and vision should not be communicated before they are well developed. (Angdal et al. 2005, 47–48.)

On the fifth step, action is *empowered* and more people first feel able to act and then do act, on the vision (Kotter & Cohen 2002, 7). The goals at the fifth stage are getting rid of obstacles, changing systems or structures that undermine the change vision, and encouraging risk taking and non-traditional ideas, activities and actions (Kotter 1996, 21). When empowering people to effect change, Kotter (1996, 115) suggests that organisational structures are made compatible with the vision, employees are provided with the training they need, information and personnel systems are aligned to the vision, and any supervisors belittling the need for change confronted.

Next, *short-term wins* are generated, through planning for visible improvements in performance, or wins, creating them, and visibly recognising and rewarding people who made the wins possible (Kotter 1996, 21). According to Kotter (1996, 123), short-term wins may help in achieving change through providing evidence that sacrifices are worth it, rewarding change agents with a pat on the back, helping fine-tune vision and strategies, undermining cynics and resisters, keeping bosses on board and building momentum.

On the seventh step, the goal is to *consolidate gains* and produce more change, by using increased credibility to change all systems, structures and policies that don't fit together and don't fit the transformation vision, by hiring, promoting and developing people who can implement the change vision, and by reinvigorating the process with new projects, themes and participants (Kotter 1996, 21). The step aims at not letting up, which results in people making wave after wave of changes, until the vision is fulfilled (Kotter & Cohen 2002, 7). While it has been noted that it takes time for new systems to bed in, at the end of the change process, the concentration towards supporting and nurturing the change and the people involved, might decline. However, as Senior (2002, 284) underlines, there is no justification for that decline, as the consolidation phase is one of the most crucial ones if the change is to be accepted and successful.

The final step is *anchoring the new approaches* in the culture, which can be achieved through creating better performance, more and better leadership, and more effective management, through articulating the connections between new behaviours and organisational success, and through developing means to ensure leadership development and succession (Kotter 1996, 21). On the eighth and final step of making change stick, new and winning behaviour continues on, despite the pull of getting back to old traditions, or the turnover of the original change leaders, for example (Kotter & Cohen 2002, 7). Kot-

ter (1996, 155) states that most alterations in norms and shared values come at the end of the change process, and that new approaches usually sink into a culture only after it has become clear that they work and can be considered superior to old methods. Also, getting change anchored in a culture requires a lot of talk, as without verbal instructions and support, people often tend to be reluctant to admit the validity of new practices. (Kotter 1996, 156).

Kotter and Cohen (2002, 6) note that while not all change processes rigidly follow the eight step model, it is still very applicable in many change situations. Kotter (1996, 23–24) strongly underlines the importance of going through all the eight stages, usually in the sequence presented earlier, and states that even though change implementers often operate on multiple stages at once, skipping even a single step or getting too far ahead without a solid base almost always creates problems, as change might come across as unnatural, forced or mechanistic, and might fail to create the momentum needed to overcome enormously powerful sources of inertia. Finally, he also notes that without the follow-through of the last step, the finish line may never be reached nor the changes made stick (Kotter 1996, 23).

According to Angdal et al. (2005, 48) Kotter's model can be considered very straightforward, capturing a great deal of relevant practical experience, and it provides a great deal of actionable guidance for managers involved in change processes, but at the same time, could be criticised for being oversimplified and too rationalistic. Meanwhile, Cameron and Green (2004, 102) who introduce an adaptation of Kotter's change model, see communicating, engaging and empowering others an ongoing process as the change unfolds, and consider noticing improvements important by examining the change process in order to see what is working and what might need attention. Green (2007, 200) further suggests that their underlying assumption is that change cannot be fully controlled, but needs different kinds of interventions at different times, and Angdal et al. (2005, 51–52) propose that one should expect different process patterns depending whether change is run top-down with strong leaders possibly willing to show dedication by exercising power, or bottom-up based on learning and self-motivated staff.

Ultimately, Dawson (2004, 67) argues that academics have tended to be seduced by the attractiveness of memorable models and planned step guides to change, which enable portraying an ability to keep pace with the stream of popular panaceas and offer readily digestible practical benefits. Similarly, Lanning (2001, 15) notes that many phase models for change management have received critique for their oversimplifying nature and the lack of causality and clear contingency frameworks, Angdal et al. (2005, 48) observe that the process of change rarely conforms to mere simple checklists, and Senior (2002, 205) suggests bearing in mind that change in organisations could be described as rather a transformation process from the current state to the desired one, than merely a series of mechanically designed steps.

Other approaches to change

According to Green (2007, 20, 55), the different paradigms, metaphors and approaches to change provided by different authors have implications for change implementers on how to construct a change process and on what kind of a role and style to take. According to Senior (2002, 283), in the case of change initiatives of a definite, hard nature, implementation will rarely be a problem, while with those tending towards softness, it will be a test of how much people involved in the change have participated in its design. She further observes that designing change in softer situations needs to attend to issues such as problem ownership, the role of communication and the participation and commitment of the people involved in the change process itself (Senior 2002, 300).

Meanwhile, according to Beer, Eisenstat and Spector (1990, 161), in the management of change, timing is everything, and regarding that notion, Paton and McCalman (2000, 92) and Senior (2002, 283) present three strategies for change implementation. *Pilot studies* provide the greatest opportunity for subsequent review of the change, as assumptions and procedures can be tested, arguments developed and the likely future acceptance of the fully implemented change increased. However, they also delay full implementation and allow those who may wish to resist the change to adopt delaying tactics. (Paton & McCalman 2000; 93, Senior 2002, 283.) Meanwhile, a *parallel running* implementation strategy may also be adopted, with slowly phasing out the old system as the new becomes more reliable and understood (Paton & McCalman 2000, 93). According to Senior (2002, 283), parallel running applies most frequently to the implementation of new computer systems, but may also be applied to other kinds of change, and it comprises of a new system being run, for a while, alongside the old system, until confidence is gained that the new system is reliable and effective. Finally, *Big bang* implementation maximises the speed of change but may also generate maximum resistance, at least in the short term (Paton & McCalman 2000, 93; Senior 2002, 284), and according to Senior (2002, 284), carries a high risk of failure unless planned very carefully. Both Paton and McCalman (2000, 93) and Senior (2002, 284) conclude that compromise generally provides the answer, and that implementation often involves a blend of all three strategies.

Also regarding timing in change implementation, when discussing the approach of change without pain, Abrahamson (2004, 9) proposes that a technique titled *pacing* exists. According to him, pacing aims to achieve change without pain through alternating, over time, periods of greater stability with periods of greater change, in order to use the benefits of each one to counterbalance the pain brought on by the other. He also notes that the masters of change do not change for change's sake; they keep things stable when stability is right, and make changes only when necessary. (Abrahamson 2004, 165, 204.)

In addition, Abrahamson (2004, 8) presents a second alternative approach to change, titled *creative recombination*, in order to distinguish it from the concept of creative destruction, which refers to change that destroys and removes existing organisational assets to make room for newly created ones. According to him, creative recombination aims at minimising disruptive and painful destruction by using assets an organisation already has and recombining them creatively in a new and successful fashion. He underlines the importance of not letting the thought of no pain, no change remain the standard, as otherwise it might become a ready-made justification for why change is so difficult, for why so many change attempts fail, and thus for more change management fads (Abrahamson 2004, 9, 20.) According to Abrahamson (2004, 20), his thought of change without pain can be considered an ideal that, even if unachievable, could challenge and push people who develop advice about change management to craft better approaches to change itself.

Furthermore, de Caluwé and Veermak (2004) conceptualise five different approaches, distinguished by colours, for making change interventions: *Blue* – change through design, is most often the approach that can be seen in organisations. It is a project management approach to change, and involves careful planning and detailed analysis before the change can be achieved. *Yellow* – change through addressing interests, notices the political aspects in organisations and recognises that there are winners and losers in all change situations. *Red* – change through people, is an approach that recognises that change in any organisation is predominately achieved through people. *Green* – change through learning, is an approach which states that change can be achieved as a direct result of learning. Finally, *White* – change through emergence, is about building the conditions optimal for change to occur, but without specifying the exact nature of the changes. (de Caluwé & Veermak 2004.)

Also taking part in the discussion on different approaches to change is Beer (2008), who presents two opposing theories of organisation transformation, E and O, the failure of corporate leaders to integrate them, and an emerging theory and method of organisation development for integrating these opposing perspectives. According to Beer (2008, 406), theory E has as its goals economic value creation, and concentrates on the hard facets of organisations, such as financial performance, strategy, structure and systems, while theory O aims at enhancing organisation effectiveness and focuses on the organisation's culture and people. Beer (2008, 406, 424) argues that a successful transformation needs to embrace the paradox represented by the two theories, E and O, of change, and according to him, an integrated E and O approach can lead to fundamental transformation in both organisation capabilities and economic value.

Ultimately, Lanning (2001, 21) suggests that change could be considered a special field in project management, as according to him, change efforts in organisations are, or at least could be perceived as projects, as they usually have predefined starting and end-

ing dates, objectives and schedules. According to him, change projects ought to be managed as projects with thorough planning and strict co-ordination, but with still bearing in mind that change in organisations always deals with changing the way people behave, and thus unavoidably also with organisational learning (Lanning 2001, 23). Similarly, also Paton and McCalman (2000, 110) discuss a project management approach to change, total project management, which consists of both technological, systems-based and organisational, people-based elements and integrates softer management philosophies and techniques into a traditional project management process (Paton & McCalman 2000, 110).

To conclude the discussion in the first chapter of the study, in summary, according to Morgan (2001), change in organisations involves three phases: an initial stage of recognition and preparation, followed by the implementation of the actual changes and, finally, a period of consolidation, and Paton and McCalman (2000, 81, 116) observe that in many systems intervention models the need to ensure participation and involvement is underlined, with the aim to first achieve a shared perception of the problem and then commitment to finding a solution. According to Lanning (2001, 17) it is very difficult to pick and name the most salient differences between the different change models and approaches, particularly when it comes to their usefulness and usability in a real life context.

Meanwhile, Burke (2008, 24) notes an interesting paradox in change and development: the processes tend to be planned in a linear fashion, perhaps following an expanded version of the earlier three steps of unfreezing, changing and refreezing, and yet the implementation of the plans tends to be anything but linear. Therefore, those leading change should be prepared to react to and handle seemingly chaotic conditions and be patient during messy, trying times, as much of implementing change is actually spent on fixing unanticipated problems and backing up to correct consequences of the change that were unexpected (Burke 2008, 24).

As for overcoming such challenges with change implementation, Paton and McCalman (2000, 81, 92) present the trinity of change which needs to be held throughout the process: stay focused, remember the goal and ensure task completion. In accordance, Hayes (2007, 227) notes that while changes might be carefully planned and happen on a predetermined date, it might take some time before those involved have adapted to these events, and Kanter (1999, 20) suggests that as everything can look like a failure in the middle and among the mistakes leaders make in change processes is to launch them and leave them, in going through with change implementation, one should learn to persevere. Senior (2002, 356) agrees and states that change is about nothing if is not about persistence: persisting in the face of an unstable environment, persisting in the face of systems which are built for stability rather than change, and persisting in the face of plans which are out of date as soon as they are formed. According to Senior (2002,

357), change isn't easy, but it can be interesting, and it is certainly worth the journey, even if the place of arrival is surprising, and Bobo (2000, 18) argues that it takes courage, maybe guts, maybe naiveté, to ask an entire organisation to do things differently. Her advice: *be bold!*

2.2 Applying marketing internally

According to Dunne and Barnes (2000, 194), tasks such as shaping a common vision, leading change, creating and communicating a shared need and mobilising commitment are all very strongly marketing-oriented, or at the least, as they propose, undertaking a marketing perspective in their design and implementation could be very beneficial. Paton and McCalman (2000, 92) agree and suggest that in successful change implementation, the change ought to be marketed, and similarly, Beer et al. (1990, 165) recommend creating a market and demand for change.

Several other authors have also discussed internal marketing as an approach for supporting change initiatives. Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 7, 9) observe that fairly recently, a number of authors have begun to recognise the role of internal marketing as a vehicle for implementing strategy, and thus, the role of internal marketing as an implementation tool has been made more explicit. Similarly, in a study by Lings and Greenley (2005) it was found that in addition to addressing external marketing goals, internal marketing orientation had a significant impact on compliant behaviour, staff retention and staff attitudes, and therefore might also facilitate change implementation in organisations.

In accordance, Hogg et al. (1998, 883) argue that the importance of internal marketing in organisations can most easily be recognised in times of change, Flipo (2000, 64) notes how among issues debated in recent discussion is how internal marketing can be used to boost that change, and Snell and White (2009, 204) agree by observing that classic examples of change management exist, where internal marketing is used as a vehicle for implementation. Furthermore, Flipo (2000, 71) states that the main challenge for internal marketing is change management and Hogg and Carter (2000, 114) argue that a significant question in internal marketing discussion is how to make change happen, while Gummesson (2000, 27) and Ballantyne (2000b, 58) suggest that internal marketing could help communicate changes and be used to support employees with understanding and adapting to them, and Frambach and Schillewaert (2001, 171) compare organisational facilitators in individual adoption with suppliers' marketing activities in organisational adoption model. Ultimately, Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 9) discuss their definition of internal marketing as a planned effort to overcome resistance to change and to align, motivate and integrate employees towards the effective implementation of corporate and functional strategies.

However, according to Hogg and Carter (2000, 108), even though several authors have discussed the benefits of internal marketing, little agreement exists upon the appropriate marketing tools used internally, and Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 41) stress that internal marketing efforts should be carefully selected and planned, as ad hoc, half-hearted and poorly executed attempts at internal marketing are doomed to failure at the outset.

Regarding the tools for internal marketing, Ferdous (2008, 232) argues that if internal marketing is to be considered a useful construct, the tools and programs used should reflect those of traditional marketing approaches, and Jobber (1995, 608) suggests that in order to execute an implementation strategy successfully, certain skills are required and certain tactics need to be employed, and considers the thought of expanding internal marketing to include marketing to all employees with the aim of achieving successful change implementation appealing, as it draws an analogy with external marketing structures, such as market segmentation, target marketing and the marketing mix, the latter and its application internally also discussed by many other authors (see, for example Dunne& Barnes 2000, 202–203; Voima 2000, 240; Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 27). Voima (2000, 240) notes that this view of internal marketing has been stressed and developed by many researchers within the internal marketing context, with the assumption that the same basic structures used for external marketing should also be used internally, and Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 27) state that the idea behind the internal marketing mix concept is the combination and integration of a number of elements under the control of management in order to produce the required response from the target market.

When discussing the application of the *marketing mix* in internal marketing, Jobber (1995, 608) proposes that among the main skills for execution is persuasion, which starts from trying to understand the situation from the internal customers' standpoint. He further argues that implementers also need to understand how the features of the plan lead to customer benefits, and whenever possible, evidence should be provided to support claims (Jobber 1995, 608). Meanwhile, Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 27) propose the application of the extended 7Ps marketing mix, as it recognises inter-functional interdependence and the need for an integrated effort for effective delivery.

Product: Jobber (1995, 606) proposes that the product in internal marketing comprises of the plan and strategies that are being proposed, together with the values, attitudes and actions that are needed to make an initiative successful. Meanwhile, Dunne and Barnes (2000, 202) and Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 26) argue that also internal marketing needs a product that is acceptable to the proposed market, and note that a marketing principle of creating products that their internal customers want is rapidly gaining ground in all types of organisations. They also suggest that as satisfaction is required in any market in order to create loyal customers, in order to achieve acceptance of new

initiatives, attention should be paid to the benefits of the product rather than its features (Dunne & Barnes 2000, 202; Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 28).

The *price* is what the internal customers are asked to pay as a result of accepting the plan, and according to Jobber (1995, 607), it may include, for example, lost resources, lower status or fear of the unknown, while according to Dunne and Barnes (2000, 203) it refers to the time and commitment involved, as well a range of associated psychic costs. Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 28) agree and argue that price can refer to the psychological cost of adapting to new methods of working, and thus the benefits of adopting the new policies need to be clearly explained and any fears allayed by providing employees with appropriate information. They also note that while a change may incur cost in terms of having to work harder or learn something new, at the same time, some utility or value may be gained with the new activities (Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 43). Jobber (1995, 607) also notes that price sensitivity is a key segmentation variable for the internal market.

Place: According to Dunne and Barnes (2000, 203), the distribution component of the marketing mix refers to the environmental conditions of the workplace, and it is said to be the management's responsibility to develop the favourable conditions needed. According to Jobber (1995, 607–608) and Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 34), distribution refers to the place and the channels that are used to get products to the internal customers, and place could refer to meetings, conferences and seminars where policies are announced, and informal conversations, while channels to third parties used to deliver training programmes.

Promotion: According to Dunne and Barnes (2000, 203), promotion in internal marketing involves information sharing, in the form of for example newsletters, bulletins, training sessions or informal coaching, as well as recognition and encouragement. Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 43) propose that as promotion may be used to aid the buying into the programme process by employees, it can be viewed as a skills and knowledge generation function, used in internal marketing to let the employees know what to do, when to do it and exactly how to do it. As for the tools for internal promotion, Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 30) discuss the use of advertising, publicity, personal selling and sales promotion in order to inform and influence employees' attitudes.

According to Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 34, 35), *physical evidence* refers to the environment in which a product is delivered and where interaction with customers takes place, as well as to any tangible goods that facilitate the delivery or communication of the product. In internal marketing situations, the tangible cues tend to be more important than the environment in which the product is delivered, and among the important tangible elements in internal marketing is the documentation of policies and changes in them, because if employees are required to perform to certain standards then it is important that these standards are fully documented (Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 34, 35). Ultimately,

process, according to them, refers to how a customer receives a product, and the internal marketing context, training may be used as a tool for delivery (Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 35). Process can also refer to whether new policies are introduced through negotiations with unions or imposed unilaterally, and in the communications area, process can refer for instance to the choice of media and channels used to convey changes (Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 35).

Meanwhile, Gummesson (2000, 37), however, argues that traditional methods of internal marketing may be found inefficient, as they are often routinely performed and based on bureaucratic principles and wishful thinking, rather than on professional marketing and communications know-how, and Grönroos (1990) discusses a distinction between tactical and strategic approaches to internal marketing. According to him, at the tactical level, internal marketing may comprise of ongoing training and the encouragement of formal and informal communication, while internal marketing at a strategic level extends to the adoption of supportive management styles and personnel policies, customer service training and marketing planning procedures (Grönroos 1990). Furthermore, Gummesson (2000, 37) argues that internal marketing can be based both on personal and interactive relationships, as well as on mass marketing, and Ballantyne (2000b, 48) divides internal marketing as activity into two categories, at two levels, each one involving interaction between people and resources across departmental boundaries. The first level is transactional, and comprises of one-way communications and knowledge circulation, while the other level of internal marketing activity is relational, or interactive and collaborative, and it comprises of two-way communications and knowledge discovery (Ballantyne 2000b, 48). According to Ballantyne (2000a, 277), each of the two cases involves turning marketing methods inward, and transactional marketing embraces 4Ps methods, whereas relationship marketing embraces more collaborative approaches. Ballantyne (2000a, 285) considers the strength of internal relationship marketing to be its intent coupled with trusting employees and being trustworthy. According to him, relationship development has been shown to be the mediating variable between learning activity and knowledge renewal and a pivotal factor in internal marketing theory development, and internal marketing would benefit from a relationship-mediated approach (Ballantyne 2003, 1242, 1256).

2.3 Placing people central

Midst the discussion on the various ways for carrying change through and applying marketing internally to facilitate it, several authors have emphasised the notion that all change in organisations is about people. For instance, in a change management example study presented by Chew and Choo (2008), it was found that even though the imple-

mentation process and efforts were genuine, they were fraught with various technical and human resources problems, and the change efforts mainly focused on business and cost driven initiatives, while lacking integration and attention to human issues.

Related to such findings, Paton and McCalman (2000, 121, 150) and Wille and Hodgson (2000, 82), argue that the human element as part of the change process should not be ignored; people should be held central, and Hayes (2007, 87) further stresses that people issues need to be addressed at all stages of a change process, not only when designing a strategy for implementation. Such perceptions can also be found at the basis of organisation development models, which care, above all, about people and believe that people at all levels throughout an organisation are, individually and collectively, both the drivers and engines of change (Paton & McCalman 2000, 150; Senior 2002, 302). Correspondingly, Abrahamson (2004, 37), too, suggests that organisations truly wishing to leave behind the painful aspects of change should start with their people, as after all, his change without pain ideal is essentially a human and humane ideal. Green (2007, 160) agrees and states that change implementers need to have an understanding of the technical side of the changes, as well the ability to understand and mobilise people on an emotional level. According to him, in any change where there are human systems at work, a key focus needs to be on individuals, teams and other groups going through change, and on how to manage them through the transition and help them adapt to their changed circumstances; also referred to as winning their hearts and minds (Green 2007, 21, 202, 204).

In the meantime, in connection with such views, Gilmore (2000, 76) notes that internal marketing can be seen to evolve from the idea that employees represent an internal market within the organisation, and according to several authors, it might be appropriate to consider the employees and communicate with them as internal customers of the organisation (see, for example Ballantyne 1997, 356; Thomson & Hecker 2000, 160; Voima 2000, 242).

Similarly, Mudie (2000, 237, 270), Thomson and Hecker (2000, 160) and Varey (2002, 214) propose that where people in organisation were formerly considered employees subject to commands, they are now customers with moods, needs and wants, and internal marketing's objective could be claimed to be at assessing, meeting and satisfying them. Thomson and Hecker (2000, 160) further propose that like external customers, internal customers also have buying decisions to make; for example, whether to aspire to achieve goals and initiatives set for them by the organisation and make valuable contributions. In addition, Berry and Parasuraman (2000, 175, 181) argue that all knowledge about marketing can be applied to employees, and further suggest that internal marketing should aim at attracting, developing, motivating and retaining superior employees, and may also help organisations to reach maximum effort from them.

As a conclusion, Härtel, Kibby and Pizer (2004, 130) state that human beings are a complex combination of thoughts, emotions and physiology, and denying that would mean denying what makes us human, and according to Senior (2002, 357), even though people will act in infuriating and annoying ways, they, when necessary, will bring the genius of their humanity to solve apparently insoluble problems. Finally, Bovey and Hede (2001, 545) suggest that once the benefits of working with the human dimension are understood and accepted, change implementers will be more inclined to develop, promote and implement appropriate intervention strategies.

2.3.1 Understanding and affecting attitudes and behaviour

Related to the notions on the importance of holding people central when implementing change, Green (2007, 204) proposes that regardless of the causes and types of changes, they will involve the need for people to change their attitudes and behaviours, Paton and McCalman (2000, 158) note that understanding human behaviour is a key area in organisation development, and according to Agndal et al. (2005, 43), the way an organisation behaves is a consequence of how its different members act. Valås and Sletta (2004, 145) define attitude as a state of readiness, or predisposition to react in a particular way when confronted with the attitude object or issue, and also note that attitudes always have a referent, they are attitudes towards something. They consider attitudes as something that, once formed, tend to persist, and therefore, might require considerable effort to change (Valås & Sletta 2004, 145). In accordance, many other authors have cited affecting and changing individuals' behaviour among the fundamental challenges of implementing change (see, for example Klein & Sorra 1996, 1058; Kanter 1999, 15; Kotter & Cohen 2002, 2; Reunis et al. 2005, 235).

Meanwhile, Frambach and Schillewaert (2001, 171) argue that attitudes can change and be influenced, and Reunis et al. (2005, 215, 222–223, 235) state that actions to influence individual behavioural change can be derived from behavioural theories, and suggest that change leaders aiming to successfully change peoples' attitudes should consider the underlying beliefs of the people involved, as a deeper understanding of the possible individual reactions to change initiatives, as well as the underlying reasons for them, might help the change leaders in managing the process better. Similarly, Senior (2002, 337) argues that as different individuals behave in response to their personal perceptions of events, change implementers need to understand the aspirations and feelings of those working in change situations.

As for understanding attitudes and behaviours towards change, several individual characteristics, including biographical characteristics and personality traits, have been noted to have an impact on shaping individuals' perceptions (Reunis et al. 2005, 230–

231; Oreg 2006, 73; Hayes 2007, 203). Kotter and Cohen (2002, 180) argue that the emotions that may facilitate change adoption include faith, trust, optimism, urgency, reality-based pride, passion, excitement, hope and enthusiasm, and Mol (2007, 95), who discusses change in an outsourcing process, argues that also the training background of individuals might produce a set of behavioural patterns. In addition, some researches also argue that younger generations of employees more used to a constant rate of change are more adept at change and even expect to be moving forward constantly, and, actually, some individuals embrace change, regardless of the particular nature of the change at hand, and might become bored and uninterested if change isn't imminent (Helms Mills et al. 2009, 132; Peus et al. 2009, 163).

Moreover, Reunis et al. (2005, 215) argue that the way people react to change initiatives depends on their individual perspectives, and Klein and Sorra (1996, 1061) suggest that employees who perceive innovation use to be congruent with their values are likely to be committed and enthusiastic, whereas the ones to whom the innovation use is merely as a means to obtain and avoid punishments, are likely to be merely compliant. Frambach and Schillewaert (2001, 165, 171) further suggest that innovative individuals, heavy users of the product category or of the preceding technology might be more receptive to innovation than others, and that the acceptance of innovations is driven also by the usage of a focal innovation within their social environment.

Finally, also the context of the change, the organisation's structure, culture and leadership (Snell & White 2009, 204), as well as the changes' magnitude and the frequency with which they occur within the organisation (Peus et al. 2009, 164), have been mentioned among the characteristics likely to influence employee reactions and commitment, and it has also been suggested that as the dynamic nature of behaviour recognises the importance of previous experience and history, change implementers should be aware of the influence experience has on individual behaviour (Reunis et al. 2005, 230–231; Hayes 2007, 203).

However, even though a variety of elements exist that may result in positive attitudes, as Morgan (2001) illustrates, many change efforts are still greeted with rolling eyes from employees, and several authors have noted that organisations attempting to initiate change may often be hindered by individuals or groups within the organisation who resist it (Gilmore 2000, 78; Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 45; Oreg 2003, 680; Reunis et al. 2005, 215; Peus et al. 2009, 158). Similarly, Pfeifer and Schmitt (2005, 298) suggest that the endeavour to secure acceptance of changes by all employees as a whole often fails, Reunis et al. (2005, 224–225) observe that various reactions ranging from active participation to subversive resistance, even sabotage, might result from attempts of influencing people's behaviour in a change process, and Paton and McCalman (2000, 47) in accordance with Gilley et al. (2008, 155) argue that even though individuals within

organisations might recognise the need for change, few are able to sustain successful change efforts.

Attending to resistance towards change

Given that resistance to change has been identified among the key contributors for poor implementation and as the main reason for the failure of many change management programs, (see, for example Paton & McCalman 2000, 139; Varey 2002, 309), as it is used frequently in the research and practitioner literature, usually as an explanation for why efforts to introduce changes fall short of expectations or fail altogether (Oreg 2006, 73), as it might be a very real problem to those leading change, and as its causes might, in some cases, develop from relatively harmless to more damaging types, managing resistance and overcoming barriers have been emphasised as major challenges for the initiators of change (Bovey & Hede 2001, 534;Reunis et al. 2005, 224–225;Chew & Choo 2008, 112; Ford, Ford & D'Amelio 2008, 362), and it has been argued that to ascertain success of any change, its implementers need to be open and alert to all forms of resistance (Chew & Choo 2008, 103). Finally, as Jobber (1995, 606) notes, attending to resistance towards change is crucial also from an internal marketing point-of-view, as for the internal customers from whom fails to gain sufficient support, commitment and participation, the effectiveness of their resistance needs to be minimised, as otherwise they might become competitors in the internal marketplace.

Bovey and Hede (2001, 536) propose that when individuals demonstrate resistance, it is important to distinguish between its symptoms and the causes behind it, and Flipo (2000, 72) argues that a good way to maximise the chances for success in a change process is to anticipate employees' reactions. However, as Gilley et al. (2008, 159) note, understanding why people do what they do is not easy, and predicting how individuals will respond to a situation may be tougher yet.

In his article, Oreg (2006, 76) discusses resistance as a three-dimensional negative attitude towards change, which includes affective, behavioural and cognitive components, in other words, how one feels about the change, what one thinks about it, and what the actions or intentions to act in response to it are. He notes that the three components, although distinct of one another, are not independent of one another, and what people feel about a change will often correspond with what they think about it and with their behavioural intentions in its regard (Oreg 2006, 76).

According to Bovey and Hede (2001, 537), behavioural intention to resist is derived to measure an individual's intentions to engage in either supportive or resistant behaviour towards organisational change. As for characterising the individuals likely to resist change, Paton and McCalman (2000, 12) consider resistance to change a result of fear, prejudice, anxiety and ignorance, while according to Kotter and Cohen (2002, 180), the emotions that may undermine change include anger, false pride, pessimism, arrogance,

cynicism, panic, exhaustion, insecurity and anxiety. Paton and McCalman (2000, 245) further state that among the most common reasons why people resist change is a low tolerance for change, and Oreg (2006, 92) suggests that some employees are more likely to experience negative emotions and act against changes because of their dispositional inclination, independent of the particular nature of the change at hand. According to Oreg (2003), people with high dispositional inclination to resist changes, conceptualised as a stable personality trait, are less likely to voluntarily incorporate changes into their lives, and when change is imposed upon them they are more likely to experience negative emotional reactions, such as anxiety, anger and fear. Somewhat similarly, Critchley and Casey (1989) observe that individuals concerned with security, procedures and rules might be inflexible about changing any of the rules they consider the right ways for doing things; they operate from a purely logical view, and their behaviour is likely to be a defence against anxiety and showing their feelings, and Beer et al. (1990, 163) note that commitment to change is always uneven, and some people simply cannot or will not change, despite all the direction and support in the world.

Meanwhile, according to Flipo (2000, 72), what is also important to understand when it comes to the antecedents for resistance, is that change has a destabilising effect on the established order; it can be seen as a disturbance, and also, it puts in place a new order, in which relative individual or collective stances are no longer the same. In her article, Kanter (1999, 18) illustrates the difficulties with implementing change with the quotation, *we've never done it before, we tried it before and it didn't work, things are fine now, so why should we change?* Correspondingly, several authors have noted that at the basis for resistance is the wish in most people to maintain the consistency and comfort the status quo holds (Connor & Lake 1988; Paton and McCalman 2000, 47; Reunis et al. 2005, 224; Helms Mills et al. 2009, 132; Peus et al. 2009, 164), and in a study by Chew and Choo (2008, 113), despite of awareness towards the potential benefits of the change programme, individuals perceived change efforts to pose threats to routines in work practices and leadership styles, and many expressed in interviews that they felt comfortable doing familiar work. As for changing the status quo, Bommer et al. (2005, 735) wish to underline that while negative employee attitudes towards change are often attributed to employee stubbornness or some irrational resistance to change, it should be noted that resistance to change by people who have been positively reinforced for engaging in the old behaviours is a predictable outcome.

Also discussing the reasons for resistance, Clampitt and Williams (2004, 37) argue that the presumption of certainty fades with the increasing pace of change in organisations, and according to Bordia, Hunt, Paulsen and Tourish (2004, 348), uncertainty has been a widely researched topic in communication, psychology, and the organisational sciences. Keagan and Lahey (2001) and Senior (2002, 252) consider uncertainty and ambiguity contributors to the sources for resistance to change, and according to Bordia

et al. (2004, 345, 348), uncertainty is a major source of psychological strain, as one cannot prepare for or deal with it, and not knowing how the change will affect advancement opportunities, training requirements, or even having a job, can be highly stressful. According to them, uncertainty regarding events and outcomes might also lead to a feeling of lack of control, and if employees do not know the nature and consequences of the change, they will feel ill-equipped to deal with it. (Bordia et al. 2004, 348–349.) Similarly, in their study, Allen, Jimmieson, Bordia and Irmer (2007, 194–195) classify uncertainty experienced by employees into three specific types: strategic, implementation, and job-related uncertainty. Strategic uncertainty was found particularly prevalent during the initial stages of change, when employees first heard of the change, and it typically reduced with time as more information became available. An illustration of strategic uncertainty is an employee lacking a clear understanding regarding the reasons behind the implementation of a new system. Another form of uncertainty appeared to be centred on issues concerned with the implementation of proposed changes and how the change would affect the inner structure of the organisation, and it appeared more prominent once the change was underway. It was also found that uncertainty regarding job-related issues such as work load, job role, and job security were the most common uncertainties during change, and responses indicated that they were typically first experienced early in the implementation phase of change. An example of experiencing job-related uncertainty is an employee who during the implementation of a new technology system, indicated they were uncertain about exactly what the change meant for their individual job and responsibilities (Allen et al. 2007, 194–195.)

Related to the discussion on uncertainty, Gilmore (2000, 78) suggests that resistance may often be caused by a reluctance of management and employees to consider new ideas, which might originate from an overall fear of the unknown, considered by many authors among the main reasons for individuals resisting change (Paton and McCalman 2000, 47; Keagan & Lahey 2001, 88; Senior 2002, 252; Reunis et al. 2005, 228; Green 2007, 172). In addition, Green (2007, 207) proposes that individuals might fear losing their work identity through losing their current role, losing their set of formal and informal work relationships, not being able to cope with the demands of the new way of doing things, or not being competent enough to perform adequately, Connor and Lake (1988) suggest that individuals might feel threatened by the change in some way and fear losing power, and Reunis et al. (2005, 215) mention fear of losing their job a reason for employees' resistance to change.

As has been noted, during change, anxiety levels are likely to increase, and according to Bovey and Hede (2001, 545) anxiety experienced by individuals may be caused by the surfacing of past fears or worries the individual has experienced, and may be more acute depending on the level of anxiety in one's personal life. According to Schein (Coutu 2002, 104), two fundamental anxieties exist for individuals facing change: the

anxiety to survive set against the anxiety of whether they will be able to learn the new ways of doing things. According to Schein (Coutu 2002, 104), learning anxiety results from being afraid to try something new because of the fear that it will be too difficult, that one might look stupid in the attempt, or that one might have to part from the old habits that have worked in the past. In accordance, several other authors have mentioned a perceived lack of current skills for the new situation and the reluctance towards learning new skills among the reasons for individuals' resistance to change (see, for example Keagan & Lahey 2001, 85; Senior 2002, 252; Reunis et al. 2005, 215). Based on these notions, Berry and Parasuraman (2000, 181) and Chew and Choo (2008, 114) also indicate that what managers might perceive as unmotivated employee behaviour might often actually be unconfident employee behaviour.

Moving on, Flipo (2000, 72) suggests that attention in change management should also be paid to the sharing of risks, as among the reasons for a change project failing are internal misconceptions and poor internal implementation, and Helms Mills et al. (2009, 134) state that too often, change initiatives are simply rolled out, and all of the pieces are expected to fall into place by themselves. In such situations, people might not feel to be held accountable and the higher-ups in the organisation might seem to have forgotten the change, which might result in people choosing the easier option of simply slipping back into their old routines. (Helms Mills et al.2009, 134). According to Green (2007, 172), issues resulting in resistance towards change include reluctance to think strategically, a too narrow perspective or a job-only focus. Moreover, Critchley and Casey (1989) state that in some cases, even though everyone has acknowledged the problem and given it thought in some depth, no one wishes to take responsibility for making anything happen, and in accordance with Flipo (2000, 72) they argue that it is not uncommon that in a failure situation, people tend to hunt for the party, individual or department, responsible for it, and it is easier to blame someone upwards, sideways or downwards than taking action.

Also, as has been noted in earlier discussions, individuals' experiences of past changes may influence their attitudes, and as Dunne and Barnes (2000, 194) argue, recent time have taught employees to be wary. According to Kotter (1996, 17), people who have been through difficult and unsuccessful change efforts often tend to draw pessimistic conclusions about change in general; they might become suspicious about the motives and change management abilities of the parties initiating change. Similarly, Abrahamson (2004, 3) discusses change-related chaos, which refers to the continuous state of upheaval, resulting from so many waves of change initiatives having washed through the organisation that hardly anyone knows which change they're implementing, or why. He also notes that the perhaps most painful consequence of the repetitive-change syndrome is what it does to employees, as anxiety, cynicism and burnout infuse the organisation (Abrahamson 2004, 3). According to Bommer et al. (2005, 736) organ-

isational cynicism is a complex attitude that includes cognitive, affective and behavioural aspects resulting in increased beliefs of unfairness, feelings of distrust, and related actions about and against organisations, and Reunis et al. (2005, 228) note that in some cases, resistance may arise from people feeling mistreated and wanting to get even in order to restore a perceived injustice. Furthermore, in accordance with earlier discussion, Oreg (2006, 95) found in his studies that age was negatively related to affective resistance, which according to him was not surprising. When interviewed, several of the more senior employees, who would naturally be older than more recent recruits, described a long list of changes they had experienced during their time in the organisation, and some of them explicitly noted the fact that these many changes had brought them to the point where they were now somewhat apathetic about new change initiatives (Oreg 2006, 95).

In the meantime, according to Reunis et al. (2005, 216), since behavioural change can vary from completely voluntary to mandatory, another important aspect to consider in change processes is the degree of freedom that individuals experience. They, in accordance with insights from Morgan's (2001) article, propose that individuals tend to be reluctant towards change when it's something that's done to them, while change that they think up or embrace on their own they never grow tired of, a notion illustrated by Kanter (Morgan 2001) with the quotation: *Personally I hate change, but I love renovating my house.*

Finally, Ford et al. (2008, 362, 366) propose that also the implementers of change may contribute to the occurrence of resistance through their own actions and inactions; through communication breakdowns, such as failing to legitimise change, misrepresenting its chances of success, and failing to call people to action. The change implementers may be also be resistant towards the contribution submitted by change recipients (Ford et al. 2008, 367), as a rather common way of reacting to other people's ideas that object to an individual's own ones, as noted by Wille and Hodgson (2000, 16), is rejecting them.

According to Helms Mills et al. (2009, 133), understanding the underlying causes for resistance to change might help with overcoming it, as once change leaders move past the belief that people are negative, stubborn or not team players, and see what is really causing the resistance, those issues can be addressed and thus change can be facilitated. (Helms Mills et al.2009, 133.)

Appreciating resistance

Even though the importance of understanding and overcoming resistance has been emphasised by many, as Wille and Hodgson (2000, 83) argue, it is a natural part of change and cannot be bulldozed out of the way, and Ford et al. (2008, 370) agree by stating that in a world with absolutely no resistance, no change would stick, and recipients would

completely accept all messages received, including those detrimental to the organisation.

According to Helms Mills et al. (2009, 37), the saying *If you aren't part of the solution, you could be part of the problem* may be familiar to employees who have expressed concerns about a change initiative being yet another so-called flavour of the month in the organisation. However, as proposed by Paton and McCalman (2000, 49), in certain circumstances, resistance to change can be justified, as change for change's sake, change for only short-term advantages and change which may negatively affect the common good should indeed be resisted.

Furthermore, numerous authors have noted that while recognising the symptoms for resistance as early as possible is important, resistance isn't always a conscious effort towards obstructing change, and everyone questioning the proposed change should not be considered to have an attitude problem, as what one might instantly label as resistance might actually be something quite different and have potential contributions to increasing the likelihood of successful implementation (Reunis et al. 2005, 226; Bommer at al. 2005; 748; Green 2007, 172; Ford et al. 2008, 363).

In accordance, Ford et al. (2008, 367, 369) observe that all seemingly resistive reactions may not necessarily be obstacles or liabilities to successful change, as where recipients have a stake in what happens, they may raise objections or questions or express their concerns as a function of an authentic commitment to and concern for the organisation's viability or success, and Wille and Hodgson (2000, 160) propose that parties disagreeing on some part of a proposed change initiative might care equally about the outcomes and merely have differing views about the methods used. Similarly, Green (2007, 172) suggests that some might also belong to the group of thoughtful realists, who, through behaviour that might seem like resistance, are requesting not rushing into change without further thinking through all the implications, while others may genuinely, and based on their knowledge and experience, be alerting the change initiator about the fact that the proposed changes are unlikely to succeed.

Thus, as Chew and Choo (2008, 113) propose, resistance to change is a signal that something is not working in the implementation of the change program, and insightful and well-intended debate, criticism or disagreement might be intended to produce a better understanding of the situation, as well as additional options and solutions to it (see, for example Reunis et al. 2005, 226). In connection with such notions, Oreg (2006, 97) proposes that an organisation could use resistance to improve itself and its decisions, while Ford et al. (2008, 369) suggest using resistance as feedback on recipient engagement by listening keenly to comments, complaints, and criticisms for cues to adjust the pace, scope, or sequencing of change.

In the meantime, Ford et al. (2008, 362) also wish to draw attention to the notion that change implementers are often portrayed as undeserving victims of the irrational and

dysfunctional responses of change recipients, while little consideration is given to the possibility that resistance is an interpretation assigned by change implementers to the behaviours and communications of change recipients. Similarly, Jobber (1995, 595–597) wishes to draw attention to that when confronted with change, most people pass through several emotional stages, and the movement from one stage to another is rarely smooth. Therefore, he suggests that change implementers should bear in mind that the acceptance of change will take time, and the venting of anger and frustration is an accompanying behaviour to the transition from the old to the new, and should be accepted as such (Jobber 1995, 596–597).

Furthermore, Ford et al. (2008, 364–365) also argue that it is both individually and collectively self-serving for change implementers to cite resistance to change as the source of problems associated with change, such as failures, setbacks or complaints, because it validates the fundamental tenet that people resist change, and absolves or mitigates the implementers' responsibility for the unexpected negative aspects of change. In addition, Reunis et al. (2005, 230) observe that in many change processes a tendency exists for interpreting resistance as something negative; a disturbance to the nicely designed route of change, and Ford et al. (2008, 371) imply that labelling certain actions by change recipients as resistance provides a readily accepted justification for operating in different and potentially more aggressive ways, thereby signalling that the game has changed and that certain behaviours will no longer be tolerated. However, Ford et al. (2008, 367) also note that not all misrepresentations of change are intentional; for example, as a result of optimism, implementers might oversell the positive and undersell the negative.

To conclude, Ford et al. (2008, 368–371) propose that as resistance helps keep conversations in existence and among its possible outcomes is a potentially stronger commitment to the change on the part of recipients, rather than being an obstacle or detriment to successful change, it paradoxically might be a critical factor in its ultimate success.

2.3.2 Analysing and segmenting employees

During the recent decades, as proposed by Oreg (2003, 680) in accordance with Valås and Sletta (2004, 144), the nature and conditions of work have changed, and most modern industrial societies value people who are willing and able to initiate and respond positively to change. Oreg (2006, 82) further notes that overall, it is expected that positive attitudes towards change will be associated with improved outcomes. Yet, as Foreman (2000, 128) observes, employees can choose to either support their organisation by

co-operating with it in the implementation of its strategies, or alternatively, create trouble if they fail to act in accordance with policies and procedures.

Therefore, among the triggers for successful change implementation, Storey (1992, 150) mentions making certain key figures, the people with power to make things happen, aware of the need for change, and Green (2007, 173) argues that it is important to establish who the stakeholders are and where they stand in relation to the change. Similarly, Varey (2002, 141) emphasises that as people in society are individuals and in transaction with their environment, marketers and other managers of communication should avoid seeing an audience as simply a lump of humanity. As for analysing the employees, the recipients of change, the internal customers, he suggests taking into account, for instance, the level of power, energy, interest and commitment they have for the change, or the possible impacts a change initiative might have on them (Green 2007, 173). Furthermore, Mol (2007, 100) argues that in the end, managers and employees alike seek to satisfy their private agendas rather than pursue organisational goals, and Jobber (1995, 609) and Senior (2002, 211) propose that managers who in times of change can reasonably assess who has what power, and the way it might be used – with possible consequences for potential and actual conflict – have a good chance of implementing the change they seek.

Similarly, in the field of internal marketing, according to Ahmed and Rafiq (2003), richer analyses are needed of the employee experience, which in turn requires concentration on the so-called consumption experiences of the employees. Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 39; 2003) suggest that in order to capture a real sense of the needs, motivations, potential fears and resistance of the internal markets, the employees, to the change programme, internal marketing research should be conducted, and numerous traditional marketing research techniques may be applied. In a case study example by Svenning and Ruchninskas (1986)[2] presented by Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 215, 218), the change process began with conducting internal market research to investigate the appropriateness of the product for the company, and the internal market research helped the case company to carefully plan the changes, and alerted the marketing team to alter the marketing theme to emphasise the positive and eliminate the negative. In another study, Hogg and Carter (2000) also measured the differences of opinion between management, who are attempting to drive change in the organisation, and the employees.

According to Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 39), analogous to the situation in external marketing, of importance following the internal marketing research is a process of seg-

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[2] Svenning, L. – Ruchninskas, J. (1986) Internal "Market Research" Program is yielding successful videoconferencing for ACROvision. *Communications News*, Feb, Vol. 23 (2), 48–52.

mentation and positioning to the internal market. They define market segmentation in internal marketing as the process of grouping employees with similar characteristics, needs and wants, and suggest that employees should be segmented along motivational rather than departmental lines (Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 36). Mudie (2000, 270), too, considers segmentation important, because defining the target market of internal marketing as simply employees would be too broadly defined, and thus the realities of organisational life would risk not to be recognised, and correspondingly, according to Green (2007, 173–174), when mobilising people for change, it is crucial that stakeholder analysis is used as a source of information for how to manage and communicate with different parties throughout the change. He also underlines that segmenting individuals and groups into certain stakeholder types is an inexact science, and their attitudes need to be truly understood, not just assumed, through communication, and in many cases, dialogue (Green 2007, 173–174)

Meanwhile, Oreg (2006, 79) proposes that among the first determinants of whether employees will accept or resist a change, is the extent to which it is perceived as beneficial versus detrimental to them. Based on such notions, Jobber (1995, 606) presents a method of grouping internal customers into three categories: *supporters*, who are likely to gain from the change or are committed to the changes; *neutrals*, whose gains and losses are in approximate balance, and *opposers*, who are likely to lose from the change or are traditional opponents. However, Green (2007, 174) wishes to highlight that the amount of power stakeholders possess at a given moment might not remain stable throughout the change process, and therefore, it should be kept in mind that what might have started out as threatening could turn in to something positive, and vice versa.

Ultimately, Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 45, 46) suggest that as internal marketing involves a planned effort to align, motivate and integrate employees towards the effective implementation of change initiatives, a way of identifying any barriers might be to examine resistance to change by each employee segment. The logic is that if specific needs and resistance can be associated with particular segments, specific techniques may be directed to satisfy employee needs and mediate their fears through internal positioning; a process more effective than adopting a single approach for all employees (Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 39, 40). In accordance, a study discussed by Ferdous (2008, 223) indicates that different internal market segments require separate marketing efforts and communication programs, while Frambach and Schillewaert (2001, 165) propose that careful and specific targeting of an innovation towards selected potential adopters can facilitate acceptance in the market.

2.4 Supporting change

Despite the numerous different attitudes that individuals may have towards change, and even though the importance placed on resistance to change for decades could even lead to assume that it is inevitable whenever change is being implemented, according to Helms Mills et al. (2009, 132), newer studies indicate that it isn't always so, and Paton and McCalman (2000, 11–12) observe that people are generally willing and able to deal with change and will accept change when they know it is necessary and accept the explanation for the need for it, thus receiving satisfactory answers to the key question mentioned among others by Hecker and Thomas (2000, 171) and Reunis et al. (2005, 216): *What's in it for me?*

Moreover, Senior (2002, 256) indicates that change can be exciting and can bring new and positive opportunities for all, and Sharma (2008, 23) discusses celebrating change and making it a desired future for people and organisations. Ultimately, Thomson and Hecker (2000, 163) argue that the employees who do buy-in to business goals both intellectually and emotionally say it improves their job performance and makes them up to twice as likely to recommend their organisation to others.

2.4.1 Encouraging supporters

According to Allen et al. (2007, 201), identifying the processes that facilitate employees' openness to change can help gain a better understanding of how organisations can ensure their employees are willing to support and engage in change initiatives. According to Kotter and Cohen (2002, 2, 180), throughout all the eight stages of the process helping organisations achieve change and leap forward, affecting behaviour is less about giving people analysis to influence their thoughts, and more about helping them see a truth to influence their feelings. They also argue that while both thinking and feeling are important, and both can be found in successful organisations, the heart of change is in the emotions, and the flow of see-feel-change can be considered more powerful than that of analysis-think-change (Kotter & Cohen 2002, 2, 180.)

In the following, elements from the writings of Gurnani (1999, 213–214), who discusses key elements in successfully implementing Total quality management (TQM), and Lanning (2001, 24–36), who based on previous discussion and research from different disciplines and scholars has identified factors to successful change projects, together with other views from change management studies and literature, are used to build the structure for the discussion on the tools for successful change implementation. Interwoven in the discussion are also notions from the field of internal marketing, as it

has been mentioned by many authors to be a possible facilitator for implementing change initiatives.

Policy: According to Gurnani (1999, 213–214), people follow policy, good or bad, and to ensure that all employees understand what behaviour is expected of them, a clear and concise policy needs to be stated.

The change effort's connection to strategy: Green (2007, 208) proposes that helping people to clearly understand where they fit and what is expected of them, along with equipping them with the right tools to do it, are important aspects of change implementation, and Peus et al. (2009, 167) recommend addressing the necessary changes proactively by pointing out the need to change in the present in order to secure standards for the future.

Supporting environment: According to Helms Mills et al.(2009, 49), too often, employees are asked to accept change initiatives without questions or a clear understanding of the need for change, and are subsequently not provided with the support and structure necessary to maintain the change. Based on similar notions, Lanning (2001, 24–36) states that successful change requires ensuring that all organisational structures and procedures support the change, and Peus et al. (2009, 170) argue that employees must perceive the processes underlying the changes fair and feel that they have been treated appropriately and given adequate information about the changes and the reasons for them. They also consider organisational initiatives useful in supporting employees' change-related efficacy (Peus et al. 2009, 170). In addition, Helms Mills et al. (2009, 134) stress the importance of committing enough organisational resources to the change, as it might lead to two positive outcomes: first, it demonstrates the whole organisation's commitment to the change, and second, it helps to alleviate the fears that employees might have about being asked to do more with less. Similarly, Paton and McCalman (2000, 12, 28, 255), Senior (2002, 324) and Varey (2002, 214) suggest that change can be assisted by a climate of enthusiasm and participation and by obtaining a shared perception among those affected, and people can be helped with accepting the change by involving them through consultation and collaboration.

Involving those affected by the changes in planning and implementation: Thomson and Hecker (2000, 166) suggest that a reason for difficulties in change implementation might be issuing a vision as a top-down edict that fails to address the employees' interests, questions and concerns, and Dunne and Barnes (2000, 194) and Varey and Lewis (2000, 296) propose that when initiating change in the organisation, a co-operative program might prove useful. Correspondingly, Deetz and Brown (2004, 172) note how numerous writers have argued that we have entered an age of participation, suggesting a distinctively new way of managing and making decisions together, and Lewis et al. (2006, 120–121, 129) found that despite advice surrounding the need for management to lead and control change, wide participation in the change efforts, particularly when it

comes to evaluating and implementing, was a common piece of advice in books on implementing planned change. Deetz and Brown (2004, 174, 177) also propose that the primary justification for wider spread participation could be that it might lead to better decisions than are currently being made, in greater efficiency and effectiveness in personal and organisational goal accomplishment and higher levels of mutual commitment, while Varey (2002, 310) proposes that participative planning allows all to learn by doing.

In accordance, with regards to internal marketing, Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 70) argue that among its essential components is employee participation, Ballantyne (1997, 356) proposes that deeper staff satisfaction may result from participating in reviewing internal activities, and in study examples discussed by Gummesson (2000, 37), internal customers were considered individual participants, not just statistics in a target group. Moreover, Gilmore (2000, 76) states that internal marketing needs to be based on the involvement of a number of individuals across functions and levels in the firm, and such involvement needs to have a long-term perspective in which interactions are seen as continuous, ongoing, mutually active and adoptive, formal and informal. Finally, Ballantyne (2003, 1254, 1257) argues that marketing's role is always going to be collaborative, and a value proposition for the internal market could be communicated, for example, as an offer of mutual value, and co-created through interaction between two or more parties. Nevertheless, Tourish and Hargie (2004b, 1) argue that while many management theorists have been developing inclusive agendas of involvement, participation and empowerment, a major part of management practice has been marching to the beat of a different drum, and in the opposite direction.

Paying attention to culture: According to Cameron (2008, 430, 441), almost every leading firm has developed a distinctive culture clearly identifiable for its key stakeholders, and almost all organisations develop a dominant culture over time, which helps organisations remain consistent and stable, as well as adaptable and flexible, in a rapidly changing environment. Meanwhile, Abrahamson (2004, 93) wishes to also highlight that it has become almost axiomatic to believe that companies have cultures, and states that from listening to many experts, it is the underlying organisational culture that causes most corporate catastrophes, while brilliant leadership accounts for success.

Helms Mills et al (2009, 60–61, 64) state that the predominant view held by both management consultants and many academics seems to be that culture is something tangible that can be isolated and changed, and in so doing will lead to a more effective organisation, while Gummesson (2000, 35) considers organisational culture a complex phenomenon not easy to change or manage, and Abrahamson (2004, 87) suggests that organisational cultures present a threat if not managed properly. Kotter (1996, 155) argues that instead of being an input, altered organisational culture is actually an output of a change effort, Lanning (2001, 12) proposes that culture will gradually develop itself

alongside with some more tangible changes in procedures, structures and operations, and Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (2004, 21) underline that a key point to remember is that organisational cultures are alive; they have their own energy, purpose, direction, values and ways of processing information. Senior (2002, 160) argues that in order to implement change in organisations, the organisation's culture should be managed accordingly, and permanent change in organisations can only be achieved by first changing people's attitudes and values – in other words, changing the culture at its deepest levels. According to Schein (2008, 50), culture is both a facilitating and a restraining force, and in change programs the focus should be on what behavioural practices are being changed, how the culture will aid or hinder the desired change, and how cultural forces can be harnessed in order to make the necessary behavioural changes.

Learning new skills: According to Roth (2008, 475), a quality unique to humanity is the ability to accumulate and use knowledge, and humans use, relearn and add to knowledge by learning from ongoing efforts and experiences, and business organisations make no exception. Similarly, according to Hultman and Axelsson (2005, 184), change can be defined to be about learning and adopting new behaviour, while Shani and Docherty (2008, 502) consider learning an essential feature of organisation development and its outcomes, and according to them, it is a process embedded in all change, from incremental to radical, and in development activities that concern people's attitudes, behaviours, beliefs, competence and knowledge. Several authors (Green 2007, 247; Roth 2008, 475; Helms Mills et al. 2009, 77) consider learning an important characteristic of successful organisations, and Green (2007, 19) argues that new attitudes, skills and behaviours need to be acquired or learnt, and certainly demonstrated, if success is to be reached with the change initiative.

In accordance, Beer et al. (1990, 159) state that change is about learning, and Kotter and Cohen (2002, 3) propose that almost anyone caught up in a change process has an opportunity to learn, while Paton and McCalman (2000, 206) argue that change might even be blocked unless all the major decision makers learn together and are committed to the actions necessary for change. According to Berry and Parasuraman (2000, 181) as well as Green (2007, 246), as learning is a builder for confidence, force for motivation and a source of self-esteem, instead of separate events, it should take place at all the phases of a change process. What's more, Berry and Parasuraman (2000, 181) suggest that if an organisation makes a strategic commitment to developing the skills and commitment of its employees, it has a chance to develop a reputation for investing in people, and thus benefit accordingly.

As for the discussion on learning within internal marketing, Ballantyne (2003, 1257) argues that the purpose of internal marketing is knowledge renewal and it requires a process of learning activity, and according to Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 181), internal marketing can be used as a tool to help knowledge management and learning. Further-

more, Klein and Sorra (1996, 1073) argue that training is among the ways for an organisation to ensure employee innovation skill, and Burke (2008, 25) proposes that conducting a training program to provide new skills and techniques could help a change effort to move to yet another level of accomplishment.

In accordance, Helms Mills et al. (2009, 133) state that training should be provided to support change initiatives, as people might often fear that they might not be able to keep up with the changes occurring, as adapting to change might mean an entirely new way of doing things for many people, and Gurnani (1999, 213–214) states that training provides a common language and a common set of tools to be used in the firm, and management must consider who must learn what, how and by when. Finally, Green (2007, 21) suggests that coaching, training and group and team facilitation are among the ways of providing opportunities for learning to occur. However, as a limitation, Berry and Parasuraman (2000, 181) wish to underline that even when employees receive training, it might be too little, too late, or not the kind they need, or, they might receive the adequate technical skills through training, but not enough knowledge, and thus learn how but not why.

Motivation and recognition: Zorn et al. (2000, 516), Paton and McCalman (2000, 18) and Lanning (2001, 24–36) argue that getting those charged with managing the change and those affected by it motivated and committed is crucial to achieving transition management, Kim and Mauborgne (2003, 67) state that employees must not only understand the need for change and have the resources to make the change; they must want to make the change happen, and according to Gurnani (1999, 213–214), success in implementation is impossible unless it is committed to by all employees throughout the company hierarchy. Similarly, internal marketing is also closely related with employee motivation and loyalty, and central to the concept, according to Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 25, 118), is the use of marketing-like techniques to motivate employees.

When it comes to motivating employees, Chew and Choo (2008, 115) and Helms Mills et al. (2009, 134) mention rewarding desirable behaviours contributing to the objectives of change programmes and setting manageable goals and rewarding the ones reaching them, and Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 31) also consider it clear that employees need to be offered some benefits in order to change their behaviour. Kanter (1999, 20), too, considers remembering to recognise, reward, and celebrate accomplishments a critical leadership skill, but at the same time, probably the most underutilised motivational tool in organisations. In addition, Gurnani (1999, 213–214) states that without effective feedback, employees are not able to adjust their performance accordingly, and they might become unmotivated because no one seems to notice their efforts.

As for the tools for motivation and commitment through rewarding and recognition, Helms Mills et al. (2009, 134) suggest that breaking the change into manageable pieces may establish accountability and create a positive energy around the change, and Burke

(2008, 25) proposes that sustaining change could be achieved through holding celebratory events to recognise the milestones reached and the individuals and teams who made it happen and finding new ways to reward the behaviours that support the change Meanwhile, according to Paton and McCalman (2000, 159), research work on motivation has revealed that individuals are personally motivated when they perceive that the rewards accumulate, where they value those rewards, and where they believe they can perform at a level where attainment of the rewards is feasible. Burke (2008, 29), too, argues that if done properly, incentive systems may work in helping change efforts succeed, but also notes that some evidence exists that largely extrinsic incentive systems, such as monetary bonuses, may have a detrimental effect on intrinsic motivation, and in addition, showering organisation members with money for their performance may reduce the psychological meaningfulness of their work. In addition, according to Ahmed and Rafiq (2003), employees' motivation to do as the organisation bids is driven by not only what they are being offered, but also by their perceptions about the organisation as a whole.

Ultimately, according to Gurnani (1999, 213–214), recognising people means informing individuals that their accomplishments are being appreciated, and teams and individuals who successfully apply the process must be recognised and possibly rewarded so that the rest of the organisation will know what is expected of them. Gilley et al. (2008, 158–159) also highlight the importance of positive feedback and reinforcement, as it can encourage employee participation and involvement, and according to them, the absence of it might have disastrous results, as without feedback, employees do not know where they are, how they are doing, or whether they are applying new skills and knowledge appropriately. In addition, Kanter (1999, 20) suggests that recognition does not only bring the change cycle to its logical conclusion, but it also motivates people to attempt change again. According to her, so many people get involved in and contribute to changing the way an organisation does things that it's important to share the credit, and as change is an ongoing issue, one can't afford to lose the talents, skills, or energies of those who can help make it happen (Kanter 1999, 20).

Management and leadership: According to Gurnani (1999, 213–214), the steering committee plays a dual role of leaders and guardians, and during the implementation stage, its role is to detect any deviation from the prescribed course and to redirect everything back on track, and according to Kanter (1999, 17), the most important things leaders can bring to a changing organisation are passion, conviction, and confidence in others. Also, Peus et al. (2009, 170) note that a number of studies indicate that the degree to which employees embrace change is largely dependent on their trust in management, and Valås and Sletta (2004, 156) suggest that the immediate and long-term success of change efforts depends on the competence of programme supervisors, including their

mastery of the subject matter, their communication skills, and their understanding of the subtle and complex links between attitudes and their expression.

According to Burke (2008, 21), achieving success with change requires both leadership and management skills, leadership especially at the first stages, and management as the change progresses. Kotter (1996, 25, 30) considers managing change important, as it produces a degree of predictability and order and has the potential to consistently produce the short-term results expected by different stakeholders, and without competent management, the transformations process might get out of control. However, he also argues that for most organisations, leading change is a bigger challenge, as only leadership can overcome the many sources of inertia, motivate the actions needed to alter behaviour and get change to stick by anchoring it in the culture of an organisation (Kotter 1996, 30). Several authors agree by stating that leadership is crucial for making the implemented effort sustainable over time (see, for example Gurnani 1999, 213–214; Senior 2002, 213; Gilley et al. 2008, 155; Burke 2008, 21). Peus et al. (2009, 170) argue that a transformational leadership style, by its name focused on transformation, or change, which includes the communication of an overarching vision and challenging goals as well as the provision of individualised consideration and support, has been found to be most effective in leading change. In Morgan's (2001) article, however, it is stated that among the remedies for change fatigue is losing the notion heroic leaders would be needed in order to have meaningful, sustained change.

In addition, as has been noted earlier, decisions about *timing* can also be made to facilitate change implementation. For instance, Jobber (1995, 613) suggests giving consideration to how quickly change is introduced as people need time to adjust to change, and according to a framework by Paton and McCalman (2000, 255), people can be helped with accepting the change by avoiding work peaks and considering convenience. Meanwhile, Morgan (2001) states that a change initiative is like the start of a marathon: change occurs rapidly in some units, whereas in others it might require more time to even get under way, and a recent study indicates that managers should be allowed some time to come to terms with the changes on a personal level before asked to help employees (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 12).

Measuring and assessing progress: Beer et al. (1990, 164) argue that a learning organisation has to know how to continually monitor its behaviour – in effect, to learn how to learn, and Lanning (2001, 24–36) mentions monitoring and controlling the change's progress among the factors contributing to implementation success, while Angdal et al. (2005, 52–53) propose that learning and follow-up should be considered a continuous issue in change initiatives, as implementers need to be able to indicate potential successes and failures, and reviewing a completed change process could be valuable for future learning.

Furthermore, Paton and McCalman (2000, 159) argue that among the studies on organisation development are the notions of the importance of using feedback as a mechanism for enhancing organisational performance, and according to Lewis et al. (2006, 13), when implementing change in practice, methods such as goal setting, bringing in sceptics and listening to them, and formal program evaluation might provide a more objective check on whether promised and desired results are actually being achieved and force the measurement of accomplishments and acknowledgment of what is not working. Similarly, Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 197) and Hayes (2007, 347) suggest that reviewing the change progress can provide change managers with feedback that can be used to assess whether interventions are being implemented as intended, whether the chosen interventions are having the desired effect and whether the change plan continues to be valid, and note that without appropriate measurement systems and tools, it could prove difficult to move from theory to reality, because of a lack of feedback to build improvements upon.

Thus, as suggested among others by Gurnani (1999, 213–214), it would seem essential to measure progress towards the company's vision, and therefore standards would need to be established and then compared with the current performance. Similarly, according to a recent report (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 20) a new adage has been offered: *What gets measured gets done, acknowledged and rewarded.*

Finally, *effective communication*, including distributing information about the changes and gathering feedback from the recipients is also mentioned by both Gurnani (1999, 213–214) and Lanning (2001, 24–36) and several other authors as a prerequisite for successful change implementation, and due to its importance, it will be discussed later in a chapter dedicated to it. But first, attention is shifted from encouraging positive attitude towards change to managing situations where opposers of the change are encountered.

2.4.2 Attending to resistance

Even though, as has been discussed earlier, it can be argued that managing individual resistance starts with preventing it from occurring and by continuous attention to its underlying causes, and identifying the symptoms of resistance as early as possible is important, when resistance does occur, attention should be shifted from the prevention of the resistance escalating to mitigating its effects (see, for example Reunis et al. 2005, 226–229). What is particularly important, Bommer et al. (2005, 736) underline, is the overcoming of cynicism toward change, because if employees' cynicism toward a proposed change leads to failed implementation, the failure reinforces the cynical beliefs.

Furthermore, Jobber (1995, 602) proposes that the success of implementation depends on the ability of overcoming the opposition and resistance that may well surface, and likewise, according to studies conducted by Kotter and Cohen (2002, 2), highly successful organisations know how to overcome antibodies that reject anything new. As Kotter (1996, 20) summarises, there are many reasons for why change is difficult to achieve, and to be effective, a method for achieving change needs to address these barriers and do so well. In a more recent study, too, managers in high-effectiveness companies were found to deal openly with resistance to change (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 11).

As for ways for overcoming resistance, de Caluwé and Veermak (2004, 11), when discussing their colour-approaches to change, propose addressing the concerns of the organisation's people, and Paton and McCalman (2000, 255) argue that people can be helped with accepting the change by considering their worries and attending to their objections, while Bovey and Hede (2001, 545) note that change implementers need to be aware of the ways personal issues can affect employees' thoughts, feelings and behaviour. According to Chew and Choo (2008, 115) change also requires consideration of cultural resistance. Furthermore, Helms Mills et al. (2009, 49) note, too often, employees are asked to accept change initiatives without questions or a clear understanding of the need for change, and are subsequently not provided with the support and structure necessary to maintain the change.

In the meantime, Clampitt and Williams (2004, 37) state that managing uncertainty has become more important than ever before, and Burke (2008, 27) agrees by noting that change, by definition, generates circumstances that are not predictable, and therefore, dealing effectively with that lack of predictability and orderliness can be regarded as a mark of a skilful change leader. However, as several authors have noted, only few tools exist for thinking about and acting on uncertainty (Clampitt & Williams 2004, 37).

In addition, Paton and McCalman (2000, 47, 92) underline that sensitivity and understanding should be displayed when attending to those who might feel threatened by the change, as, according to them, even though an organisation may be able to reduce the frequency and potency of resistance, the fear of the unknown can never be totally eliminated. When it comes to anxieties felt by employees, Schein (Coutu 2002) suggests that in order for change to occur, survival anxiety needs to outweigh learning anxiety. Therefore, change initiators may choose to either raise the level of survival anxiety through for example threats or punishments, or reduce the levels of learning anxiety by ensuring an environment favourable to learning (Coutu 2002; Green 2007, 173). Schein (Coutu 2002) observes that many organisations have chosen to increase survival anxiety, and according to him, it can be considered the absolutely wrong way to go. In accordance, Green (2007, 208) suggests that a way to manage individuals' anxieties is by ensuring that there is a motivating vision of the future which they feel they will be a part

of and have a contribution to make, and Morgan (2001) also underlines the importance of addressing employees' fears and states that people want to know why you think they can make it through the change, and also, how you're going to help them through it.

Furthermore, according to Reunis et al. (2005, 228), other tools include increasing available resources, facilitating organisational support, such as helpdesk or manuals, and developing programmes for skills. In addition, Flipo (2000, 72) notes that as in change situations, there are winners and losers; with respect to for example status, influence or power, it is suggested that in order to encourage the losing side to change, management could consider offering them compensations and creating ways of sharing the rewards of the change with them (Flipo 2000, 72; Jobber 1995, 612). According to Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 31), motivational incentives such as awards, recognition programmes and prize draws are very common, and they can be used to overcome short-term resistance or to motivate employees towards consistent behaviour.

Moreover, according to Kim and Mauborgne (2003, 68), a way to overcome resistance, or even stop some hurdles from coming up, is identifying the potential naysayers and silencing them early in the change process. Likewise, Critchley and Casey (1989) propose that when handling resistance related to individuals' rigidity, it is necessary to demonstrate, in a very logical fashion, the long-term consequences of their behaviour, and according to Jobber (1995, 612), the critics of the plan that is being implemented should be left in no doubt about the undesirable consequences of opposition, a conduct also referred to as selling the negatives. Also in the study on popular change management literature by Lewis et al. (2006, 128), although a much less popular theme than others, a set of tactics was found involving a darker side of advice of using threats, punishments, and intimidation. However, as Jobber (1995, 612) and Paton and McCalman (2000, 12) note, these tactics should be used with care, as statements that are perceived as threats may stiffen rather than dilute resistance.

Ultimately, as has been noted earlier, implementers should bear in mind that people require time to come to terms with change (see, for example Jobber 1995, 614; Chew & Choo 2008, 115). As for examples of using time as a tool for overcoming resistance, Jobber (1995, 613) suggests that when resistance to the full implementation package is likely to be strong, one option is to submit the strategy in incremental steps, where a small, less controversial strategy is implemented first, and its success then provides the impulsion for the next proposals. What's more, Morgan (2001) argues that according to experts, focusing on small improvements could also be a remedy for change fatigue, and Kim and Mauborgne (2003, 68) illustrate that with smaller scale goals, even monumental change can eventually be achieved, referred to by Storey (1992, 123) as eating the elephant a spoonful at a time.

2.5 Employing communication to facilitate change

As has been discussed earlier, communication is considered by many authors to be among the most important, if not the most essential, contributors to success, both when it comes to implementing change and applying the concept of marketing internally. Peus et al. (2009, 170) further summarise that research seems to point to the enormous importance of communication in change processes, and Russ (2008, 199) and Allen et al. (2007) conclude that communication plays a critical role during the implementation phase, because, at its root, change is a communicative challenge. As for other examples of such notions, Jobber (1995, 607) considers communication a major element in internal marketing, covering the media and messages used to influence the attitudes of key players, and Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 31) argue that as motivating employees and influencing their attitudes is important, getting internal communication strategies right is central, while Flipo (2000, 70) wishes to highlight the notion that of the tools in the marketing mix, only communication can compensate for unfavourable working conditions. Finally, the significance of communication is also underlined by Gilley et al. (2008, 155), who state that effective management of change, which is an essential contributor to the success of change initiatives, could actually be defined as managing resistance through communication.

2.5.1 Laying the basis for effective communication

Before setting in motion the discussion on constructing communication strategies aimed at facilitating change implementation, it might be advisable to give some consideration to the most common challenges related to communication. Varey (2000, 28, 284), among others, notes that even though it is widely agreed that communication is central to internal marketing and to the effectiveness of organisations, the conception of communication in marketing literature is outdated, and the work of Wilbur Schramm[3], first published in the 1940s, has been, by far, the most widely adopted in promoting a set of communication practices designed to produce cognitive, affective or behavioural outcomes among a specified target audience, and it still remains disproportionately influential. Varey (2000, 284) also argues that even though communication might be seen as the study of people in a relationship, this conclusion and orientation has not yet penetrated into marketing texts, which have also failed to cope with the diversity of activities that fall within the marketing communication field, while Varey and Lewis (2000, 294)

[3] Schramm, W.A. (1948) *Mass Communications*. University of Illinois Press, Urbana IL.

observe that much of the internal marketing discussion has, so far, emphasised a narrow conception of promotional communication; the outmoded misconception of marketing only as selling and advertising, which can be considered limiting, mechanistic and only tactical. Furthermore, a large amount of the general writing on management has neglected to fully incorporate a study of the communication processes involved, and in many organisations, communication is recognised as being important, but little or nothing is done about it (see, for example Tourish & Hargie 2004b, 6). Hargie and Tourish (2004, 236) consider it as a sad reality that communication in many organisations is all-pervasive but often unplanned, widely touted as a panacea for organisational ills yet given minimal resources, and still seen as something managers do to their subordinates.

In addition, while several authors have agreed on the importance of effective communication in managing change, many have also recognised that poor communication is at the root of many problems with implementing change, and many change initiatives fail because the change recipients simply do not understand the need for change, the details of it or how it might impact them as individuals (Connor & Lake 1988; Bobo 2000, 18; Paton & McCalman 2000, 245; Varey 2002, 216; Kim & Mauborgne 2003; Allen et al. 2007; Hayes 2007, 181; Hackman & Edmondson 2008, 182). Ferdous (2008, 226) suggests that among the main reasons why many organisations are not performing well in terms of communicating change is the failure to implement appropriate integrated internal communication programs to their internal market, and Hargie and Tourish (2004, 235) illustrate the challenges of communication with a remark from Georg Bernard Shaw:

> *The single biggest problem in communication is the illusion that it has taken place.*

According to Hargie and Tourish (2004, 235), in many organisations, communication initiatives are launched like missiles by central command, but they are not guided and there is no equivalent of mission control to track their performance. In reality, many employees might never have heard that there even was a launch, and the missile itself disappears into the corporate ether leaving no trace, as even though a change agent might think they have told someone something, it does not mean that it is clear for everyone to whom it may have been intended (Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 201; Cameron & Green 2004; Hargie & Tourish 2004, 235). Kotter (1996, 9) and Paton and McCalman (2000, 142) also argue that no quick-fix options lead to successful change, and problems with communication might arise from a good transformation vision being sold forward by only a few meetings, memos, t-shirts, quality posters, coffee mugs, seminars or newsletters. Respectively, according to study results presented by Tourish and Hargie (2004b, 7), employees clearly considered the lack of communication from managers, including complete absence of interaction, a general lack of feedback, or meetings tak-

ing place behind closed doors, very demotivating. In short, according to Varey (2002, 31), what is needed is real communication, not more or better communication.

As for overcoming challenges and achieving success with communication, Dawson (2004, 73) argues that while communication can be considered important, no simple sets of ingredients across the very different contextual landscapes can be given, and Sliburyte (2004, 192) agrees by stating that developing an effective communication strategy and executing it well is a challenging task. According to Welch and Jackson (2008, 188), internal communication should aim at contributing to internal relationships characterised by employee commitment, promoting a positive sense of belonging in employees, developing their awareness of environmental change, and developing their understanding of the need for the organisation to evolve its aims in response to or in anticipation of change.

As an overview of the basis for successful communication, according to a report, research continues to show that the organisations most effective at employee communication are competent in nine areas, and the framework titled the hierarchy of effective communication organises these best practices into three tiers. It is assumed the integration of all these practices that delivers truly effective communication (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2007, 16–19.)

Effective *foundational* communication practices ensure consistent and efficient communication and enhance the effect of strategic and behavioural communication if done well, and they are essential to achieving results when progressing up through the hierarchy. These practices include following a formal communication process, engaging in a dialogue with employees, aligning total rewards, and leveraging technology. The *strategic* practices tier illustrates how effective internal communication facilitates change, focuses on continuous improvement and connects to the business strategy. It has been noted that the complexity involved in facilitating change makes it one of the most difficult areas of communication, so organisations that are good at it outperform their peers. Finally, the *behavioural* practices engage employees and managers in the behaviours that drive business success, and help managers communicate more effectively, and increase the line of sight so that employees see how their efforts affect company success (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2007, 16–19.)

When it comes to guidelines for effective communication, Paton and McCalman (2000, 12) consider it necessary to talk to people about the change at every opportunity and Gilmore (2000, 79) argues that individuals in an organisation need to know why and how to communicate at all levels. Meanwhile, several authors underline the importance of communicating well and communicating often; providing detailed and accurate information during change, as the people in the middle of it all have a need to know what is going on and who is leading it, why it is happening, how it will operate in practice, who will be affected and why, what the steps along the way are including mile-

stones and timescales, where to get help and how to get involved, what new behaviours will be required, and whether training and development will be provided (Senior 2002, 211; Cameron & Green 2004; Allen et al. 2007, 196; Burke 2008, 25; Helms Mills et al. 2009, 133). In accordance, in a recent study it was found that employees are always looking to the organisation to put changes into perspective and tell them what they need to do differently to succeed (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 22).

In the meantime, Dawson (2004, 68) discusses study results that highlight how managing communication and change is about managing and unfolding a non-linear, political process, in which players are rarely clearly defined and often hold conflicting views and interests, and Varey (2000, 287) considers it self-deception to think that individuals would be engaging in communication action in their everyday work solely in pursuit of mutual understanding. Furthermore, Paton and McCalman (2000, 47) argue that if organisations fail to manage their communications, others will, as that the media, the unions, the rumour mill and the competitors are only too willing to assist a too silent organisation in its time of need. Reunis et al. (2005, 223) and Burke (2008, 25) agree and note that influencing the spread of change messages can be very difficult, due to individuals interpreting, assimilating and forwarding biased views. These can be considered important notions, as a recent study has also shown that in the absence of consistent messages, employees will fill the void with rumours and speculation, and it takes ten times the effort to correct misinformation than it does to deliver correct information in the first place (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 22).

To counter such challenges, Bordia et al. (2004, 361) suggest that systematic and credible communication prior to, during and after change will not only equip staff with necessary information but also engender a sense of control via feelings of participation and inclusion in change planning. According to Jobber (1995, 611) and Paton and McCalman (2000, 47), communication designed to inform, consult and promote action can assist in overcoming both resistance to change and ignorance, and a major part of the communication program should be designated to calming unfounded fears and anxieties and addressing the concerns of any individuals exaggerating the negative consequences of the change initiative. Likewise, Bordia et al. (2004, 360–361) and Allen et al. (2007, 205) argue that communication is vital in managing employee uncertainty, sense of control, and job satisfaction during change, and Allen et al. (2007, 202) also found in their studies that quality change communication demonstrated a positive relationship with more positive attitudes towards the change.

Moving on, according to a study, high effectiveness companies know their audiences and do their best to communicate with each group (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2007, 12) and Green (2007, 184) argues that many organisations indeed invest heavily in communicating with their different stakeholders, especially in times of change, and several ways exist for doing it. Stauss and Hoffmann (2000, 143), Kim and Mauborgne (2003)

and Reunis et al. (2005, 220) suggest differentiating the use of communication according to internal target groups and systematically aligning it to influence employees, by first identifying the individuals with the most influence in the organisation, and then through them spreading the change further in the organisation. Jobber (1995, 612) and Lanning (2001, 24–36), among others, note that as creating allies for the proposed measures is a crucial step in the implementation process, once recruited, they should be asked to communicate a visible demonstration of support, to help confirm any statements that the implementers have made about the strength of their backing.

Furtheremore, Dawson (2004, 70) and Ahmed and Rafiq (2003) note that a failure to engage key stakeholder groups through communication might heighten political activity during processes of change, and if companies do not appreciate the existence of different employee segments and their different needs, they might produce messages that hold little meaning for employees, and also, create distance between the employee and the organisation. As a conclusion, Cameron and Green (2004) propose that as parties with different interests have different needs when it comes to communications, some employees will need to be involved, some consulted and some told, while Varey (2002, 84) presents four possible communication orientations: commanding, persuading, influencing and collaborating.

Correspondingly, Jobber (1995, 607) illustrates an example of how the objectives for communication vary according to different target groups, identified through internal marketing research and stakeholder analysis. With the *supporters*, communication should be used to reinforce existing positive attitudes and behaviour and to mobilise support from key players. With the *neutrals*, communication should use influence strategies to build up perceptions of rewards and downgrade perceived losses. Also, key supporters should be displayed and used to explain the benefits of joining the team, and negotiation should be used to gain commitment. Finally, when it comes to the *opposers*, communication should aim at disarming and discrediting, anticipating objections and creating convincing counterarguments, positioning opposers as parties stuck in their own ways, bypassing them by gaining support of opinion and political leaders, or negotiating to lower resistance. (Jobber 1995, 607.)

2.5.2 Designing the means for communication

According to several authors, communication competence consists of knowing which approaches are applicable in certain situations: what emphasis to give, when and to what audience, and how to collect and give forward information from and to key actors. They key questions are focused on about w*hat, how much, when, from whom,* and *in what way* to communicate. (Storey 1992, 156; Gilmore 2000, 87; Cameron & Green 2004;

Sliburyte 2004, 190; Hayes 2007, 190; Burke 2008, 25.) Green (2007, 183) agrees and elaborates on the questions as follows: the *who* should be generated from stakeholder analysis in terms of those who are most affected and those who the change agent wants to actively engage in the change process, the *what* should emergence from understanding the stakeholders' needs, and from how much the change agent is willing to communicate with them, the *when* will be a mixture of timing in the change management process, the degree of co-operation needed and the values within the organisation is working, the *from whom* can be defined through deciding which stakeholders need communication from whom in the organisation, and the *how* through the nature of different stakeholder groups, the nature and consequences of the change, the organisational values, and the capacity and budget of the change team (Green 2007, 183).

Constructing messages

Templin (2009, 20) notes that practitioners in the field today advocate a process that focuses on acceptance of the message, and the belief is that if the message can be accepted, then buy-in is maximised and disruptions minimised. Meanwhile, Clampitt, DeKoch and Cashman (2000, 41) have observed that change implementers can communicate about anything, but they cannot communicate about everything – so, implicitly or explicitly, they make choices about communication content. In a study by Oreg (2006, 93), it was expected that the more information employees receive about the change, the less will they resist it, but the relationship between information and resistance was opposite to that hypothesised: more information about the change was associated with a worse evaluation of it and with increased willingness to act against it. The hypothesis was based on the assumption that resistance is irrational and is due to employees' unfamiliarity with the details of the change, while actually, as has been noted earlier, in many cases changes are resisted for very good reasons. Therefore, the relationship between information and resistance would appear to depend on the content, rather than the mere existence, of information. (Oreg 2006, 93.)

Based on their study, Lewis et al. (2006, 131) indicate that at the level of general principle, clear agreement can be found between practitioner-oriented sources and scholarly literature that information dissemination be wide, honest and open, as no authors suggested deception or withholding of information, and several directly addressed the negative consequences of such behaviour on the part of implementers. Mamantov (2009, 34), too, stresses the importance of being genuine and backing messages by actions, and as for negative information in change communication, Peus et al. (2009, 166, 167, 170) observe that even though it has perhaps been misrepresented in the popular press, communicating negative information may also be important when it comes to explaining the rationale behind the changes. However, Hayes (2007, 191) proposes that while in some situations, a policy of complete openness about all issues to everybody as

soon as possible might be appropriate, in others information might be highly restricted, and in a fairly recent study (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2007, 7) a slight trend was found away from explaining the reasons behind major decisions.

As for the choice of message language, Kotter (1996, 90), Paton and McCalman (2000, 45) and Helms Mills et al. (2009, 133) propose that the implementers of change should customise the messages to fit the audience's skills and knowledge, in operational and not abstract terms and in a language that is accessible to all parties involved – in other words, no jargon. In addition, Dawson (2004, 71) notes that the management's political change agenda may be consciously serviced by a language that aims to be seen as firm and fair in articulating the need for change; or, a survival crisis may be promoted and supported by various forms of communication which seek to engage employees with the urgency to change. Finally, Varey and Lewis (2000, 300) and Ahmed and Rafiq (2003) propose that internal marketing, by creating messages and appealing to the emotions with a vocabulary acceptable to all, might provide organisations a rich source of advantage.

In addition to the content of messages, Paton and McCalman (2000, 45–46) highlight that the interpretation of communication depends also upon its tone, and therefore, change implementers should notice that offence might be caused if the tone is perceived inappropriate, lecturing, patronising, condescending or disrespectful. Also, as change in any form can trigger a number of emotional responses, Cameron and Green (2004) propose that personalised messages might be more likely to be received in a better frame of mind, and study responses indicate that employees place importance on the timeliness, accuracy and usefulness the information (Allen et. al 2007, 196, 202; Peus et al. 2009, 170).

Choosing channels and strategies

The manner in which information is communicated is also likely to influence change acceptance (Oreg 2006, 94), and information and meaning can be communicated in many different ways (Hayes 2007, 180). Kotter (1996, 10) argues that communication can be said to come in both words and deeds, with the latter considered the most powerful, and according to him, nothing undermines change more than important individuals behaving in ways that are inconsistent with the verbal communication. Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 196), too, note that communication is not only verbal, and in addition to explicit messages, an organisation communicates by its measurement and reward systems and through its structure, while according to Welch and Jackson (2007, 178), internal communication happens constantly within organisations and includes informal chat on the grapevine as well as managed communication. In addition, a recent study found that companies are making greater use of electronic and face-to-face communication than before, while the use of print continues to decline, and although social media

gets the most media attention and is an emerging trend, the most prevalent means of communication still continue to comprise of e-mail, intranet and staff meetings (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 17, 19).

Cameron and Green (2004) and Helms Mills et al. (2009, 133) argue that a continuous flow of communication is needed throughout the change process, and likewise, in their study, Lewis et al. (2006, 131) found the idea of keeping information flowing a constant message among different authors when discussing change implementation. According to Tourish and Hargie (2004c, 188), that flow can be horizontal, across similarly placed levels in the organisation chart, vertical, from managers to non-managerial staff or vice versa, or diagonal, bypassing intermediate layers. According to Sliburyte (2004, 190), information can be pushed or pulled through various communication channels, and push behaviour occurs when information is aimed towards a specific receiver, while information characterised by a pull behaviour means that each individual must seek the desired information on his or her own initiative.

With regards to facilitating the flow of information, several authors argue that among the most significant changes in recent years has been the adoption of technologies, and new possibilities for communication will continue to expand even further (Varey & Lewis 2000, 295; Tourish & Hargie 2004a, xii; Hultman & Axelsson 2005, 176; O'Kane, Hargie & Tourish 2004, 94). However, Gummesson (2000, 37) and Varey and Lewis (2000, 295) underline that information and communication technologies can only support the ways to communicate, but they cannot tell organisations how to do so, and any technology itself is only beneficial when put to constructive use. Similarly, O'Kane et al (2000, 94) state that organisations need to recognise both the benefits and the possible dangers the electronic revolution might bring, and Dunne and Barnes (2000, 217) along with Hultman and Axelsson (2005, 177) note that the increasing use of technology has been a continuing challenge in the maintenance of close, meaningful customer relationships outside, and inside, organisations, and it might sometimes lead to problems in communication. According to fairly recent research findings, (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2007, 15), while electronic communication continues to be the dominant channel for reaching employees across geographies, a study has showed a renewed interest and a slight increase in face-to-face communication.

In accordance, Russ (2008, 199) underlines that organisations do not change through automation, but rather, change is implemented and sustained through human communication, and Gummesson (2000, 37–38) argues that while an electronic relationship can be considered high tech, a human relationship offers high touch, and using high tech will never make the need for high touch obsolete. Dunne and Barnes (2000, 217–218) observe that human moments, the frequency of social contact, interaction and person-to-person communication, are becoming irregular and fragmented, and thus, a sense on

cohesiveness may be lost, which could result in the organisational culture taking a shift towards being perceived unfriendly and unforgiving.

Therefore, to counter such effects, it would seem essential to develop processes within which authentic human encounters occur regularly (see, for example Dunne and Barnes 2000, 217–218; Gummesson 2000, 38). According to Dunne and Barnes (2000, 218), that would call for a communication component to facilitate employee interactions, as well as information distribution that allows the dissemination of knowledge throughout the firm, with employees feeling that they truly are a part of it all.

In connection with providing human moments with communication, Allen et al. (2007, 207) suggest that the source of information may also be an important predictor of employees' attitudes towards change. Many authors agree with research findings that indicate how employees in general tend to be influenced most by their immediate superiors and how face-to-face communication them is for many the preferred method of communication, and therefore, it is suggested that the most effective means of communications would be through immediate superiors (Bobo 2000, 18; Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 35; Lings & Greenley 2005; Allen et al. 2007, 198; Yates 2008, 21; Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 10.) In the study by Allen et al. (2007), employees rated the quality of information they received from their supervisors high, because communication was usually two-way and thus allowed them to ask questions and make suggestions. In accordance, several managers described their role as a filter of information making sure that their employees received information regarding changes in such a way that it was relevant and understandable (Allen et al. 2007).

Related to such notions, Peus et al. (2009, 167) suggest that, since people are likely to experience uncertainty and anxiety even when aware of the need for change, dialogic communication with the direct supervisor might be crucial in winning employees' support for the change initiative, Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 35) propose that in turn the immediate superiors need to be motivated by strategic management, and Yates (2008, 21) notes that top-performing companies support their managers in their communication role and reward them for communicating well. According to a study, it should also be made sure that managers are able to put the future vision into perspective for their employees and are in a position to reinforce the desired culture (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 8), Berry and Parasuraman (2000, 181) underline the importance of middle managers in internal marketing, and Peus et al. (2009, 165–166) propose that it might be advisable to focus on communicating job-specific information through supervisors after strategic information has been provided by senior management. In accordance, effective, active and visible sponsorship from senior management is also considered by Gurnani (1999, 213–214) to be an essential factor in successfully implementing change.

Also regarding the sources for information, according to Gilmore (2000, 81), using and recognising informal networks in an organisation is important if internal marketing

is to be effective, and Frambach and Schillewaert (2001, 165) propose that organisational members participating in networks may facilitate the spread of information about an innovation. Dunne and Barnes (2000, 206, 208) state that although interactions between co-workers often tend to be regarded as task-related or transactional, research suggests that they often offer one another a source of intimacy through discussion of personal matters, problem solving or joking. In their studies, Allen et al. (2007, 197) also found that employees often used their co-workers as sources of useful information regarding day-today issues surrounding the change, and this process of communication appeared to primarily serve a supporting role. They also found that the content of the information shared between co-workers in the context of change seemed to vary according to the stage of the change, and before implementation the majority of information received from co-workers was in the form of rumours and speculation, while in contrast, during the implementation phase of change, communication with co-workers was found to focus on airing views and sharing the burden of changes. (Allen et al. 2007, 198.)

In the meantime, when it comes to the amount of communication flowing through different channels, Cameron and Green (2004) argue that while in some situations there might be too much communication, the problem is usually that of too little communication too late, and a recent study suggests that highly effective communicators say more, not less (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 22). In the meantime, Oreg (2006, 94) and Burke (2008, 25) argue that on one hand, with too much communication, organisation members' expectations might become unrealistic, and on the other hand, if the change implementers communicate too little, paranoia might set in and result in accusations for conducting so-called secret deals. Furthermore, Burke (2008, 25) proposes that if too much is communicated too soon in the process, misunderstandings might occur, and contrary, if too little is communicated too late, organisation members might conclude that the change effort was not working and it should be abandoned as a whole. In accordance, Davis (2009, 20) argues that more communication won't necessarily lead to better engagement, and in fact it has been found that in many companies, employees are receiving more communication, but they are using it less, due to them feeling increasingly overloaded with information, which negatively affects their satisfaction with communication. Although employees report feeling informed about key business issues, they're not sure how they relate to the work that they do every day (Davis 2009, 20). To avoid these possible problems with communication, Burke (2008, 26) suggests that change leaders should communicate in an open and honest manner and do so in a careful, balanced fashion. In addition, Kotter (1996, 90) and Bobo (2000, 18) argue that repetition and accountability might help, and according to Morgan (2001), change implementers need to be prepared to give the same speech at least six times or it won't get heard.

In addition to planning the means and channels, and related to the discussion on the amount of communication, change implementers may also choose from a variety of strategies when putting communication into operation. Clampitt et al. (2000) have identified five approaches: *Spray and pray* involves showering employees with all kinds of information in the hope that they will feel informed and have access to all the information they require, and it is based on the assumption that more information equals better communication, and that all organisational members are able to differentiate between what is and is not significant. *Tell and sell* involves communicating a more limited set of messages that are believed to address core issues related to the proposed change, and it has been observed that the change implementers who adopt this approach often spend a great deal of time planning sophisticated presentations while devoting little time and energy to fostering meaningful dialogue and providing organisational members with the opportunity to discuss their concerns. *Underscore and explore* focuses attention on a limited set of fundamental issues linked to the change, like in the tell and sell approach, but the difference is that change implementers also give others the creative freedom they need to explore the implications of these issues. Those adopting this approach can be said to be concerned not only with developing a few core messages, but also with listening attentively for potential misunderstandings and unrecognised obstacles. *Identify and reply* is a strategy different from the first three in that its primary focus is the concerns of the organisational members; it is a reactive approach that involves listening in order to identify and then respond to these concerns. However, a risk might arise from organisational members not knowing enough to even ask the right questions. Finally, *Withhold and uphold* involves withholding information until necessary. In some special circumstances certain considerations might require information to be shared on a need-to-know basis, but there are change implementers who value secrecy and control. Some adopting this communication strategy assume that information is power, and thus are reluctant to share it, while others might assume that most organisational members are not sophisticated enough to grasp the big picture. (Clampitt et al. 2000.) According to Clampitt et al. (2000), the strategies at the extreme are the least effective, and the most effective one would be the *underscore and explore* strategy, because it allows change implementers to shape the change agenda, but also responds to the concerns of employees.

Meanwhile, Green (2007, 181) proposes that as the purpose of communication can be seen as moving people from one position to another in terms of their awareness, knowledge and support or commitment to the change, the process of communication in change processes could be considered a marketing challenge, and thus he suggests the application of the AIDA(S) framework, which highlights the generic stages in experiencing change According to him, *A* presents the need to capture the recipients' attention and increase their awareness of the change. *I* stands for gaining the recipients interest in

the change usually through emphasising the features, qualities and benefits of the change. *D* is for desire, and it stands for getting people positively inclined to the change, as the more they can want it and see the benefits of it, the more they will be drawn towards it. *A* is for the action that will then happen. As change involves changes in behaviour with people doing things differently, communication lacking the effect of action on behaviour may be likely to fail. *S* stands for satisfaction or the realisation of the benefits the recipients experience. The S stage in the model becomes a link to a person's tendency for further change, and therefore, if satisfaction has been gained from short-term wins, further commitment to the change may be encouraged. (Green 2007, 181.)

As a conclusion for the discussion on laying the basis and planning for effective communication, Sliburyte (2004, 193) argues that effective internal communication calls for the exchange of information regardless of personal ego or agendas, and without fear of personal consequences. It is also vital to know what kind of information is to be communicated, as it constitutes the base when determining who the information is relevant for and what channel is suitable for such matter. According to her, a mutual commitment needs to be secured, where both sender and receiver are involved throughout the information exchange. (Sliburyte 2004, 198.) In a similar way, Bordia et al. (2004, 361) recommend that organisations should invest a great deal of effort in communication programs aimed at information dissemination, participative decision making, and employee empowerment. Also according to studies by Lewis et al. (2006, 131), many authors have promoted soliciting wide participation in change communication, and such issues will be further discussed in the following.

2.5.3 Inviting change recipients to participate in communication

According to Schein (1999, 105–107, 125), everybody learns in early life that human interaction is reciprocal. However, as Varey (2000, 288) notes, most corporate communication systems are systems of control, when what is actually required is participation. Similarly, Bobo (2000, 18) and Hayes (2007, 177) observe that many organisations have a long tradition of one-way, top-down communication, with those responsible for managing the change informing others lower down the organisation about the need for change, what is going to happen and what is required of them. Meanwhile, Russ (2008, 200) discusses programmatic approaches to communicating change and according to him, a key component of such approaches is the downward cascade of information about the change, such as the transmission of new policies and procedures, knowledge or facts about the change process, and directives for how the change should be implemented on the organisation's frontlines. Implicit in these approaches is that the change implementers hold the power and that gaining stakeholders' compliance is of utmost

importance, and communication is highly centralised, controlled, and involves little to no organisational participation. (Russ 2008, 200.)

Based on such notions, Appelbaum and Callagher (2000, 50–51) and Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 195) argue that what is often missing in the definition of communication is the listening aspect, which provides an opportunity to understand what the other person heard and perceived, and in their study, Allen et al. (2007, 196) found that nearly all employees who considered communication low in quality described the communication process from senior management to be very top down in nature, with little participatory strategies made available. Also, Allen et al. (2007, 207) further propose that among the reasons for difficulties in reducing employee uncertainty during change is the often one-way nature of communication strategies, and Russ (2008, 202) observes two core limitations associated with using programmatic implementation approaches: first, change is not a one-way communication process; and second, programmatic approaches may cause an avalanche of unnecessary communication, thus overwhelming participants.

Therefore, as Varey (2000, 288) suggests, a shift in communication is needed from controlling to stewardship. Several other authors agree and emphasise the importance of communication being two-way, dialogue, listening as well as informing (see, for example Jobber 1995, 607; Hogg & Carter 2000, 112; Russ 2008, 204), while Bobo (2000, 18) and Sliburyte (2004, 192) note that even the most authoritarian managers are indeed beginning to recognise that mere one-way communication contributes little to employee motivation and behaviour change, and a shift can be seen away from the old, hierarchical chain-of-command structures. Varey (2002, 231), too, notes the shift in conceiving communication as a participatory social phenomenon rather than as a neutral tool for objective informing, as well as communication being something that is done with people, rather than to or from them, which, according to him, is also the very basis of relationship marketing. Similarly, Allen et al. (2007, 208) argue that by allowing questions from employees, change implementers may ensure that the more job-relevant issues surrounding the change are clearly articulated, and according to a report, best practices call for ensuring that employee communication flows not only from the top down but also from the bottom up, and a study found that high-effectiveness firms are more likely to ask employees to share ideas and suggestions on programs and changes (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2007, 6). In addition, a more recent study indicates that employers that keep the lines of communication open are in the best position to keep employees engaged in the business and retain key talent (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 4). Finally, according to Russ (2008, 205), examples of participatory communication activities include open forums, working groups, informal conversations, focus groups and brainstorming sessions, morale, attitude, and opinion surveys, formal assessments and evaluation, and unsolicited complaints or praise, including verbal or written feedback.

Furthemore, according to Varey (2000, 289), conversing organisations can be full of natural talk, curiosity, discussion and questions, and they can expect to encounter more satisfactory goal accomplishment. In accordance, a study by Lewis et al. (2006, 123) indicates that many authors have recommended using communication to create some sense of shared vision or using participation tactics as a means to quieting rumour mills, venting, and therapy-like sessions in which employees may express themselves as part of a healing process. Similarly, Allen et al. (2007, 208) suggest that participative communication strategies may facilitate the development of trust within the organisation and assist the success of future change events, while Ferdous (2008, 230) argues that selling a shared vision might become impossible if all levels of employees are not involved in all the steps of the process, and change implementers fail to continuously communicate in a consistent manner under all organisational conditions and show full commitment to the program. However, in a fairly recent study a decline was found in the number of companies that take the time to explain the reasons behind major decisions and give employees the opportunity to provide input into decisions that affect them and into how work gets done (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2007, 2). Also, Welch and Jackson (2007, 187) wish to draw attention to the notion that in some circumstances one-way communication from strategic managers to all employees is both unavoidable and necessary, and it is appropriate when message consistency is important and mediated means of communication are a necessary strategic choice. They also argue that while two-way symmetrical communication has been seen ideal, it would be unrealistic to suggest that internal corporate communication could be conducted principally as face-to-face dialogue, as, except in very small organisations, it is a practical impossibility for senior managers to meet and discuss strategy with all employees (Welch & Jackson 2007, 186).

Collecting feedback from change recipients

Russ (2008, 204–205) proposes that the objective of participatory communication activities is to build consensus among relevant stakeholders by fostering their involvement and soliciting their ideas and inviting, not merely receiving their input, and according to Tourish and Hargie (2004c, 189), what steers in the direction of perfection is practice with relevant feedback.

Similarly, Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 106) state that measurement and feedback are long-term drivers of improvement and have important bearing in directing behaviour, and Paton and McCalman (2000, 46) along with Hayes (2007, 177) also stress the need for building feedback channels and argue that especially in change situations, with a need to allay fears and uncertainties, it is essential that the manager has some means of ensuring that the message was received, believed, accepted and understood. According to Morrison (2002, 230–232), the reasons for seeking feedback include a desire to re-

duce a high level of uncertainty, the goal of becoming competent in a task, a wish to correct perceived errors in performance, and wanting to regulate and improve one's performance.

Furthermore, in an organisation development process model originally presented by Burke[4] and further discussed by Paton and McCalman (2000, 174), before the change process can be planned, information needs to be gathered and analysed and feedback provided, and Angdal et al. (2005, 50) also suggest that by asking for the views of several stakeholders on the present and desired states, one can get them involved in the process from the beginning. In accordance, Cameron and Green (2004) stress the importance of giving thought also to the recipients of the communication, and asking them about their needs for information, their preferred forms of communication, and the best time for them to be communicated with. Welch and Jackson (2007, 188) also suggest that research into employee preferences for channel and content of communication is required, as employee preferences for the amount of information they want on a variety of topics require further study to ensure internal communication meets employee needs, since there is a danger that it might be seen as contributing to information overload.

Meanwhile, as for deciding upon the means for collecting feedback, Tourish and Hargie (2004c, 188–189) argue that as feedback and knowledge of results have long been known to be essential to effective human performance in any task, the more accurate channels and helpful feedback one has access to, the better one is likely to perform, and likewise, if channels are cut off, performance is likely to deteriorate. Schein (1999, 43, 130–131) notes that listening can be a rather complex activity that may be pursued very actively or very passively, and argues that feedback can be thought of as information about the process towards the goals one is trying to achieve, and therefore, any messages coming from the physical and interpersonal environment can be feedback. However, he continues by stating that accurate, focused and deliberate feedback is needed, as without it, any efforts to learn would be reduced to pure trial and error (Schein 1999, 131). According to Green (2007, 183, 185) it is the change implementers' choice as to how much engagement is wanted from different stakeholders, but what is important to remember is that feedback is enabled whenever wanted or needed.

When it comes the channels for feedback, Russ (2008, 205) observes that their nature ranges from the very formal to the very informal and input can be obtained in multiple ways. Stauss and Hoffmann (2000, 149) argue that a channel for sending feedback directly to the sender might be useful, and according to Yates (2008, 19), high-performing companies use a varied range of tools for soliciting employee input, from large-scale annual and biennial surveys and mini surveys to focus groups and skip-level leadership

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[4] Burke, W. (1994) *Organization development: a normative view*. Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA.

sessions. Among the main techniques used for gathering feedback in organisations, mentioned in many discussions, are survey methods, which can be useful for identifying and assessing the attitudes, morale and needs of people across the organisation, and are tools applicable for all the stages of change processes (see, for example Paton & McCalman 2000, 163, 173; Senior 2002, 326; Mamantov 2009, 34).

Finally, the feedback collected, according to Senior (2002, 326), helps stimulate discussion of what is working and what is not and should result in modifications to the action plan or the way it is being implemented. Similarly, Jobber (1995, 607) proposes that change implementers should be prepared to adapt the product, the implementation plan, if necessary, in response to the internal customers' demands, and according to him, such conduct can be considered analogous to the adaptation of a new product in the external marketplace as a result of marketing research. Also based on a report (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2007, 6.), it can be argued that dialogue has greater impact when followed by action, as it was found that high effectiveness companies are more likely to communicate the changes they have made as a result of employee surveys. Yates (2008, 20), too, stresses that asking for input is only the first step, and the next step is showing employees that they are being listened to by acting on the input received. She also makes remarks to findings that indicate that well performing companies are far more likely to communicate the changes they have made as a result of employee surveys and to measure the impact of this communication on employee engagement (Yates 2008, 20). Finally, Morgan (2001) emphasises the importance of letting employees also hear the arguments for and against the options that were rejected.

What's more, based on study findings, it is proposed that high-performing companies are disciplined and take the time to document their communication plans and develop metrics to assess their success and identify areas of improvement. Measurement is also considered an important tool for assessing the effectiveness of communication efforts, building the business case for additional resources and refining efforts to improve overall communication effectiveness. Finally, it is argued that in short, high-performing companies listen, act and communicate, and they then go a step beyond: they measure the impact of communication on employee engagement. (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 4, 7, 20.)

To conclude the discussion on participatory communication, even though several authors have noted the need for soliciting input and feedback from change recipients, seeking out information and getting messages through bottom-up channels may in many situations prove challenging (see, for example Wille & Hodgson 2000, 147; Hayes 2007, 187; Russ 2008, 205). According to Russ (2008, 205), although seemingly versatile in nature, current research suggests that implementers typically do not use participatory communication activities, and in another study it was found that while many companies report using employee surveys and other internal metrics, only a few truly listen

to employees and take action (Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2007, 6). Meanwhile, Tourish and Hargie (2004c, 189) note that in many organisations, the importance of obtaining feedback from key markets to assess how their products are being received is recognised, while in relation to staff communications, many implicitly or explicitly take the view that feedback is only required from the top down, and often, no more than lip service is paid to the notion titled addressing staff concerns. Similarly, according to Russ (2008, 207), participatory approaches are often viewed as nice to have by implementers, while programmatic approaches tend to be the strategy of choice in bringing about planned change in organisations.

Furthermore, according to Burke (2008, 30), it appears that once managers and executives receive feedback from multiple sources, they either avoid taking any action, because of perhaps denying or resisting the feedback, or may simply not know what to do. As the potential costs of receiving negative feedback, Morrison (2002, 230–232) mentions damage to one's ego, a less positive image in the organisation, and the effort involved in having to change one's performance in consequence, while Tourish and Hargie (2004c, 190) propose that receiving negative feedback may be both personally upsetting and impact adversely upon one's public image, and people might also worry that seeking feedback could be interpreted as a sign of weakness.

Meanwhile, Hayes (2007, 187–188) notes that challenges with feedback might also arise from change recipients, as they might not always openly and honestly answer all the questions asked, or might attempt to manage the way they respond to maximise their personal benefit from the interaction rather than to help the change managers achieve their purpose, and according to Sliburyte (2004, 192–193), they may be reluctant to communicate negative feedback or share information that reflects negatively on them and their work. Also, some participatory efforts might be perceived insincere by the recipients, and thinly veiled attempts at creating participation can be considered disingenuous and thus spawn distrust and resentment throughout the organisation, potentially jeopardising current as well as future change efforts (Russ 2008, 206). Finally, according to Tourish and Hargie (2004c, 203), it could be concluded that the problem is not with upward feedback per se; it is with ensuring that feedback is open, honest and, above all, critical.

Finally, to bring the first part of the study to a closing, it is highlighted that when aiming at enhancing the working environment, for example with a goal of achieving success with change initiatives, it might be worth noticing that in the end, such changes can only be triggered by the employees themselves, as doing so directly is beyond management's power. Still, change implementers do have the opportunity of facilitating the process of making the climate more positive, by creating the conditions in which it can be enhanced (Flipo 2000, 70.)

3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

After exploring the themes of interest in this study through observing earlier research and writings, the next stage was to collect empirical data. Insights from the field were gathered first from the perspective of change implementers, and then from that of future recipients. In the following, the planning, execution and analysis of the empirical phase are discussed, and first, the context for conducting the research as well as the partners of cooperation are presented.

3.1 Presenting the partners of cooperation and the research context

This study as a whole was planned and conducted in cooperation with two parties; the Finnish Business Travel Association FBTA, and the travel management function from VTT Technical Research Centre of Finland. Already from the beginning it was agreed that while the exploration of the fields of change implementation, internal marketing and communication would be discussed on a more general level, the empirical part of the research would focus on the field on travel management, as marketing and communication were considered among the future areas of development with travel management issues, too, and implementing changes in organisations from a travel management point-of-view has its own characteristics and challenges.

3.1.1 FBTA Finnish Business Travel Association

The Finnish Business Travel Association FBTA is an organisation for business travel professionals, both buyers and suppliers, and its mission is to enhance the understanding, knowledge and skills required in corporate travel and meeting management and procurement (FBTA a; FBTA b). FBTA is member of Paragon Partnership, the Global Alliance of Business Travel Associations, and International Chamber of Commerce Finland. Founded in 1984, the association has nearly 180 members, of which 65% are corporate travel buyers and 35% suppliers. The total travel expenditures managed by FBTA buyer members reach more than € 1 billion per year. (FBTA b.)

FBTA aims at offering a unique, neutral forum for information and best practices, as well as a network for benchmarking, with the ultimate goal of providing added value to its members through cost effective and high-quality travel and meetings management. The association also works with industry and government bodies to improve the general conditions for business travel and travel management, and aims at enhancing the status

and visibility of travel and meetings management through stimulating public discussion on topical industry issues. (FBTA b; FBTA a.)

Among the association's focus points for 2010 are following the changes and trends affecting the field of travel management and waking open discussion about their impacts on all parties involved, and making FBTA more known and enhancing the appreciation towards it as a forum for the whole service chain. Also, the goal is to bring up central travel management related questions in public discussions together with supplier members, and participate in international interactions with other business travel associations and organisations from the field. (FBTA a.)

3.1.2 VTT Technical Research Centre of Finland

VTT Technical Research Centre of Finland is a globally networked multitechnological contract research organisation, the biggest multitechnological applied research organisation in Northern Europe, providing high-end technology solutions and innovation services. It is a state-owned non-profit-making research organisation and part of the Finnish innovation system under the domain of the Ministry of Employment and the Economy. (VTT a; VTT b; VTT c.)

Established in 1942, the organisation has almost 3000 members (VTT b), and from January 1, 2010, it operates in VTT Group structure. The group consists of VTT research and development, business solutions, strategic research, IP business, and Group services, as well as VTT Group companies VTT Expert Services Ltd, VTT International Ltd and VTT Ventures Ltd. Travel management in the organisational structure is part of Group services, support functions. (VTT b; VTT c.)

The roles of the cooperation partners in conducting this study were similar in the sense that both provided valuable insights about the field of travel management as a whole and as a part of organisations, and presented suggestions and comments about the study from the planning stages onward, thus aiding the researcher with only little earlier experience from the field to gather a more thorough understanding of it. The roles had their differences, too. FBTA acted as a source for general knowledge about travel management, and as information sources, in addition to personal guidance from the FBTA representative, the researcher had access to the association's vast online information database. In addition, FBTA provided valuable support when choosing and contacting travel management specialists for the expert interviews conducted to gather change implementers' views, from respondents that would represent the implementers in the field as thoroughly as possible. Meanwhile, the role of VTT, and especially the organisation's travel management function, was to help build a case for the research. Among the changes currently either planned for implementation or already under implementation,

as has been mentioned, the future introduction of an online self-booking tool was chosen as an example of a change, and as travel management is a function that has an effect on the whole organisation, all employees were given an opportunity to participate in sharing their views. The aim of conducting the study among the employees was, in addition to providing change recipients' insights to use in the research, to help build ground for the future change implementation and use the responses in its planning. In addition, conducting and communicating – even later marketing – a travel management related study was aimed at creating more awareness of the function as a whole in the organisation.

3.1.3 Travel management as an organisational function

It can be agreed that business meetings with colleagues, owners, customers and suppliers are important and useful to many organisations today, but at the same time, they tend to be an expensive and time-consuming activity both from the organisation's as well as an employee's point-of-view, as travelling is often required for attending them. In addition, travelling may cause employees stress and involve risks. Therefore, many organisations today work with travel management for cost-effective, fair and safe travel and meeting arrangements, with environmental issues also taken into consideration. (Gustafson & Bergström Casinowsky 2010, 28–29.)

During its earliest stages, systematic work on the field of travel management took place in large organisations in North America, where the National Business Travel Association (NBTA) was established in 1968. In an interview, an experienced Swedish travel manager remembers how in the 1980s he was sent to USA to learn about travel management, which at the time was still a new field in Sweden. (Gustafson & Bergström Casinowsky 2010, 27.)

Business travel management has since evolved as a discipline beyond the early days of employee trip transaction processing to a sophisticated indirect supply management function that encompasses the entire source-to-settle process from negotiating contracts with preferred suppliers to employee-initiated expense reconciliation. Increasingly, the function can be seen taking on responsibilities for meetings and events, as well as travel alternatives such as video and teleconferencing, and held accountable to cost-effectively support business objectives. (Global Business Travel Forecast 2010, 1.) Nowadays, in addition to its significance being recognised and consequently designated travel management functions and responsible being included in many organisations, travel management can be noted to be of interest as a field of academic research, too (see, for example Holma 2009; Gustafson & Bergström Casinowsky 2010).

The goal for travel management work is, according to Gustafson and Bergström Casinowsky (2010, 31), to control the organisation's travel expenses and aim at making travelling simple, comfortable and safe for employees, while taking responsibility also for environmental issues. The authors further note that travel management work could be summarised as *taking control* of travel issues, and identify six important tasks for travel managers: developing and implementing a travel policy, cooperating with a travel agency, making agreements with suppliers, creating standardised payment routines, collecting and analysing travel statistics, and communicating and gaining support within the organisation (Gustafson & Bergström Casinowsky 2010, 7, 32–33).

Meanwhile, it has also been indicated that travel management should respond to a variety of organisations' needs, while keeping abreast with current affairs and development in the field. The areas of responsibility and tasks for travel management, as well as the organisational fields involved in travel management can also be described as purchasing, finance, human resources, information technology, and the travellers (FBTA c; FBTA d).

As for more detailed discussion on the fields, when it comes to purchasing, travel management should define, implement and follow up a purchase strategy for the function, develop supplier relations and aim at good prices and terms when negotiating purchase contracts with chosen suppliers. With financial issues, in turn, cost-effectiveness and savings should be striven for, for instance with travel expenses, handling costs, insurances and payment methods, and regular reports and follow-ups should be conducted. (FBTA c; FBTA d.) Furthermore, Gustafson and Bergström Casinowsky (2010, 29) stress the importance of cost-control and savings by stating that they are, without doubt, the most important aspects of travel management, and it has also been noted that travel and related expenses (T&E) are the 3rd or even the 2nd largest controllable corporate cost after salaries and IT (FBTA c). Moving on, also IT issues should be taken into consideration by aiming at employing tools that are easy to use, effective and smooth to operate, not overlapping with one another but well integrated, reliable, controllable and cost-effective (FBTA c; FBTA d). In the meantime, of importance when it comes to travel management issues are, quite naturally, the travellers, for whom all travel arrangements should be facilitated, from booking to expense reporting as well as other administrative issues, and the business trips themselves made as comfortable and smooth as possible given the circumstances (FBTA c; Gustafson & Bergström Casinowsky 2010, 29–30). Also regarding the travellers, safety issues should never be ignored, and enhancing travel safety should be aimed at (Gustafson & Bergström Casinowsky 2010, 30; FBTA d). Finally, also human resources-related issues may be involved when communicating travel policies, rules and guidelines, organising training, attending to safety issues and monitoring compliance (FBTA c; FBTA d).

As for recent issues, according to Boehmer (2009, 9) travel buyers, travel management company executives and technology suppliers have noted that managing the demand for travel has risen to a priority as companies attempt to reduce discretionary spending, while also preserving the business objectives that travel can facilitate, and it has been argued that travel people today are being asked how to *not* travel. Similarly, in a report it is noted that companies are expected to try to determine why travel is necessary and appropriate and when a more cost-effective alternative would accomplish the same business goal (Global Business Travel Forecast 2010, 1). The report further suggests that the biggest opportunities for improvement in 2010 will be in supporting the business in understanding the impact of not only travel, but travel alternatives such as telepresence investments, and mastering the art of driving the correct behaviour of employees to make the right decisions regarding when and why to travel, known as demand management, should follow (Global Business Travel Forecast 2010, 4). In the article by Boehmer (2009, 9) among the mechanisms used for managing traveller behaviour, over half of the respondents mentioned regular policy communications, online communications or red flags in booking and reimbursement, mandates and travel counsellor verbal warnings, while business unit comparative reports, sharing savings with travellers and incentive programs were also mentioned but less frequently.

3.1.4 Online self-booking tools as an example content of change

According to Hultman and Axelsson (2005, 169), leveraging information and communication technology is not only related to the initiation of change, but can also be the very point of departure for a change process on its own. In this study, as an example of a future change to implement in the context of travel management, online self-booking tools were chosen, both because they represent a current shift in the field as a whole, and especially because at VTT, the introduction of such a tool was scheduled for the near future, and thus conducting this study could be used to support decisions when planning the implementation.

Booking trips and accommodation are probably among the most important routines involved in travel processes. Such bookings can be made directly with suppliers, or through travel agencies, and they can be handled through designated booking personnel, or by the travellers themselves through an online system. (Gustafson & Bergström Casinowsky 2010, 65.) Corporate self-booking tools are one of a number of solutions that many leading organisations have introduced into their businesses over the last several years, as being one of the largest areas of expenditure for many companies, business travel has come under the spotlight when it comes to implementing cost savings. (Mason 2007, 4) According to Mason (2007, 7), the latest generation of online booking

and corporate self-booking tools represent the lowest transactional cost method of purchasing travel. Furthermore, increasing the proportion of travellers that book through these systems not only reduces transaction costs for companies, but also enables increased policy compliance (and thereby reduced travel spend) and augmented negotiating leverage, while ensuring that management data is collected to provide travel managers with increased information for traveller safety (Mason 2007, 7).

In the study by Gustafson and Bergström Casinowsky (2010, 66), many interviewees considered self-booking systems complicated issues, but at the same time, noted how many travel managers, as well as travellers, once getting familiar with booking their trips online, were often positive about them. Furthermore, the benefits most often brought up in the interviews were that the systems were perceived to be easily available and to provide a possibility for people to handle their travel independently (Gustafson & Bergström Casinowsky 2010, 66).

When it comes to the implementation, or the adoption, rates of self-booking tools, companies measure their adoption rates using various metrics. The most popular measure, used by more than half of the sampled companies in a study, is considering online bookings via the self-booking tool as a percentage of all bookings. (Mason 2007, 8.) It has been noted that adoption rates tend to be the fastest in the first year, and then decrease (Mason 2007, 11). In the article by Mason (2007), key drivers for adoption are discussed, and it is noted that the process is influenced by a number of stakeholders that may be resistant to online booking systems or incapable of breaking through barriers to adoption, which include organisational and social issues, travel policy and compliance, lack of senior managerial buy-in, and distrust in the capabilities of technology (Mason 2007, 15).

In order to improve the adoption rates of self-booking tools, it has been suggested that clear policy guidance should first be communicated to company directors and the HR department (Mason 2007, 15). Moreover, not surprisingly, it has been argued that the simplest way of driving adoption levels up would be by making the company's travel policy stricter and by making a booking tool mandatory. Also, managerial buy-in and preaching by example are considered more effective drivers for adoption than direct user incentives, and according to a study travel managers indeed perceive the support of senior management the most important method of increasing adoption, as the level that senior managers and directors use the system has a significant pull effect on adoption rates. In a study it was found that in companies where travel managers said that most of their senior managers use the system, adoption rates were nearly 70%, whereas in companies where the senior managers did not use the system the adoption rate was just 36%, and it would thus seems that clear leadership by example from senior management has a demonstrable impact on the adoption levels. In the meantime, looking at the functionality of booking tools, almost a third of respondents indicated that travellers regu-

larly reported that their system was slow, not easy to use, and thought that cheaper fares were available via other sources. As such technical and perception issues may impact the levels of adoption achievable by the company, carefully choosing and implementing the online tool is crucial when aiming for high adoption rates. Finally, it was also found that companies with flatter hierarchical corporate structures and with a shift towards having an internet based 'self-service' culture, where employees manage many business-related issues online, have been more successful driving up the adoption rate. When age was considered, younger travellers were found more ready to adopt technology-based processes, as their take-up rate of self-booking tools is higher than that of older colleagues. What was especially underlined in the article was the importance of clear and continued internal communication, as it was found that companies giving regular updates on the roll out of their booking tool achieved a much higher adoption level than companies that did not support the introduction of the system with strong internal communication. (Mason 2007, 16–22.)

In summary, in Mason's article (2007, 31) it is suggested that in order to achieve high adoption rates of online self-booking tools, their use should be made mandatory in the travel policy, system functionality and content held key, and leadership, training, support and reports provided.

When it comes to online self-booking tools in the research setting of this study, VTT, Into-Koivisto (2009) first mentions that in the beginning of the 21st century, travel arrangements were still conducted case by case by travellers and their assistants by sometimes contacting several travel agencies for offers. Expense reports were prepared manually, together with travel assistants, and the documents and their attachments then circulated throughout the organisation for check-ups, approvals, payments and archiving, forming a large part of internal mail. Such processes also often lead to long handling times, especially during holiday periods. (Into-Koivisto 2009.)

An online booking tool was implemented at VTT in 2004, and already the following year travel assistants booked 42% of international and over a half of domestic flight tickets directly through the system. In 2008, the numbers were 57 and 73 percent, and considerable cost-effectiveness and savings have been reached both in the products as well as in service fees, which in turn have acted as triggers for further developments. (Into-Koivisto 2009.)

3.2 Building the basis for the research

Tourish and Hargie (2004b, 15) note that little agreement exists among scholars on the precise nature of the problems afflicting organisations, and on how they should be studied. According to them, the study of organisations is a discipline characterised by multi-

ple theoretical paradigms and methodological perspectives – as it should be, as reality is multifaceted, and never more so than in the context of work (Tourish & Hargie 2004b, 15). Also in this study, insights from a variety of approaches were gathered in preparation for conducting the research, especially for its empirical phase currently under discussion, and they are presented in the following.

3.2.1 Choosing the research design

A research design may ultimately be described as the means of achieving the goals of the research project, and it links theoretical frameworks, questions, research, generalisation and presentational goals with the methods used and resources available. Among the components or a research design are decisions on the sequence of techniques of understanding and or measurement, constructing and testing appropriate forms for data collection, and developing a plan for data analysis. (Flick 2004, 152; Malhotra & Birks 2007, 9, 64; Eriksson & Kovalainen 2008, 29.)

To begin with, it is suggested that one should decide whether the overall design is to be exploratory, descriptive, conclusive or causal. Malhotra and Birks (2007, 64, 89, 79, 265), who discuss research designs in a marketing context, further illustrate that an exploratory research design is characterised by a flexible and evolving approach to understand phenomena that are difficult to measure, descriptive research has as its prime objective the description of something, usually consumer or market characteristics, conclusive research involves the measuring of clearly defined phenomena, and causal research is a type of conclusive research where the major objective is to obtain evidence regarding causal relationships. However, as they also note, the distinctions between the classifications are not absolute, and a given research project may involve more than one type, and thus serve several purposes. They further suggest that when little is known about the problem situation, it might be desirable to begin with exploratory research, which may be followed by descriptive or causal research. (Malhotra & Birks 2007, 64, 89, 79, 265.) Similarly, Hirsjärvi, Remes and Sajavaara (1997, 181) note that the process of research often beings with the researcher aiming at gaining a better understanding of the field they are studying.

Based on such descriptions, it could be claimed that in this study, an exploratory approach was chosen for the phase of building a foundation through gathering observations from earlier studies and writings. Also when collecting the empirical data, the goal was to explore the insights from respondents with different perspectives to the themes studied, but descriptive characteristics were included as well, with more specific questions regarding characteristics and opinions. Similarly, when advancing to the stages of data preparation and analysis, the approach was exploratory and descriptive. Mean-

while, the research design can also be related to the field of organisation development, which, according to Woodman et al. (2008, 188) needs to understand change processes, dynamics and phenomena in organisations, while according to Vaill (2008, 228), its purpose is not to generate hypotheses for rigorous testing, but rather, to help a practitioner understand some social process in order to be able to advice on the kinds of changes that might make sense in that system. In this study, no strictly causal research was conducted, even though the structure of the study and the formatting of certain questions might have provided a basis for that, too, as the overall aim was not to test any specific hypotheses, but to provide diverse views on the themes under examination.

3.2.2 Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches

In this study, the collection of empirical data was conducted in two phases; the first one with a qualitative, and the second with a quantitative approach. According to Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008, 4), it might often be easier to compare quantitative and qualitative research than to define them, and Brannen (2004, 312–326) observes that they have been represented as two fundamentally different paradigms through which to study the social world.

Flick, Kardoff and Steinke (2004, 3, 5) discuss qualitative research as a generic term for a range of different research approaches, and according to them, in the realm of social sciences there is, in the broadest sense, hardly any area of research in which it is not at least partially used. They further note that qualitative research claims to describe lifeworlds from the inside out, from the point of view of the people who participate, and by so doing it seeks to contribute to a better understanding of social realities and to draw attention to processes, meaning patterns and structural features. (Flick et al. 2004, 3.) Flick (2004, 148) further argues that a large part of qualitative research focuses on snapshots of different manifestations of the expertise that exists in a particular field at a time. Meanwhile, according to Malhotra and Birks (2007, 149), in the field of marketing, qualitative research forms a major role in supporting decision making, primarily as an exploratory design but also as a descriptive design, and it might help define a research problem, support quantitative, descriptive or causal research designs, or form a design in its own.

Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008, 4) continue by stating that many qualitative approaches are concerned with interpretation and understanding, whereas many quantitative approaches deal with explanation, testing of hypothesis and statistical analysis, or as Kent (1993, 23) observes, quantitative data arise in numbers, and they are a result of the process of measurement.

However, several authors have suggested that instead of making strict divisions between the approaches, which may in fact be challenging, they should be viewed more as complementary, suggesting a shift away from the separate paradigms model (see, for example Hirsjärvi et al. 1997, 127, 136; Brannen 2004, 312–326). For instance, Kelle and Erzberger (2004, 172) suggest that the frontier between qualitative and quantitative research might not need to be considered quite so impenetrable, while Flyvbjerg (2004, 420–434) considers the separation often seen in literature between qualitative and quantitative approaches somewhat spurious. Brannen (2004, 312–326) and Flick et al. (2004, 8) further propose that where research questions correspond, qualitative and quantitative approaches may be used as complementary at some levels.

Indeed, as among others Kelle and Erzberger (2004, 172) have noted, in research practice interpretative qualitative procedures are more and more frequently being linked with standardised quantitative methods for the purpose of joint research designs. The authors also observe that even though in such a process the approaches themselves are rarely combined, as a rule, qualitative and quantitative stages of data collection and analysis are carried out in parallel, with each having their own datasets, and the resulting research outcomes then related to one another (Kelle & Erzberger 2004, 172).

Meanwhile, Brannen (2004, 312–326) argues that it is clear that researchers often pursue a variety of aims when they seek to combine different methods or types of data within a single research project, and an important part of the discussion on mixing methods concerns the ways in which the qualitative and quantitative elements are introduced into different phases of the research process. For instance, Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 32) observe that qualitative and quantitative research can be used together in such a way that they complement each other, and have from the beginning of the study been intentionally designed to cover different aspect of the study subject. Similarly, Kelle and Erzberger (2004, 174, 176) note that qualitative and quantitative research results may converge, constitute a complementary relationship, or diverge, and each of these possibilities can be beneficial to the research process.

However, Brannen (2004, 312–326) and Flick et al. (2004, 8) wish to highlight that it should not be forgotten that qualitative and quantitative approaches also differ from each other on essential points, and it might not always be unproblematic to add together different types of data in the context of justification to constitute a single truth. Still, as a conclusion to finish the discussion, attention is drawn to the notions of Hirsjärvi et al. (1997, 137) who state that measurement always includes both a qualitative and a quantitative side, Kelle and Erzberger (2004, 176) who propose that the linking of the two approaches may serve to illuminate different aspects of social phenomena, and Malhotra and Birks (2007, 175) who support the approach of viewing qualitative and quantitative research complementary through arguing that business and marketing decision-makers use both approaches and will continue to need both.

3.2.3 Observing other approaches for background

In addition to the discussion on choosing to employ both quantitative and qualitative research, in this study, when planning the empirical research, other research approaches were also examined.

Case study research, of which the second part of quantitative data collection in this study is an example of, consists of the construction and solving of one or more cases, involving the measurement of characteristics of individuals and groups, organisations, events or processes (Kent 1993, 29; Eriksson & Kovalainen 2008, 133–134). As a variety of data sources and methods of analysis may be used for solving a case, case study research is best described as a research strategy (Eriksson & Kovalainen 2008, 133–134). Meanwhile, Flyvbjerg (2004, 420–434) argues that the conventional wisdom on case studies – suggesting that case studies may well be suited for pilot studies, but not for full research schemes, as one cannot generalise from a case-study, and as they are subjective, giving too much scope for the researcher's own interpretations, they result in inadequate validity – if not directly wrong, is so oversimplified to be grossly misleading. According to him, even though it is true that a case-study is a detailed examination of a single example, it is not true that case studies would not be able to provide reliable information about the broader class, and while it is also true that case studies can be used in the preliminary phases of an investigation to generate hypotheses, it would be deceptive to see the case study only as a pilot method (Flyvbjerg 2004, 420–434). He further suggests that for researchers, the closeness of the case study to real-life situations and its multiple wealth of details are important in two respects: first, it is important for the development of a nuanced view on reality, and second, cases are important for the researcher's own learning processes in developing the skills needed to do good research (Flyvbjerg 2004, 420–434).

In the meantime, another approach that, according to Helms Mills et al. (2009, 43), has impacted the discourse of organisational change and has been adopted by researchers and consultants alike is *action research,* which, according to Perry and Gummesson (2004, 193, 194, 202), grew out of a need to learn more of the social systems while changing them.

It has been suggested that action research is not technically a particular research method, and should rather be understood and addressed as an orientation towards research that shapes methodological practices (Perry & Gummesson 2004, 196, 200; Ladkin 2004, 536–548; McArdle & Reason 2008, 125). Furthermore, according to Ladkin (2004, 536–548), no one right way for conducting action research exists, and neither is there much agreement on a sole definition for research methods that claim the label of action research.

As for the origins of the approach, Malhotra and Birks (2007, 169) observe that the social psychologist Kurt Lewin had a main interest in social change and specifically in

questions how to conceptualise and promote social change, and he is generally thought to be the person who coined the term action research and gave it meanings that are applicable today. They further write that Lewin's approach was not just to understand the respondents' attitudes, but to engage them in the investigation and the solution; to change attitudes and behaviour (Malhotra & Birks 2007, 169).

Moreover, the fields of action research and organisation development are closely related. According to French and Bell (1990, 108) and McArdle and Reason (2008, 133), organisation development is in many ways originated from action research, and it can be emphasised not only as a process of organisation improvement, but also as a process of mutual and liberating inquiry. Meanwhile, Paton and McCalman (2000, 154, 165) note that organisation development employs action research as one of the main mechanisms for instigating change, and similarly, according to Jamieson and Worley (2008, 114, 117), action research is among the skills and knowledge necessary for organisation development practice and the effective processes for engaging people in purposeful change.

Furthermore, according to French and Bell (1990, 104, 105), it is a widely held belief that people tend to support what they have helped to create, and it is highly congruent with the collaborative aspect of the action research model, which in turn is particularly important in organisation development. Similarly, Ladkin (2004, 536–548) writes that action research is grounded in the belief that research with human beings should be participative and democratic, and McArdle and Reason (2008, 127–128), too, consider collaboration essential. Also, Perry and Gummesson (2004, 196) observe that action research is most often described as being enquiry with, rather than research on, people, which refers to the interactive research design and approach that consists of a group of research methodologies that pursue action and research at the same time. They also suggest that as action research enables the researched organisation to express their views during the research process as collaborators in the project, it also empowers individuals and groups of people (Perry & Gummesson 2004, 195, 202, 208).

In business research, according to Perry and Gummesson (2004, 194), action research can also be classified in general as a collaborative approach to research that provides organisations with the appropriate solutions or means to resolve specific problems, and Malhotra and Birks (2007, 149) also observe that it is developing also in marketing research, and offers great potential for consumers, decision makers and researchers alike.

Another approach to researching and accelerating change in organisations is *appreciative inquiry*. Purser and Griffin (2008, 270) write that it is a collaborative inquiry and action research process designed to first get the whole system together to discover its positive core and then build on them to create a new, more exciting and more fulfilling future, and Sharma (2008, 23) considers it the most widely accepted and fastest growing

change management paradigm for organisations, communities and even nations. Schein (1999, 56), too, discusses the concept, referring to it as a process which puts a more positive frame around issues considered problems. According to him, it may often be more helpful to think in more positive growth terms, focusing on what works well, what ideals one wishes to accomplish, and what visions of the future one might have (Schein 1999, 56). According to Sharma (2008, 23), appreciative inquiry could make celebrating change a possibility, as it is a process to bring about painless change, both a change management method as well as a philosophy of change.

Sharma (2008, 27–28) further observes that proponents claim that appreciative inquiry is more productive because it involves and engages everyone in the organisation; it is motivating, inspiring and open-ended; it creates an upbeat mindset, builds positive momentum, brings out the best of employees at all levels and energises the entire organisation; it encourages creative and bold thinking and risk-taking; and may even be fun.

Also among the approaches at the basis of this study is *internal marketing research*. Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 36), who discuss conducting market research internally in organisations, suggest that it involves identifying the needs and wants of employees and monitoring the impact of human resource management policies on them. As for marketing research in more general terms, according to Kent (1993, 11), among the ways it can be used by organisations is assisting in making plans and setting objectives for the future. Similarly, Varey (2002, 126) sees it as, to some degree, a systematic effort to learn about a situation in terms of needs as motivators, alternative ways of satisfying those needs, and relationships as the context for need satisfying action, while Malhotra and Birks (2007, 11) observe two reasons for undertaking marketing research: to identify opportunities and problems, and to generate and refine marketing actions.

Finally, when building the basis for this study, *force field analysis* was observed. Paton and McCalman (2000, 17–18) define force field analysis as a diagramming technique, a positioning tool, that assists the management of change by examining and evaluating the forces for and against it. By producing a force field diagram for each individual, group or function affected by the change, the relative magnitude of the conflicting forces may be analysed, and an understanding developed of the underlying arguments, fears and influencing factors (Paton & McCalman 2000, 25, 27). According to Schein (2008, 45), force field analysis is an important change tool. By specifying the direction of desired change and then analysing what forces are already pushing in that direction and what forces inhibit that movement, the change implementer is able to decide whether the change target is really motivated to change (Schein 2008, 45).

In this study, in addition to employing the case study method, insights from the abovementioned approaches were considered on both phases of empirical research. They were built into discussions during the first phase for broader insights from field

experts, and then used for planning and executing data collection and analysis on the second. As for the second stage, it could be said that thoughts from the fields of action research and appreciative inquiry were taken into account when inviting the survey respondents to share their views for help in planning a change to be implemented upon them, while from internal marketing, suggestions were observed when designing question contents. Finally, force field analysis was especially taken into consideration with regards to planning the steps to take after collecting and analysing the data, as producing a force field diagram could provide useful insights on the issues to address when planning future actions and the actions to support them. Therefore, when designing the research, producing results that could also help in future decision making was set among the goals.

3.3 Conducting the research

Empirical data for this study was collected first in qualitative interviews with travel management experts, considered in the framework of this study representatives of change implementers, and then by employing a quantitative electronic questionnaire to gather insights from VTT employees, in the role of recipients of a future change. Supporting such an approach can be considered to be supported by for example Hogg and Carter (2000), who in their study measured the differences of opinion between those attempting to drive change in the organisation, and the employees. In addition, when discussing internal marketing, Snell and White (2009, 206–207) suggest that a diverse approach based on a deep understanding of staff needs, industry best practice and change management methodologies should be consulted in developing an effective program that meets the organisation's strategic direction. In this study, such a diverse approach was striven for by learning staff needs through the survey, industry best practices from the experts, and change management methodologies both from theoretical as well as textbook authors, and earlier studies.

3.3.1 Preparing for data collection

As a basis for conducting the two stages of research, the views from earlier studies and writings examined in the first part of this study were combined and organised into interview themes and survey questions as further illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1 From research questions to data collection

How could internal marketing as an approach to change implementation be facilitated?			
Research questions	**Framework chapters**	**Interview themes**	**Survey questions**
What does change implementation in organisations consist of?	2.1. Implementing change in organisations	Themes 1. & 2.	-
What elements does internal marketing involve?	2.2 Applying marketing internally	Theme 4.	-
In what ways can change implementation be supported?	2.3 Placing people central 2.4. Supporting change 2.5 Employing communication to facilitate change	Themes 3. & 5. Theme 3. Themes 3. & 4.	Questions 1.–8. & 10. Question 11. Questions 12. –18.

On the first stage of conducting the research, experts from the field of travel management were interviewed, on themes based on all the chapters of the framework (see Appendix 1). In addition to gathering perceptions on implementing and supporting change from the side of its implementers, the goal was to further understand the context and content of the example change studied, in other words, to hear about what managing change means in a travel management context, and what special aspects might be worth considering when implementing an online travel tool. As the interviews were conducted prior to the quantitative survey phase, all insights gathered in them were added to the foundation of planning the questionnaires, and in addition, the interviewees were invited to offer their suggestions on the future survey format and content as well. The impact of that on the study's structure is that the discussion on conducting the second phase of data collection, preparation and analysis will on some parts briefly also continue in the chapter presenting the results.

After the interviews, on the second stage of the research, a survey was conducted among VTT employees (see Appendix 2). In summary, the goals were to, on one hand, gather future change recipients' perceptions on the different ways of supporting change implementation, or adoption, if looking from the point-of-view of change recipients, discussed in earlier studies and writings and by the travel management experts interviewed, and on the other hand, to conduct an internal market research to gain information about the target group of the example change, broadening the use of an online travel tool. In addition, notions from the field of internal marketing research or internal

market research – which in this study are used interchangeably – were considered, and by asking for the views of the employees at the dawn of a change to be implemented, one aim was to employ conducting the research as means of internally marketing the future change, by showing that the employees' views and participation were considered important and welcome for planning the implementation. The goal of the survey phase was to gain understanding of the employees' characteristics and opinions, both regarding the new tool to be introduced as well as the possible ways of supporting its implementation. Also, as has been noted, conducting the survey was hoped to create awareness of the travel management function as a whole in the organisation, in addition to building positive ground for the future change.

Sampling

When it comes to sampling, for example Kent (1993, 38) and Hirsjärvi et al. (1997, 164) note that the target group for research can in some occasions be picked intentionally, or purposively, by the researcher using their own judgement. The selection may be made on the basis of contacting those cases that are easiest to access, those that are deemed to be the most important, those that reflect a variety or extremes, or those that are typical, when representative samples refer to samples chosen in such a way that they reproduce the structure and features of the population of cases from which the sample was drawn. (Kent 1993, 39.)

In qualitatively oriented research, Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 59) note, it is customary to talk about taking intentional samples, as instead of aiming for statistical generalisations, one looks for a further and deeper understanding, more information or new theoretical views about situations and phenomena. For example, when it comes to deciding how many interviews to conduct, Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 58, 59) suggest that the amount needed depends on the purpose of the study, and significant knowledge can be gathered by interviewing only a few people. They also note that the answer to the question regarding the necessary amount can also be given in the form of reaching for saturation, which means that one should conduct enough interviews to reach a point where new interviews do not produce any significant new information (Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2004, 60).

However, Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 60) also wish to highlight that purposeful sampling can be misleading. It might often be questionable whether the chosen sample truly is representative, and while a researcher can never be entirely certain of that, an aim can be set at proving that no systematic errors result from the choice of interviewee choices (Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2004, 60).

Furthermore, Kent (1993, 37) observes that in some kinds of research it is not necessary to take or to consider taking a sample, for instance when investigating a particular

problem which is totally internal to the company, when there is only one case, the company, whose characteristics are being measured.

In this study, when selecting respondents first for the qualitative expert interviews, an intentional sample of four respondents was taken. The goal was to invite participants from different backgrounds and organisations with regards to for instance size and industry, in order to provide a sample that represents the views of travel management specialists as well as possible, and valuable help with this was provided by FBTA. Invitations to participate in a personal interview were sent to four travel management experts, who all are responsible for travel management in their organisation. Each expert represents a different type of industry, and the sizes of their organisations vary between 500 and 19 000 employees. All occupy the position of head of travel management, and most operate on an international level. However, the level of formal organisation of global travel issues varies.

As for the quantitative survey, in which VTT employees were invited to participate, in one sense one could argue that no sample was chosen at all, as the whole organisation was chosen as a case. However, one could also propose that by offering all employees a possibility to voluntarily share their views, the responses gathered could then be treated as a purposeful sample consisting of employees with enough interest towards the future change to having taken the time to provide their views to assist in planning its implementation and support. Also, as the future change was to during its first stages also be voluntary, a careful suggestion could be made that the responses gathered with the survey would also represent the employees who might be among the first to adopt the change.

3.3.2 Interviewing travel management experts

Many authors, including Hopf (2004, 203) as well as Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 34) have observed that qualitative interviews are very widely used as data collection methods in social research. As for benefits of and reasons for using interviews, Hirsjärvi et al. (1997, 204) suggest that interviews can be used for getting a better understanding of a new field, while Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 41) argue that the researchers conducting interviews should aim at transmitting a picture of the interviewees' thoughts, perceptions, experiences and feelings.

In this study, qualitative interviews with travel management experts were chosen as the data collection method for the first part of conducting empirical research. The interviews were conducted personally, at the premises of each of the organisations the respondents represented. An estimated duration of one hour was planned for each interview, and all interviewees were given a possibility to familiarise with the interview

themes in advance. Also, as it is important to record the interviews in some way (Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2004, 75; Hayes 2007, 187), all the interviews were tape recorded, with a permission given by the interviewees beforehand, and some written notes were also taken during the interviews.

What is perhaps also worth noting when conducting interviews, as among others Malhotra and Birks (2007, 176) observe, the researcher should respect the participants, including the protection of their anonymity, honouring all statements and promises used to ensure participation, and conducting research in a way not to embarrass or harm the participants. Based on such notions, all respondents were given a promise that their views would be treated anonymously, both when it comes to the respondents themselves as well as their organisations. Therefore, also in this report, the interviewees and their organisations will be referred to anonymously according to the instructions received from each one of them.

Designing the interview structure and questions

Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008, 78) note that even though qualitative interviews may resemble everyday conversations, in which the distinction between the interviewed and the interviewee is not so evident, it might still be advisable to prepare at least some questions in advance to focus the interview on particular issues that are related to the topic and research questions, and later analyse and report results in a specific way. Similarly, Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 184) state that when aiming for quality with interview research, an important step is making a good framework for the interviews, and Hirsjärvi et al. (1997, 207) argue that while interviews are a form of conversation, when conducted for research purposes, they should be considered a systematic way for data collection.

Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 43) also note that there are different ways of conducting research interviews, and the differences result mostly from how strictly the questions have been formed and how much the interviewer controls the flow of the interview, while Hirsjärvi et al. (1997, 208) observe that usually different kinds of interviews are divided into types based on how structured and formal, or open and informal, they are.

Structured and standardised interviews, according to Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008, 82), can be a good choice when relying on volunteer or inexperienced interviewers, or limited resources. Among the major drawbacks, however, is that the interviewer has little flexibility to respond to the particular concerns of the participant, and based on such remarks, some qualitative researchers have argued that standardised interviews are unnatural and restrictive and, therefore, should not even be used in qualitative studies (Eriksson & Kovalainen 2008, 82). Correspondingly, Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 184) argue that it cannot be too much emphasised that an interview never consists of just going through predetermined general themes.

Instead, Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 103) further propose, an interview situation is often more like a conversation than strict step by step following of predetermined list of questions, and Hirsjärvi et al. (1997, 204) note that the benefit of interviews is indeed considered by many to be the flexibility in data collection. Considering such notions, many authors have discussed open, free formed and semi-structured interviews, and they are widely used in social research (Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2004, 34, 47; Hopf 2004, 203; Eriksson & Kovalainen 2008, 82).

Furthermore, Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008, 82, 83) argue that as qualitative interviews are often unstructured, informal, open and narrative in nature, they are particularly useful for exploring a topic intensively and broadly from the participant's point of view, and a major advantage is that the materials are somewhat systematic and comprehensive, while the tone of the interview is fairly conversational and informal. When conducting a guided or semi structured interview, according to Hopf (2004, 204) and Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008, 82), researchers orient themselves by following an interview guide of topics, issues, or themes, but one that gives plenty of freedom of movement regarding the wording and order of questions in each interview. Similarly, Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 104) note that in more open interviews, the themes and areas of interest will come up in the interview in the order that feels most natural for each interview situation. However, Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008, 82) also note that what is perhaps most challenging in more open interviews, is that the interviewer needs to make sure that all topics on the outline are covered, and the same time, be prepared to probe for more in depth responses.

Meanwhile, when it comes to designing the specific interview questions, Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 105) wish to remind that it might be difficult to answer questions that require remembering events far in the past, while hypothetical questions about topics that the respondents have no experience about might provide vague answers. Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 105) also argue, in accordance with Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008. 84), that making several simple questions one after the other usually works better than using ones complicated, as the more complex the question, the more likely it is that the participant will find it difficult to answer. Furthermore, Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008, 84, 85) observe that open ended questions give the participant more control over what is talked about and usually produce more detailed responses.

Finally, Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008, 85) propose, during the interview it may also be necessary to ask reflective questions that provide the interviewers a possibility to check their understanding about a specific response, or give the participant and opportunity to add in or correct some details, and at the end of the interview, it is quite common to make some clearing questions to find out whether there are other issues that the participant would like to discuss.

As for designing and conducting qualitative interviews in this study, the form of the interviews could be labelled as semi-structured, as a general framework with the themes to discuss in each interview was planned beforehand, and also sent to the interviewees for preparation. The interviews were aimed at feeling rather informal, and the interviewees were let to discuss the topics in the order that seemed the most natural to them. The interviewer's role was to make sure that all themes mentioned in the plan were discussed, and the flow of the discussion was kept within the framework of the study, even though new insights outside the pre-planned structure were also welcome. In addition, planning the themes of discussion beforehand had as its goal the facilitation of later data analysis and comparison between different respondents.

Regarding question design, rather than specifically designed questions, the respondents were invited to discuss certain themes, and the exact way and order the different themes and details about them were addressed varied from one interview to another. Most questions were based on gathering information and examples about the respondent's true experiences and perceptions, and thus vagueness and hypothetical questions were tried to be avoided, unless necessary for broadening the scope of discussion. Also, a majority of the questions were open ended and discussed further by the interviewer asking for more information. During the interview, at its end and also afterwards, reflective questions were also asked for checking the interviewer's understanding and for giving the respondents a possibility to explain or clarify possible misunderstandings or provide more information.

3.3.3 Surveying VTT employee perceptions

After the interviews with travel management experts, a quantitative survey was conducted among VTT employees, using an electronic questionnaire (see Appendix 2). The survey was conducted with an electronic online questionnaire, prepared and launched using *Webropol* and made available in a web address, and a link to it was published on the VTT employee intranet, with an invitation to participate in planning the future implementation of a new travel management tool. All VTT employees were thus given a possibility to share their views, and for encouragement, also a prize-draw with a chance of winning a small gift was organised for all respondents willing to participate in it. The survey was made available for a time period of 28 days, and approximately in the middle of that period, a reminder note was published on the intranet with a renewed invitation to participate.

Also worth discussing when it comes to conducting a survey is that, Schein (1999, 131) and Russ (2008, 206–207) note, deliberate, focused feedback can be a powerful source of influence between people, and employees take a personal risk and invest a

great deal when sharing their views, and therefore, responses should be made psychologically safe to give. Schein (1999, 131) further illustrates that no giver of feedback wishes to be the messenger who is shot if the message is not perceived as helpful; in other words, the parties engaging in a designed feedback process must trust each other and believe that the other is trying to be helpful. Similarly, Hayes (2007, 187–188) underlines that as organisational members are aware that the change managers are observing what they say and do and may be making judgements about them and their future role, they may not openly and honestly answer all the questions they are asked. Correspondingly, Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 36) underline the importance of handling employee surveys with care, because of employees' fears of repercussions, and suggest guaranteeing absolute confidentiality in order to ensure a good response. Meanwhile, Malhotra and Birks (2007, 280) discuss perceived respondent anonymity, which refers to the respondents' perceptions that their identities will not be discerned.

Respondent anonymity was taken into consideration, ensured, and emphasised to respondents also in this study, in hopes of encouraging them to openly share their views. For the voluntary participation in the prize draw, names and contact information were gathered, but through a completely separate survey and questionnaire, with no possibility of combining the personal details with the actual survey responses.

Moreover, Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 36) also note that participation in surveys is not likely to be high if employees are not given feedback on the survey results, and more importantly, employees need to be shown that action will be taken over issues of concern uncovered by the surveys, and Senior (2002, 214) points out that it might be thought somewhat wearisome to answer questionnaires when the excitement or fear of change approaches. Therefore, the purpose of the survey – gathering data for change implementation planning purposes – was communicated also to possible respondents when inviting them to take part, and also, once finished, the results of the survey and this study as a whole were communicated to and shared with the participants, in hopes of demonstrating that their views truly were gathered as basis for action and thus highly valued.

Designing the survey questionnaire

Survey techniques involve the collection of data with structured, standardised questionnaires given to a sample of a population (Kent 1993, 127; Hirsjärvi et al. 1997, 193; Malhotra & Birks 2007, 265). Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 36) observe that internal market research employs the type of research that has a long history in the form of employee attitude surveys, and similarly, Kent (1993, 62) notes that most marketing research uses questionnaires at some stage. In accordance, Malhotra and Birks (2007, 265) consider survey and quantitative observation techniques vital in descriptive research designs, and Kent (1993, 65) and Hirsjärvi et al. (1997, 197) propose that with questionnaires, infor-

mation may be collected regarding facts, behaviours and actions, knowledge, values, attitudes and beliefs, perceptions, and opinions.

According to Malhotra and Birks (2007, 398), a questionnaire has three objectives: it must translate the information needed into a set of specific questions that the respondents can and will answer, motivate respondents to complete the interview, and also minimise response error. As for the willingness to respond, Kent (1993, 81) suggests that it is affected by the respondents' interest in the subject matter, the method of questionnaire administration, the amount of work involved in producing an answer, the respondents' ability to articulate an answer and the sensitivity of the issue, and with self-completed questionnaires, also by questionnaire layout and overall presentation. As Malhotra and Birks (2007, 371) note, in addition to the questionnaire, the data collection package might also include some rewards, gifts or payments offered to respondents, which was also the case in this study.

The advantages of questionnaires as a data collecting method have been widely discussed. For instance, Malhotra and Birks (2007, 266) note that questionnaires are simple to administer, and Hirsjärvi et al. (1997, 195) list among the benefits that a large data can be collected, many respondents included and many questions asked. Furthermore, Malhotra and Birks (2007, 266) also observe that the data obtained is consistent because the responses are limited to the alternatives stated, while Hirsjärvi et al. (1997, 195) continue by noting that data collected with survey questionnaires can be analysed with ready developed ways for statistical analysis and reporting.

However, survey questionnaire research also has its weaknesses. The respondents may be unable or unwilling to provide the desired information, and it is not possible to be sure that all respondents have taken the research seriously as answered thoroughly and honestly (Hirsjärvi et al. 1997, 195; Malhotra & Birks 2007, 266). Also, the rate of non-response can sometimes be high (Hirsjärvi et al. 1997, 195). Finally, Jacoby (1988, 91), who discusses employee attitude surveys in a historical perspective, argues that although the technique benefits employees by bringing their problems to the attention of management, it also encourages employee passivity and enhances top-down, expert-led solutions. Thus, according to him, rather than being a neutral technique, attitude surveys tend to foster a hierarchical and technocratic approach to problem-solving (Jacoby 1988, 91).

For this study, a questionnaire was chosen as a data collection method, as due to a possibly high amount of responses, a standardised way for collecting and analysing data was desirable. Also, as questionnaires are widely used for gathering perceptions and attitudes, both in the working environment as well as in traditional marketing research, employing a questionnaire seemed like a natural choice. It was also hoped that an online standardised questionnaire would be considered user friendly by the respondents, as it

could be filled out regardless of time or place, and because of a high degree of standardisation, would also be clear, easy and not too time consuming.

With regards to designing the questionnaire, Kent (1993, 63) notes that questionnaires can take many forms, but a key dimension along which they vary is the extent to which they are structured. At one extreme, an unstructured questionnaire may be nothing more than a checklist of open-ended questions, and at the other extreme, a fully structured questionnaire lists all the questions in a logical sequence, specifies their precise wording, and provides predefined categories for recording the replies. The idea of structured questionnaires is that all the questions are standardised and asked in the same way so that responses from different individuals can be counted up and compared. (Kent 1993, 63.)

Furthermore, the electronic surveys used in this study were examples of self-completed questionnaires (Malhotra & Birks 2007, 273), and it has been noted that questionnaires also vary when it comes to whether they are completed by the respondents or by interviewers on their behalf (see, for example Kent 1993, 95). Malhotra and Birks (2007, 375) note that in personal interviews, where respondents see the questionnaire and interact face to face with the interviewer, lengthy, complex and varied questions can be asked. Meanwhile, with self-administered surveys, questionnaire layout and presentation are particularly important, the questions must be simple, and detailed instructions must be provided (Kent 1993, 95; Malhotra & Birks 2007, 375). Also, further emphasised by Malhotra and Birks (2007, 390) is that the format, spacing and positioning of questions can have a significant effect on the results particularly in self-administered questionnaires, and suggest dividing questionnaires into several parts.

As in this study, a self-completed online questionnaire was used, attention was also paid to making the questionnaire as simple to fill out as possible. Therefore, the layout of the questionnaire was designed to match that of other similar attitude surveys, the questionnaire was divided in four parts for clarification, all respondents were asked to answer all questions, thus no skip questions, and the variety of question types was kept low as a whole. Also, as a source for more information in case needed, the researcher's contact information was provided in the invitation to participate.

Regarding the information one hopes to obtain using a questionnaire, Malhotra and Birks (2007, 388) observe that it may be classified as basic information, classification information, and identification information. Basic information relates directly to the research problem, while classification information, consisting of socio-economic and demographic characteristics, is used to classify the respondents, understand the results and validate the sample, and finally, identification information includes name, address and telephone number, and may be obtained for a variety of purposes, for instance sending promised incentives or prices (Malhotra & Birks 2007, 388).

In this study, all three types of information were gathered, with most attention and interest towards responses with basic information. Classification information was also

collected, for describing the respondents and for sorting basic information responses based on classification information. No identification information was collected in the primary questionnaire, but for the prize draw, a separate questionnaire consisting of only identification questions was conducted.

As for proceeding from questionnaire design to conducting the research, Kent (1993, 83, 85) refers to the first draft of a questionnaire as a far cry from what is needed, and thus according to him, it is crucial to test questionnaires before taking them to the data collection phase. Malhotra and Birks (2007, 391), too, argue that even the best questionnaire can be improved by pilot-testing. According to Malhotra and Birks (2007, 391), all aspects of the questionnaire should be tested, including question content, wording, sequence, form and layout, question difficulty, and instructions. In accordance, Kent (1993, 83–84) emphasises thorough pretesting and redrafting of questionnaires by stating that the first version is likely to include questions that do not mean what the researcher intended, have been missed out completely, people do not understand or find too difficult, do not discriminate, give response categories that do not allow some respondents to answer in ways that are relevant to them, or do not provide sets of categories that are exhaustive and mutually exclusive. Also, Malhotra and Birks (2007, 391) suggest doing pilot-test by personal interviews, even if the actual survey is to be conducted by internet, mail or telephone, because interviewers can observe respondents' reactions and attitudes.

Also in this study, all aspects of the questionnaire were reviewed before proceeding to data collection. Instead of presenting the questionnaire draft to representatives of the intended target audience, it was tested during a personal meeting with the party responsible for implementing the future change at VTT, as they had a broad knowledge of the intended audience and earlier experience about conducting similar surveys. Based on the discussion, the first version of the questionnaire was redrafted with the aim of making it more clear, respondent friendly, and also relevant when it came to question content.

Designing the survey questions

A variety of ways exist for designing questions in questionnaires (see, for example Kent 1993, 64; Hirsjärvi et al. 1997, 198). In a typical questionnaire, most questions are usually fixed-response alternative questions that require the respondent to select from a predetermined set of responses which may be used to collect demographic, behavioural or attitudinal data (Kent 1993, 95; Malhotra & Birks 2007, 266). As noted by among others Malhotra and Birks (2007, 382), structured questions may be multiple choice, dichotomous or scale. Meanwhile, questions can also be unstructured and open-ended (Kent 1993, 64; Hirsjärvi et al. 1997, 198; Malhotra & Birks 2007, 381), and Kent (1993, 64) and Malhotra and Birks (2007, 381) further suggest that they may be good first questions on a topic for expressing general attitudes and opinions, and can also be useful as a

final questions in a questionnaire, as safety nets to mop of views not elicited in earlier questions. Furthermore, Hirsjärvi et al. (1997, 199) observe that sometimes in structured questions also an opportunity for an open answer is provided, which makes the question a combination of open and structured questions.

On the theme of using open and structured questions, Hirsjärvi et al. (1997, 200) note that discussion, even debate, has been going on for a long time between opinion groups. The parties in favour of open-ended questions justify their arguments by stating that they allow respondents to truly express their views, while structured questions force them to choose from predetermined alternatives (Hirsjärvi et al. 1997, 201). Also, considerable effort is required to design effective structured questions, as it is difficult to obtain information on alternatives not listed (Malhotra & Birks 2007, 382).

Meanwhile, Kent (1993, 64), Hirsjärvi et al. (1997, 201) and Malhotra and Birks (2007, 382) observe that the ones in favour of structured questions argue that open-ended questions tend to produce answers and data that are very varied and thus questionably reliable and difficult to handle or code, while the processing and coding of data from structured questions is much less costly and time consuming. Malhotra and Birks (2007, 382) also highlight that fixed-response questions may be used to overcome more of the disadvantages of open-ended questions, as interviewer bias is reduced and the questions are administered quickly. They further argue that in self-administered questionnaires, respondent cooperation might improve if the majority of the questions are structured (Malhotra & Birks 2007, 382).

Such notions were also at the basis of deciding to use structured questions in the survey. Even though it was acknowledged that open ended questions might have provided new, even unexpected insights from the respondents, and leaving them out completely might risk leaving out some important notions, with regards to keeping the survey simple and not too time consuming or complicated to fill, handle, or analyse in later stages, mostly structured questions were used, mainly multiple choice or scale in format. Open questions were used only to gather some classification information, so one could argue that actually a choice was made to use only structured questions.

In the meantime, when it comes to the details of survey questions, Malhotra and Birks (2007, 384) argue that questions in questionnaires should clearly define the issue being addressed, and similarly, Hirsjärvi et al. (1997, 202) state that specific questions are better than generic questions, shorter questions better than long questions, and also, one should avoid vagueness and design questions that have the same meaning to all respondents. Also, questions with double meanings attempting to cover two issues should be avoided, as they can be confusing to respondents and result in ambiguous responses (Kent 1993, 78; Hirsjärvi et al. 1997, 202; Malhotra & Birks 2007, 377). However, Hirsjärvi et al. (1997, 195) also emphasise that in the end, it can never be known exactly how successful the predetermined response alternatives are from the respondents' point

of view, and thus controlling possible misinterpretations and misunderstandings becomes difficult.

Question wording has indeed been emphasised by many authors as an important part of designing questions (see, for example Hirsjärvi et al. 1997, 203). Malhotra and Birks (2007, 266, 384) consider it perhaps the most critical and difficult task in developing a questionnaire, because the survey imposes the language and logic of the researcher on the questionnaire respondents. Given that characteristic of survey techniques, Malhotra and Birks (2007, 266) further emphasise that great care must be taken to ensure that the language and logic used in questionnaires are meaningful and valid to potential respondents, and in accordance, Kent (1993, 95) argues that questionnaire wording needs to ensure, as far as possible, that respondents understand the questions, have the information to be able to provide answers, and are willing to provide the answers. To avoid problems with question wording, in addition to avoiding ambiguity and vagueness, as mentioned earlier, Kent (1993, 78), Hirsjärvi et al. (1997, 203) and Malhotra and Birks (2007, 384) suggest avoiding leading or biasing questions, and using ordinary words, thus avoiding jargon and difficult words.

Finally, when it comes to the order of questions in a questionnaire, according to Kent (1993, 80), as a general rule, the questionnaire should begin with simple questions that relate clearly to the topic the respondent has been led to believe the survey is about. Moreover, Schein (1999, 58), who discusses appreciative inquiry in relation to the field of process consulting, states that it is important for the party asking the questions to be aware of their own metaphors and assumptions. If one starts with a problem orientation, the questions that follow are likely to highlight what is wrong; while beginning with a more appreciative orientation, the resulting questions are likely to emphasise what is working, what makes the respondent feel good, what their goals and ideals are, and where they want to go (Schein 1999, 58). Moreover, Malhotra and Birks (2007, 387) also argue that as evidence indicates that the responses obtained are influenced by the directionality of the statements: whether they are stated positively or negatively, it might be better to use dual statements, some of which are positive and others negative.

When it comes to the questions used in the questionnaire in this study, they were designed and tested with clarity among the main aims, most questions or statements were kept short and simple, and when asking for amounts, specific definitions were provided in the majority of examples. With regards to wording, ordinary terms were used both in the questions as well as the given response alternatives. In some questions, examples were also provided in hopes of facilitating the understanding of the questions, and when applicable, generally used terms used for labelling response alternatives on scales were employed, in hopes of providing the respondents a question format they already perhaps were familiar with reading and filling out based on earlier experience.

Moreover, based on notions about the order of the questions in the questionnaire, as the respondents had been told the survey was related to an online travel tool, information related to both the key topics was requested already among the first questions. Also, bearing in mind the possible assumptions and metaphors the questionnaire might convey, as well as earlier remarks from various sources, it was designed with the aim of building an overall appreciative orientation; for example, the future change was addressed as a possibility for using the tool, not merely as yet another change to adopt the implementers should be apologetic about, and the respondents were invited to share their views on different ways of supporting change, instead of directly mentioning the occurrence or overcoming of possible resistance.

Ultimately, Malhotra and Birks (2007, 335, 336) note that once researchers have a clear understanding of what they wish to understand in their target respondents, they should consider the concepts of scaling and measurement, of which measurement refers to the assignment of numbers or other symbols to characteristics of objects according to certain pre-specified rules, and scaling may be considered an extension of measurement, involving the creation of a continuum upon which measured objects are located.

As for scales used in questionnaire questions, Malhotra and Birks (2007, 373) suggest that decisions need to be made on which types are the most suitable for the purpose of the research, and some trade-offs need to be considered, too, as while progressing from nominal to ratio scales, more sophisticated statistical analyses can be performed, at the same time, the task for respondents becomes more arduous with each step. Furthermore, Kent (1993, 27) notes that while many more and more sophisticated statistics can be calculated where data are metric, there are many variables that market researchers use that are not metric, and in some cases, market researchers may attempt to upgrade scales in order to take advantage of these more sophisticated procedures.

Using scales may also prove useful when wishing to study respondents' attitudes. According to Kent (1993, 73), while attitudes do not always correspond directly with behaviour, they are, by definition, predispositions to act in particular ways, and hence strongly influence behaviour, which means that when attitudes of a large number of people are measured or estimated, then some predictions about future behaviour can be made. He continues by emphasising that while measuring attitudes is not easy, it may be attempted in a number of ways (Kent 1993, 73). Kent (1993, 73) further observes, in accordance with Hirsjärvi et al. (1997, 200) and Malhotra and Birks (2007, 387), that many questions in questionnaires, particularly those measuring attitudes and lifestyles, are presented as statements with which the respondents then choose how much they agree.

An often used example of attitude scales such as the abovementioned, is a Likert-scale, which often has 5 or 7 response categories ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree, and requires respondents to indicate a degree of agreement or disagreement with each of a series of statements related to the stimulus objects (Hirsjärvi et al.

1997, 200; Malhotra & Birks 2007, 348). According to Malhotra and Birks (2007, 349–350), the Likert-scale has several advantages. It is easy to construct and administer, and many respondents readily understand how to use the scale, making it suitable for different types of survey and interview techniques, including internet surveys. However, the major disadvantage of the Likert-scale is that it takes longer to complete than other itemised rating scales because respondents have to read and fully reflect upon each statement. (Malhotra & Birks 2007, 350.)

As for the amount of response categories on a Likert-scale, according to Kent (1993, 73–74), while some researchers believe that ratings with even numbers of point elicit better discrimination than those with odd numbers, which allow a no opinion or no preference in the middle, some people may genuinely have no particular view towards the attitude object and may resent being forced to express one. Similarly, Hirsjärvi et al. (1997, 203) suggest providing an alternative of no opinion, as it has been noted that people often provide answers even when not truly having an opinion, which might lead to misrepresenting of the results.

As far as the questionnaire used in this study is concerned, in the majority of the questions five-point Likert-type scales were employed, as they had been noted applicable for collecting respondents' perceptions and attitudes, for instance as possible indicators of future behaviour, in a format they would be likely to already be accustomed to. Furthermore, Likert scale -type measures were noted to have been in use also in earlier studies on managing and supporting change. For instance, Bovey and Hede (2001, 540) discuss a scale that has been developed to measure an individual's behavioural intention towards organisational change, both support and resistance behaviour, and Oreg (2003) describes the development of the resistance to change scale, designed to tap an individual's tendency to resist or avoid making changes, to devalue change generally, and to find change aversive across diverse contexts and types of change, based on he purpose to establish and validate a scale for the measurement of individual differences in resistance to change. In addition, Allen et al. (2007), when studying change, uncertainty and communication, measured employees' attitudes towards the proposed changes, and openness to change was examined using nine items, and respondents were required to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each of the statements. Respondents were required to indicate the percentage of information about the change they received via different communication sources then the amount of change communication they would prefer to receive through each source (Allen et al. 2007).

Even though in this study, instead of evaluating different aspects related to a change already implemented, the responses were gathered to support a future implementation, insights from the abovementioned studies and other similar examples were used as a basis for designing the statements in the survey. Finally, as for designing the 1–5 scales, a neutral opinion was provided in the middle, and in addition a possibility was provided

for employees to tick no opinion at all, when applicable. Bearing in mind that providing such alternatives might result in less clearly stated opinions or discrimination with certain statements, the hope was that the responses might be more likely to represent true opinions, and also, the alternative of no opinion might act as an indicator of the level of interest the respondents show towards certain topics.

3.3.4 Analysing and preparing the collected data

When conducting empirical research, conclusions from the research data can be drawn only after some preparative work, as it might be difficult to grasp the key features directly from the raw data – the original qualitative words, phrases or sentences, or of the original metric or non-metric measurements taken from responses to questionnaires or other means of data capture (Kent 1993, 164; Hirsjärvi et al. 1997, 221). Malhotra and Birks (2007, 10) consider data preparation a phase which includes the editing, coding, transcription and verification of data, and similarly, Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 145) argue that thoroughly describing the collected data is the basis for analysing it. In the following, the analysis phases for the qualitative expert interviews and quantitative electronic surveys conducted in this study are discussed in more detail

Data from the expert interviews

Of the travel management experts invited, all four agreed to participate in the study and recorded interviews were conducted with each one. After recording the interviews, Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 138) note that the researcher has two options for beginning the processing of the interview data; one can either write down the interviews word by word as a basis for further analysis, or begin analysis directly from the recorded raw material. Usually, researchers choose to process the data and transcribe the interviews than make conclusions directly from the materials (Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2004, 138). As Hayes (2007, 187), in turn, writes, the decision upon how the transcription is made depends on the research questions and on the nature of the analyses planned. While many consider transcribing tape-recorded interviews the most time consuming part of an interview research, it is also a good way to familiarise oneself with the collected interview data (Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2004, 140; Hayes 2007, 187).

In this study, the recorded interview raw material was first transcribed word by word by the researcher, and the transcriptions were sent to the respondents for review. However, it was later decided that due to the length of direct transcriptions, it would be more respondent-friendly to only request the interviewees to review a summary of the parts and quotations that truly were chosen to appear on the report, and so no comments were gathered yet from the first transcriptions, but from further prepared interview data.

At the data preparation stage the interview data was also translated and then sorted according to the themes formed on the basis of the structure of the first chapter in this study. This was done to support the next stage of data analysis, with a possibility to combine and compare results from different interviews, and also between the results from the interviews and the questionnaire that followed, when the themes overlapped.

Data from the electronic survey

With the electronic survey questionnaire, responses were gathered from a total of 101 employees. Survey response rate is broadly defined as the percentage of the total attempted interviews or questionnaires that are completed, and it has been noted that online surveys can have very poor responses rates(Malhotra & Birks 2007, 279, 280). With all VTT employees given a possibility to participate, and no further limitations set regarding target groups or samples, by comparing the amount of responses with the headcount at VTT , approximately 2900, the response rate for the survey could be calculated as 3,4%.

Even though one could argue that such a rate is rather poor, based on notions from the VTT representative in charge of the future change implementation, gathering 101 responses with an online survey about an organisational support function can be considered a good result when compared with historic examples and general response rates to similar studies. Also, one could say that instead of all employees, the survey was actually targeted to the employees who have an interest towards travel management related changes. However, since no previous knowledge could directly be made use of, no estimates of alternative response rate calculations could be provided. Moreover, a careful assumption could be made that as the responses given to the survey might represent the views of employees with an interest towards the future change and its implementation, the significance of the responses could be considered better than the what the response rate alone might suggest.

After collecting the responses using Webropol, some data preparation was conducted with the same tool, and the data was also converted to Microsoft Excel and SPSS used for further analysis. Before proceeding to analysis, some preparative work was conducted. As several authors have noted, the first phase in preparing data for analysis is checking the information for mistakes or missing data; screening it for acceptable questionnaires (Hirsjärvi et al. 1997, 221; Malhotra & Birks 2007, 476). The researcher needs to decide if some of the returned questionnaires need to be excluded partly or totally (Hirsjärvi et al. 1997, 221–222), and a questionnaire may be unacceptable for instance due to incomplete parts, responses showing little variance, for example with respondents having ticked only one option on rating scales, or being answered by who does not qualify for participation (Malhotra & Birks 2007, 477). Also, as Kent (1993, 41) observes, while in nearly all research there will be missing cases, in survey research

there is always a degree of non-response because some people will refuse to be interviewed or to complete a questionnaire, some will be ineligible, and some non-contactable.

In this study, the questionnaires were designed with a goal to provide only acceptable results. All respondents qualified for answering as only VTT employees were invited to participate and no other limitations were set. As for questionnaire design, all questions were marked mandatory to answer, in order to avoid missing responses from any parts. To balance that, all questions were designed to include a no opinion or not at all alternative, so only true opinions were collected even though responding was made mandatory. Thus, at the data preparation stage, no questionnaires were excluded as a whole.

However, due to the format of the open questions used for collecting information on the respondents' ages and travel frequencies, some had provided ineligible answers because of for instance spelling mistakes, and in such cases, the responses to the questions concerned were excluded from analysis. Also due to the questionnaire design, but to deliberate decisions, the respondents had a possibility to state no opinion on the agreement scales, and such responses were also removed from the data. In addition to screening the data for missing or incorrect responses, at the preparation stage some verbal response alternatives were re-coded into numeric values as a basis for further analysis, most of the respondent background information was classified, and some opinions reverse-coded. In the next chapter when presenting the survey results, when necessary, the preparation actions taken, any limitations countered and any excluded responses are discussed further per question.

As for the stage of data analysis after preparation, data collected with survey research is usually analysed with quantitative methods (Hirsjärvi et al. 1997, 194). Kent (1993, 219) writes that quantitative data tend to be analysed in stages, and deciding which techniques are appropriate depends in the first instance on whether the variables concerned are scaled metrically or non-metrically, and Malhotra and Birks (2007, 340) observe that statistical techniques that may be used on interval scale data include all those that can be applied to nominal and ordinal data in addition to the arithmetic mean, standard deviation, and other statistics commonly used in marketing research.

Furthermore, Malhotra and Birks (2007, 503) observe that many marketing research projects do not go beyond basic data analysis including frequency distribution and cross-tabulation, the findings of which are then often displayed using tables and graphs. Although the findings of basic analysis are valuable in their own right, they also provide guidance for conducting multivariate analysis in possible further stages (Kent 1993, 219; Malhotra & Birks 2007, 503).

Also the data collected with the questionnaire in this study was analysed with quantitative techniques. Given that the chosen research design was chosen to explore and describe the studied phenomena, and not examine possible causal relationships, conducting basic statistical analysis was considered adequate, and frequencies and means were assigned to the response data, both in its raw from as well as to the re-coded and classi-

fied categories created at the data preparation stage. Comparisons were also made between responses using cross-tabulation, but considering the research objectives and the relatively small sample size, no further testing was conducted.

Even though the two phases of data collection, the expert interviews and the electronic survey, are discussed separately in this chapter, in the following, when advancing to presenting the results, the structure has as its basis not the methods, but the themes based on which the responses were gathered. Therefore, insights regarding certain issues are observed both from a travel management expert's side, and also from the point-of-view of a future change recipient.

4 INTERNAL MARKETING AS AN APPROACH TO SUPPORTING CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION – PERCEPTIONS FROM THE PRACTICAL FIELD

Following the phase of collecting insights from the field, in two stages and from two perspectives, they were grouped according to the framework built during earlier phases of the study. The goal was to observe what planning and managing change as a process, applying marketing inside the organisation, supporting change through encouraging supporters and attending to resistance, and putting support into action with the key element of communication, all would be like in a travel management context. By exploring the insights of the interviewees, in addition to gaining more understanding from a change implementer's point-of-view, the goal was to paint a more detailed picture of the chosen example context, travel management, while the perceptions gathered from survey respondents represented, on one hand, the point-of-view of change recipients, and on the other, at the same time, the findings of an example case of internal market research.

4.1 Implementing change within travel management

Before embarking on the discussion about supporting change implementation, a goal was set to, through discussions with experts, further understand what implementing change in a travel management context involves. The interviewees were first asked a few background questions regarding travel management, in order to gain a deeper knowledge and explore possible challenges and opportunities related to the field, and also, when it comes to online tools as an example of a change to implement, and then, they were invited to discuss the process of implementing travel management related changes.

4.1.1 Understanding travel management as a context for implementing change

When it comes to the roles and responsibilities of travel management in organisations, all four respondents emphasised that it is a support function dedicated to serving its internal customers, the employees, also often referred to as the travellers in this context, and in summary, it aims to support them with reaching the goals set for business trips. According to the experts interviewed, there have been shifts in the ways travel management is viewed in organisations. Earlier, it was quite clearly a function left at the background, typically thought of only as managing travel, that is, involving only mak-

ing bookings, getting tickets and preparing expense reports afterwards, which made implementing change difficult. During the last few years the function has begun to receive more attention, and it seems that especially appreciation towards it has grown. However, it was also noted that nowadays, critique towards travel management is given even more actively than earlier, and even though travel management is a support function, people tend to have strong opinions related to it, as in a way people see themselves as experts of the field, and any travel management related changes tend to awake emotions. Still, when it comes to notions about implementing travel management related changes, it was mentioned that a challenge, similar to the situation with other support functions, is that people need to adopt them at the same time as working with more job-related tasks, which might result in less attention and time paid to them.

Furthermore, it was also highlighted that challenges may arise as travel management is a function placed between various, sometimes differing directions and needs, and the need to make changes can arise both inside and outside the organisation. As for external triggers, it was stated that when the external environment changes, travel management has to change too, and lately, the environment has gone through drastic changes. With the current economic situation, travel management has received more attention, as when the economy is on a downfall, travel expenses are among the first issues to be examined, and different ways of economising are sought after. Also environmental issues were noted to have some impact on travel management related changes, including reducing travel through for example holding virtual meetings. Among rather new triggers for changes some mentioned the concept of meeting management, which includes arranging meetings and making policies for them, with the goals set at making changes that result in financial economising but also in more environmentally friendly solutions.

Another significant party also mentioned by all respondents to have an effect on travel management was legislation, especially tax authorities, based on whose decisions travel management needs to create and adapt travel policies and ensure that they are followed. Unlike some other outside triggers for change discussed earlier, legislative issues were mentioned by all interviewees among the most important ones, perhaps quite unsurprisingly, since

> *…when some legislative changes occur, you really don't have much choice.*

In addition to discussing triggers for change set by the outside environment, some respondents underlined that travel management also has an active role in constantly looking for possibilities for improvements, better ways of handling processes and economising, and thus the triggers also come from a need to develop things further, and to see how new opportunities offered by the outside environment could be applied inside the organisation. As further examples of common trends coming from the outside environ-

ment, the implementation of online tools and increasing self-booking in cooperation with travel agencies were mentioned.

Finally, in addition to the sometimes quite strong influence coming from the outside, and related to staying alert for continuous improvement, one respondent emphasised the importance of internal triggers, including customer feedback, stating that:

> *the triggers, they come from the businesses, as it is for them we do our work.*

To summarise, the experts mentioned that in the field, there are legislative issues to handle, goals set by company management to reach, and then the employees, the travellers, to whom it might sometimes be difficult to make clear the position in which travel management functions. Thus, making changes might be difficult, as even though the outside environment would be changing, a single traveller might not understand what it means for them, and sometimes people might complain about issues that are based on outside instructions that simply cannot be anything but followed. Furthermore, somewhat related to such notions and issues with support functions, it was noted that especially in corporations, with the internal customers, the travellers, in the subsidiaries, it may be challenging to explain corporate policies, directives and instructions and expect people to follow, as they might consider the senders of the messages *'the people up there in the corporation'*. Correspondingly, it was noted that although travel management's goal is to support people in applying the rules in practice, some might consider it merely a party putting you on red lists in reports for not complying, and thus among the challenges, looking for ways to explain things in a way that demonstrates that the parties implementing and receiving a change are on the same side, and not opponents, was mentioned.

When it comes to this study's example change of moving to self-service with online tools, among the responses it was noted that because of human nature, people tend to choose the easiest way out, and if someone offers to do something for you, of course you let them, and thus when a person notices that with a change, something will become their responsibility to take care of, they often feel it is difficult and time-consuming. And partly that was considered true, as with any new system, the first times of using do tend to take up more time. One respondent illustrated the situation with an example of a salesman in a rather remote location thinking:

> *'Oh ****, I now have to do all that by myself.' And such notions then lead to questions like: 'what does this mean for me? I don't have the time… Will it be difficult to use? What will I need to do to manage?'*

However, despite some perceived difficulties, it was suggested that when introducing online tools, one should emphasise the benefits, and not apologise for possible disadvantages. And as for the advantages, many respondents mentioned the availability of all necessary information in one place and the possibility of making arrangements regard-

less of time or place or person, as most people have all the necessary appliances also at home, thus removing for instance the need to wait for office hours with urgent requests or send e-mails back and forth about proposed schedules every time even slight changes in plans come up. They also suggested that one should emphasise how easy and simple the tool is to use, and help employees notice that it is not that different from the tools many of them might already use online. In addition, a respondent suggested presenting it as a source for schedule information to support meeting arrangements and thus save both time and money with rather small adjustments. However, as also emphasised among the responses, before stating the benefits, one should make sure that the system functions well and runs smoothly and truly provides savings in time an effort, and that the parties intended to provide support to the end-users know very well how to use the new tool.

Moreover, it was noted that as in the field of travel management, there are many contracts, it might sometimes be challenging to find the ways to help the change recipients follow them and understand why it is necessary to for instance choose routings with longer durations just because they are according to current contracts. And the more complicated the travel arrangements become, the more difficult it becomes to follow all the contracts made with different suppliers. Also, the responses suggested that one should always bear in mind that with self-booking, the traveller has to carry the possible risks, too, of for instance making mistakes in the booking details, and thus there is fear involved, as one can no longer blame the travel agency for mistakes. To overcome such challenges, it was suggested that clear instructions would be given about for example always choosing the lowest rates, and the tool tailored in such a way that contract information and limits to price levels would be put into the system beforehand, to guide the employees and remove them of the fear of making terrible mistakes while using the tool.

The abovementioned insights from the interviewees can be considered to be very much in line with the discussion on celebrating change and emphasising its benefits, and taking into account the assumptions the change implementer might carry with the way they address the change and aspects related to it (Schein 1999, 58;Senior 2002, 256; Sharma 2008, 23).

4.1.2 Change implementation as a process

After gathering the experts' insights on travel management as a context for change, they were asked to share their notions about the process of change implementation, and if they considered change something that could be carried through and managed as a project, as many earlier authors had suggested regarding change as a systematic process,

and moreover, in addition to the traditional writings of Lewin (1974) and Kotter (1996), a field of project management (Paton & McCalman 2000, 110; Lanning 2001, 21; Mathews 2009, 7).

All respondents who were asked to comment the notions about considering change implementation as a process strongly agreed that change definitely can, and even should be regarded as a clear process, carried through and managed a project. What's more, a respondent further argued that having a process with clearly defined stages is important also mentally, both to the implementers and to the recipients of change, as otherwise it might seem like too much work and the goals impossible to ever be reached. It was also considered important to support all parties involved in the change with getting through the whole process, by setting and then celebrating the reaching of short-term goals. Regarding such short term goals, it was advised:

> *You shouldn't implement a big change in one part on all continents at the same time.*

Moreover, as for the stages of change projects, another respondent summarised that implementing change should have a beginning, a middle part and an end, and all respondents who discussed change as a process also noted that it should be carried through phase by phase, with some stages similar to all projects and others depending on the change at hand. What was also mentioned was that in order to reach the final end goal, one should set goals and milestones to define what needs to be done before proceeding from one step to the next. However, as a respondent pointed out, with these milestones, also referred to as little battles to win, a change process might end up stuck at a stage for a longer time that was planned, as certain issues need to be taken care of before one can move forward.

The respondents also emphasised planning, which was seen very important in almost anything, and especially when wishing to make change happen. As for examples of planning activities, the respondents mentioned all the basic issues related to project management in general, building a project team, setting the goals, planning communication and defining other areas of responsibility. It was also mentioned that in the planning teams, one should have representatives, key people, from different corporate functions, together building a plan for the change. Cooperation throughout the organisation already from the planning stage onwards was also mentioned as an important aspect because then in project meetings, all other projects planned for the same time period and target audience can also be taken into account in planning the change at hand, as it is important to notice that there rarely is only one project under implementation at a certain time, and one must pay attention to timing and resources.

Moreover, to illustrate the process of change, some respondents brought up the learning curve. According to the respondents' insights, in summary, when a decision to change is made and the implementation begins, things move forward quite smoothly,

until a hiccup follows. After a while the curve moves upwards again, and finally the goals are reached. A respondent further illustrated possible challenges by noting that with for example online tools:

> *…the supplier of the system quite often has a beautiful vision, which has already been sold as something beautiful and simple to parties as high as possible in the organisation, and once implemented, practice does not always correspond with that dream.*

Similarly, another respondent suggested that hiccups in the process of change might occur as it dawns that reality differs from the plans, and thus adjustments to the decisions need to be made. It was further illustrated that one should be brave when embarking on a process of change implementation, as even though the very end goal rarely changes, many kinds of issues may come up during the journey, and some legs might need to be handled differently than what was originally planned.

Ultimately, to conclude the discussion, the respondents were invited to come up with metaphors for implementing change in a travel management context. The first respondent, from a company of 19 000 employees, illustrated their experience by comparing it to Don Quixote battling windmills. They noted that challenges often arise as changes in travel management are considered very personal, as travelling is a very personal experience. Thus, it may sometimes be difficult for the change recipients to understand that actually, it is not that personal after all; it is strictly regulated and needs to follow rules set by for example the law or tax authorities. This notion can be considered very much in line with other comments regarding field specific challenges with travel management.

Next, the second respondent, from an organisation of 3000 employees, mentioned the seasons of cultivation. According to them, first, during early spring, the field is fertilised, and once the snow has melted, then ploughing and sowing take place. Then, one supports the growth and hopes that all goes well, and finally, the crops can be harvested. And harvesting, then, is where the change is taken to the end-users, with final training and communication. The final stage of change implementation would then be reached once all crops have been harvested and stored, and a harvest festival can take place. This view could be said to correspond quite well with the process view of change, and it also emphasises that time should be given for adapting to change, and support, fertilisation, should be given to it.

The third respondent, from an organisation of 500 employees, somewhat in correspondence with the previous metaphor, compared managing change to raising children, which similarly to the comparison with cultivating crops, sees change as a process that needs to be supported, and once at its end, celebrated for reaching the goals:

> *You need to be able to give reasons and justify things, you need to explain the same things over and over again, you need to motivate, explain why, set an example… And in the end, you can show, this is where we*

> *started from and all the way until here is where we made it, look how wonderful.*

Finally, the fourth respondent, from an international corporation of over 18000 employees, observed that a big, international organisation is like an ocean liner, which doesn't instantly start turning when one starts turning the steering wheel in one direction. The respondent further noted:

> *in smaller organisations, you just set a date and from Monday on everyone will do things as agreed in the new way, and while there might always be a few individuals acting up, all should be all right by Friday. …but not in this ship.*

According to the respondent, in an ocean liner work is needed in an entirely different way than in a smaller organisation, as even with set dates and all, it will not start turning instantly. It might perhaps slowly begin to give in towards the desired course, with a very gentle curve, and at the same time, one needs to pay attention to possible currents flowing in other directions. With such notions, also the size of the organisation the change is introduced to was brought up as an issue to take into consideration.

The experts' insights on the different aspects of implementing change as a process as well as the metaphors they provided reflected upon the earlier notions on, for instance, the importance of planning and making adjustments to plans, (Paton & McCalman 2000, 142; Morgan 2001; Senior 2002, 357; Varey 2002, 216; Pfeifer & Schmitt 2005, 297; Hayes 2007, 87), setting and reaching short-term objectives (Storey 1992, 123; Kotter 1996, 21; Kim & Mauborgne 2003 68), paying attention the timing of change (see, for example Abrahamson 2004, 9),supporting the whole process of change from planning to debriefing – and being bold and persistent while doing it (Kanter 1999, 20; Bobo 2000, 18; Senior 2002, 356). As for field-specific observations, it would seem that the implementation of an online travel tool might encounter additional challenges due to that it represents a shift to self-service and more responsibility to the employees.

4.2 Applying marketing internally

After gathering the experts' insights on managing change in a travel management context, their perceptions were requested about what it would mean to them to employ marketing inside the organisation to support change implementation. Even though internal marketing and its possible tools were further discussed throughout the later parts on supporting change, some field-specific notions were hoped to be gathered from the interviewees' spontaneous responses regarding internal marketing as a concept, based on earlier remarks on it being difficult to define and not yet identified or understood in

many organisations (see, for example Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 3; Lings & Greenley 2005, 290; Snell&White 2009, 206–207; Wieseke et al. 2009, 137).

All respondents required a moment to provide an answer, and while some went straight on to sharing their thoughts and mentioning possible examples, others pondered on the concept of internal marketing a while longer. One respondent considered internally marketing a change a difficult concept and stated that if they only knew that, they would most probably have been a lot better with these kinds of issues, and thus even though considering it a difficult concept, still thought of internal marketing as something positive. Meanwhile, other responses suggested a less positive attitude towards the potential of applying marketing internally to support change. One respondent stated that they didn't think of supporting change as marketing, as if one thinks of it as marketing, it would be like some sort of advertising, or infiltrating change into peoples' lives through trickery. Similarly, another respondent, when thinking about the possible ways to market a change, suggested that all sorts of ballyhoo in addition to the hurry at the workplace would not be the best way. However, it might also be worth noticing that throughout the interview, also the respondents with more sceptical attitudes towards applying marketing internally, repeatedly mentioned aspects such as using sales arguments to boost the change, or selling the change to employees and helping them buy it, and all respondents referred to the change recipients as the travel management function's internal customers that they aim to serve as well as possible, as it is for them the work in the function is done.

Despite the differences of opinions regarding the concept of applying marketing internally, all respondents emphasised communication about the change and its reasons when moving on to discussing possible tools for it. As one respondent put it:

> *internally marketing change could involve making sure people know what is happening and why,*

and another continued:

> *…having the right kind of information at the right time for the right people.*

Some even stated that communication *is* internal marketing, and one respondent brought up the question of whether communication is marketing or marketing communication.

Another important aspect mentioned in the discussions on marketing a change was gaining commitment from the people involved, the change recipients, and getting them motivated, once also referred to as converting them, towards adapting the change. And in order to find the best ways for that, it was noted that one should think about and get to know the target group, the intended recipients of the change and consider what it is they want to hear about the change and what use it will be to them.

The responses gathered suggest that the way internal marketing was conceptualised and regarded varied between the respondents, and while some positive reactions were elicited, other interviewees thought of it as something manipulative, and at least not fully as a management philosophy for motivation and support – thoughts which are in line with earlier remarks made on the difficulties and differences of conceptualising and appreciating internal marketing (Mudie 2000, 255; Varey&Lewis 2000, 294; Varey 2002, 215).

Still, despite the slight struggle with defining the concept, the respondents' comments about how internal marketing could help support change through getting to know the employees, motivating them and communicating to and with them could be considered to be in line with a variety of earlier notions, from supporting change and other organisational initiatives and motivating the employees, (Ballantyne 2000b, 58; Dunne & Barnes 2000, 194; Flipo 2000, 71; Gummesson 2000, 27; Frambach & Schillewaert 2001, 171; Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 9; Varey 2002, 221), or through for example conducting internal marketing research in an attempt to learn more about the employees, (Ahmed and Rafiq 2002, 39), repeatedly referred to as the function's internal customers, (Ballantyne 1997, 356; Thomson & Hecker 2000, 160; Voima 2000, 242). Other notions clearly in accordance with earlier writings were the ones emphasising communication as a tool, or even a synonym, for internal marketing (Stauss & Hoffmann 2000, 143; Varey 2000, 289; Ferdous 2008, 223).

4.3 Placing people central

The travel management experts' notions about paying attention to the change recipients and aiming for their commitment can be considered to be very much related to another key topic at the foundation of this study, understanding and influencing people in organisations, and furthermore, gathering information about their characteristics, attitudes and perceptions through internal market research. In the following, the interviewees' insights about such issues will be discussed further, followed by the introduction of the survey responses gathered from the future recipients of an intended change to the discussion. To begin, it is highlighted that understanding the human aspect of managing change, which has been accentuated on a more general level, too (see, for example Green 2007, 160; Hayes 2007, 87; Chew & Choo 2008), was also mentioned during the interviews, when individuals' characteristics and emotions were noted to have an effect on change, simply, as a respondent put it:

> *…since we all are human.*

4.3.1 Understanding and affecting attitudes and behaviour

Based on earlier notions suggesting that deeper understanding of the possible individual reactions to change initiatives, as well as the underlying reasons for them, might help the change leaders in managing the process better (Senior 2002, 337), and that many authors have, on one hand, cited affecting and changing individuals' behaviour among the fundamental challenges of implementing change (Klein & Sorra 1996, 1058; Kanter 1999, 15; Kotter & Cohen 2002, 2; Valås & Sletta 2004, 145; Reunis et al. 2005, 235), and on the other, argued that they can be influenced (Frambach & Schillewaert 2001, 171; Reunis et al. 2005, 215, 222–223, 235), also the travel management experts were invited to participate in the discussion on understanding and affecting individuals' attitudes and behaviour.

When asked whether they aim for changes in attitudes or in behaviour when implementing change, some respondents agreed that the primary goal is to change people's behaviour. However, it was also noted that even though behavioural change would be achieved, perhaps as a result of issuing new rules that organisational members have no other choice but to follow, problems might arise later if people's attitudes still remain unchanged. Therefore, to gain commitment also on an attitude level and to avoid deviations in the future, it was considered to be best if people also truly bought into the benefits brought by the change, and understood that they are more significant than possible disadvantages.

As for working with differing attitudes towards change in general and a specific change at hand, one respondent summarised the challenges by simply noting that all people are different; some focus on facts, others get excited easily, and other always begin by expressing doubts. The respondents also gave examples of the type of people that they, based on their experience, considered to have more positive attitudes towards change and thus perhaps be more cooperative when it comes to adapting to new situations. Although it was noted that the types of people more open towards change vary from one organisation to another, the experts mentioned people with broad perspectives on things, people with low tolerance towards things being static for long periods of time, and people with a strong interest towards all new technologies and systems. Meanwhile, the respondent from the largest of the example organisations noted that in big corporations, it is difficult and in many cases impossible for travel management to reach every person individually. However, what one can do is consider things on a country level. The respondent mentioned that they know quite well which cultures need more work, and which ones are likely to be the first to follow, and noted that in organisations where the management culture tolerates little individualism and tackles deviations, implementing change tends to be smoother, as rules are set to be followed, and as

a result, organisations with such cultures start working with and trying to implement new things right away.

The responses indicate that in addition to acknowledging that attitudes might have an effect on the change recipients' behaviour, the interviewees had considered the issue further, and thus were able to provide examples of possible reasons for certain types of behaviour. Their notions on the examples of the elements affecting behaviour could also be found in numerous remarks from earlier discussion regarding individual characteristics (Oreg 2006, 73; Hayes 2007, 203;Helms Mills et al. 2009, 132; Peus et al. 2009, 163), perceptions about the innovation upon adoption (Klein & Sorra 1996, 1061; Frambach & Schillewaert 2001, 165, 171), and the organisation's structure, culture and leadership (Snell & White 2009, 204).

In the meantime, as it has been noted that change might be hindered by individuals or groups within the organisation who resist it (Gilmore 2000, 78; Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 45; Oreg 2003, 680; Reunis et al. 2005, 215; Peus et al. 2009, 158), and managing resistance has been emphasised as a major challenge for the initiators of change (Bovey & Hede 2001; Reunis et al. 2005, 224–225;Chew & Choo 2008, 112; Ford et al. 2008, 362;), of interest were also the experts' views from a travel management perspective.

During the discussion on implementing change, all interviewees brought up the topic of resistance to change – both spontaneously as well as when asked about it directly. In accordance with earlier notions from other authors, the respondents strongly argued that in all change situations, there are always some people who resist it

…and there really isn't much you can do about that.

The respondents also noted that resistance to change may come in many forms and degrees. Among the examples, it was noted that sometimes people for example in briefings pretend that they consider the change a good thing, but right after the doors have closed, will return to their old ways of working. Another point perhaps worth mentioning during the discussion on the types of resistance is a notion made by a respondent regarding resistance to changes in the working environment. They mentioned that when it comes to having to learn new systems, people tend to resist at their own workplace, but in situations where the need to change old behaviour results from starting a new job, people rarely resist. The existence of the many forms of resistance has also been discussed earlier, and furthermore, as the importance, and challenges, of understanding and anticipating individual resistance have been emphasised by many authors (see, for example Flipo 2000, 72; Bovey & Hede 2001 536; Gilley et al. 2008, 159), also the interviewees were asked to indicate their views on the possible reasons behind resistance.

When it comes to understanding the reasons for a reluctance to change, it was summarised that in general, the basis for implementing change lies on posing and answering the question *what's in it for me?* And as was further noted, with nothing clearly stating that the change would be advantageous for a recipient, in the form of less work or more

gains, it might not be considered positive, and very similar remarks can also be found from earlier writings (see, for example Hecker & Thomas 2000, 171; Reunis et al. 2005, 216).

Somewhat in connection with that, the interviewees also proposed that poor communication, where on one hand the recipients are not provided with adequate channels for sharing their views, and on the other hand, where the change messages fail to reach all intended receivers, resistance might occur or grow stronger, and much in accordance, poor communication possibly resulting in resistance has also been widely discussed in past studies and writings (Connor & Lake 1988; Bobo 2000, 18; Paton & McCalman 2000, 245; Varey 2002, 216; Kim & Mauborgne 2003, 62; Allen et al. 2007; Hayes 2007, 181; Hackman & Edmondson 2008, 182).

In the meantime, also very much in line with earlier remarks (Critchley & Casey 1989; Connor & Lake1988; Chew & Choo 2008, 113; Helms Mills et al. 2009, 132; Peus et al. 2009, 164), it was noted that some people might enjoy a pre-determined and static working environment with clear rules, and thus any change can be viewed as a threat to the old, safe way of working. Similarly, some interviewees also mentioned that there are always people who do not see the change as anything good, and managing such situations can be challenging. According to them, comments rather often received from intended change recipients showing resistance include:

> *'why are we doing things, why should we change, the old way worked just fine… this is how I always have done this, and thus will always do this'.*

Such a notion was also remarkably similar to an earlier one (Kanter 1999, 18).

Also, it was proposed that a change can in a way be considered a burden added to the top of busy work days, and sometimes people might leave things undone because they have not had the time to go through all instructions and instantly pick out the most relevant parts, especially with issues that are not directly related to a person's daily work, which is often the case with travel management changes, as has been discussed earlier. Furthermore, it was mentioned that introducing a new system might face resistance due to the extra trouble resulting from having to learn new things – and in the example case of many online tools, having to do something by oneself in the future. Some respondents also noted that especially at first, the level of resistance may be high, and the change might seem enormously difficult to adopt, as compared to old system, which was easy to use, the new system and its logic seem dramatically different. Remarks regarding learning anxiety and a reluctance towards learning new skills (see, for example Coutu 2002; Keagan & Lahey 2001; Senior 2002, 252; Reunis et al. 2005, 215) can be considered related to the abovementioned notions.

Many earlier remarks have also been made about uncertainty (Keagan & Lahey 2001; Senior 2002, 252; Bordia et al. 2004, 345, 348; Clampitt & Williams 2004, 37)

and fear (see, for example Paton & McCalman 2000, 47; Reunis et al. 2005, 228; Green 2007, 172) being among the main causes for resistance, and the interview respondents also considered them, more or less conscious, to be at the basis of resistance …*definitely* …*always.* Possible challenges were also noted regarding perceived uncertainty when justifying the change to all parties involved, a step already emphasised crucial to successfully implementing change. A respondent made a remark regarding the difficulty of justifying change if the intended benefits seem far away to the recipients*:*

> *It is very important that people understand why were are doing this and that today… well, because in three years we wish to be here. But they cannot see it yet. Maybe in three years they will see that it was a good thing, but now as they don't see it, they will resist the change.*

Such a notion can be seen to be somewhat related to the concept of strategic uncertainty (Allen et al. 2007, 194–195) and to a reluctance to think strategically, a too narrow perspective or a job-only focus (Green 2007, 172).

As for reasons for fear, it was suggested that in addition to a single change project, people at the workplace are nowadays afraid due to the need to economise resulting in many kinds of programs related to efficiency. Moreover, a respondent proposed that partly people are afraid of acknowledging their fear. Sometimes, the ones bravely stating they are afraid might also get over it faster, while the ones who are perhaps unconscious of their fear might struggle more.

The change recipients' earlier experiences with change, especially negative ones, have been noted to also in some occasions have an influence on their attitude towards change (Kotter 1996, 17; Dunne & Barnes 2000, 194; Abrahamson 2004, 3; Peus et al. 2009, 164), and in the interviews, the respondents agreed that it is important to consider peoples' earlier experiences, as a background of unsuccessful change projects, which can be rather tough for the employees, can be a significant source of resistance towards a new change. Also in accordance with notions form earlier writings, a respondent proposed that due to earlier negative experiences with change, one could claim that people are smart enough nowadays to demand enough resources for implementing changes, as they have noticed that reality rarely matches the first plans. Furthermore, it was mentioned that separate changes can also have a negative influence on the recipients' motivation, since if change processes keep following one another at a fast pace before the previous ones have even been finished, the slower adapters might fail to stay onboard, which might result in frustration, and for instance make adopting the change and learning away from the old even more challenging. Finally, a notion perhaps also worth mentioning is that of a respondent from an international corporation, suggesting that when needed, it might be a good idea to pilot the change with audiences who tolerate and aren't afraid of failure, as with some cultures one might lose face by just showing up and trying something just to see if works and then failing.

Similarly to earlier notions by author authors on personal characteristics and a low tolerance for change having an influence (Paton & McCalman 2000, 245; Kotter &Cohen 2002, 180; Oreg 2006, 92) a respondent also noted that based on experience, despite of quite successful change projects, with goals reached and timetables holding, some people still had not considered the change a very good thing, even though complying with it. Correspondingly, some respondents mentioned individuals' characteristics, emotions and attitudes towards change in general as possible sources of resistance.

As a final part in the discussion on resistance to change, based on earlier notions about resistance sometimes being welcome, (Reunis et al. 2005, 226; Bommer at al. 2005; 748; Green 2007, 172; Ford et al. 2008, 363), the interviewees were also asked to reflect on such a perspective, and they all agreed that resistance to change can definitely be useful sometimes, and it was emphasised that when encountering it, one should not get offended or consider it a personal loss of face.

When it comes to examples of appreciating resistance, it was noted that with a couple of parties demonstrating strong resistance, in order to overcome the challenge, one truly has to find and provide thorough explanations and reasoning for the change. Also, it was suggested that change implementers should welcome all comments regarding the change already before starting the implementation, because:

> *…I'm not doing this for myself, I'm doing it for the businesses… and the goal is to benefit the whole company.*

Many respondents further underlined the usefulness of resistance by noting that as plans may sometimes appear better than what they turn out to be like in reality, if one has forgotten some aspect when planning the change, the critics will certainly bring it up and state that if such plans are followed the whole process is likely to fail. As such comments were considered welcome, it was proposed that one should give thanks to such people, instead of instantly rolling over any diverging opinions and expecting quiet acceptance.

4.3.2 Analysing and segmenting employees

Based on the notion that the recipients of an intended change might have differing attitudes towards it, many respondents emphasised that among the key tasks of a change implementer is looking at things from many different perspectives, thinking about the roles of different parties in the organisation and identifying the key stakeholders. As a respondent put it:

> *Many roles exist and one should already beforehand give thought to what goal the groups and individuals with certain roles serve; whether they are likely to support the change or require some work. One needs to…*

> *find the parties who might be possible supporters, but… also be able to identify the ones who might become barriers to change.*

Correspondingly, another further emphasised:

> *If you fail to… take into account the parties with a lot of influence who might possibly express resistance, everything could collapse.*

Similarly, earlier authors have observed the importance of identifying possible sources of resistance at an early stage as otherwise it might lead to poor implementation or even failure of the change (Paton&McCalman 2000, 139; Varey 2002, 309), and further, of analysing the employees, or performing internal market research, (Jobber 1995, 609; Senior 2002, 211; Green 2007, 173), and then segmenting them based on their possible attitude towards the change and their level of power (Mudie 2000, 270; Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 215, 218; Varey 2002, 141).

As for the tools for conducting internal market research, which in addition to data gathering can also be considered a tool for internal marketing on its own, aiming at employee commitment, when asked about ways of gathering information about potential supporters or opposers, a respondent representing a smaller organisation noted that in their position, by keeping eyes and ears open and just thinking from the point-of-view of a certain project, one can identify the key people. However, they also noted that one can also aim at deliberately mapping attitudes, with which responses from experts representing larger organisations agreed. In addition, it was proposed that even though a decision to change would already have been made, before proceeding to implementation, one could still ask the future recipients to share their views on how they feel about it, how it would affect them, and how they would see it in their own organisation, because such a survey might, in addition to providing valuable information, help to encourage an individual or a group to commit to the change. One respondent slightly disagreed and suggested that while one could conduct a survey among all the intended recipients regarding for instance details, if they want something to be in this way or the other, and thus offer them a chance to have some influence, actually, a specific pilot group should be used for such purposes. Furthermore, as for employing pilot groups, it was suggested that they could be used to map attitudes towards the change and collect feedback related to it. Also, it was recommended that participants should be invited from all the stakeholder groups the change might have an effect on, and based on the information gathered, any necessary adjustments should be made before implementation.

Among the suggestions for survey themes and questions that would help map the future change recipients' current attitudes towards change and especially moving to self-service with online tools, some interviewees mentioned that the future change recipients could be asked about their current usage rates of such tools, for instance making leisure travel arrangements or taking care of bank arrangements via the Internet, as that would

indirectly give insights to their perceptions. Supporting such propositions it was also noted that many people nowadays, during their leisure time, have no problems with making travel arrangements online, which might suggest that they would be fully capable of also doing that when it comes to business related travel. As other examples of survey questions, the suggestions included asking people if they at the moment use any online tools to plan their work related travel, for instance looking at routing options, and what kinds of things they would like to do themselves in the future.

According to the experts, such information would then help to understand what kind of audience the change would be introduced to and how favourable the grounds are for it. Because, as it was summarised:

> *If you have a culture already favourable for introducing an online tool, things are pretty well.*

For instance, if the responses gathered in a survey were to indicate that people already use some online tools to look at travel schedules before contacting their travel secretaries, the target group would be very favourable, as the new tool at work would just help them. Meanwhile, if found that most people in general don't use online tools, and are used to letting someone else take care of all travel arrangements, including planning, starting to employ online tools for work-related travel would be a bigger step than for people who already are familiar with such tools, and thus some more sales work would be likely to be needed.

Also, in addition to asking the intended change recipients about their attitudes and experience regarding online tools, the interviewees suggested taking into account their frequency of travel. It was noted that even though giving end-users the possibility to use online tools is a matter involving almost all employees, for a person with only little yearly travel, it might not be perceived as something that significant, while among frequent travellers, more interest towards the tool might be anticipated.

In the following final part of this chapter, the first responses gathered with the survey conducted amongst future change recipients will be brought to the discussion. Before that, a few overall notions are made regarding the survey questionnaires. When it comes to wording, based on notions from other similar examples and expert suggestions, it was chosen to exclude the word self-booking, in order to take some emphasis away from the possible view of the future change adding to employees' workload, and instead focus on the word online, to stress the possibilities a web-based tool might bring, and what limitations it might remove from making travel arrangements. Similarly, as among the goals of conducting the survey, in addition to gaining information about change recipient's perceptions and market characteristics, was to employ it as a way to promote the future change inside the organisation, attention was also paid to choosing examples to questions and constructing statements.

One could propose that insights from the field of appreciative inquiry were at the basis of such choices, as through question wording and the points emphasised, the aim was to communicate the future change not in an apologetic way as something burdensome, but as a natural course of events resulting from developed technology, aimed at bettering the situation with employees making work-related travel arrangements. However, it should be strongly emphasised that this does by no means suggest that only positive questions or statements would have been included in the questionnaire. For balance and for giving the respondents equal opportunities for stating their true views, either positive or negative, or completely neutral, some questions were asked in a positive way, and some with emphasis on possible negative aspects, and the opinion scales used were designed to have an equal amount of alternatives for expressing either positive or negative views, as well as the possibility to state no opinion at all.

Based on suggestions from earlier studies and writings on gathering information about the intended change recipients for further analysis and segmentation, in the survey, respondent background information was collected to observe the group's characteristics. Given that conducting such research was supported by also the travel management experts interviewed, as has been mentioned earlier, their insights had an influence when designing the question content. In the following, survey responses to the background questions are examined.

Altogether, responses were gathered from 101 people, and if not mentioned otherwise regarding specific questions, all respondents provided acceptable answers to all questions. Of the respondents 55 (54,5 %) were female and 46 (45,5%) male, and it could thus be claimed that both genders were adequately represented. Of the 101 responses, when analysing information about ages, 99 responses were used. The ages of the respondents ranged from 26 to 61 years, and the average age was 44. Seeing as the survey was conducted in a work environment, also the range of ages represented would seem sufficient. To facilitate further analysis, the respondents were further classified into three age groups: under 35, 35–50, and over 50 years, and the distribution of respondent ages is presented in the summarising Figure 1.

In addition to age, information on the years employees had worked at VTT was gathered. The average amount of years was 14,5, the minimum amount was 0, which implied that the respondent had started on the same year as the survey was conducted, and the maximum 54 years. Related to notions regarding respondent ages, the representation of the range of working years could also be considered satisfactory. The information was then also used to group employees, into the categories of less than 10 years, 10–20 years, and over 20 years, a division also further illustrated in Figure 1. Furthermore, the amount of yearly travel per employee was also surveyed for background information. In the questionnaire, the respondents were asked to provide separate estimates regarding their domestic and international work-related travel days. Due to perhaps insufficient

instructions, 4 responses in total were given as a range instead of a single number. Given that all the amounts given are only estimates, of such responses, the average was used as the basis for analysis. When it comes to domestic travel days, the average estimate was 17 days, the minimum 0 and the maximum 120, with a standard deviation of 20,9. As for international travel, the average estimate was 12 days, the minimum also 0, and the maximum 75, with a standard deviation of 12,3. That information was then combined to provide estimates on the total of work-related yearly travel days, of which the average was 29 and the maximum 130 days, with a standard deviation of 24,7. Based on the ranges and standard deviations of the estimates, one could suggest that the employees sometimes varied from one another rather considerably when it came to yearly work-related travel. Ultimately, also the yearly travel information was used to sort the respondents, into the groups of fewer than 15, 15–30 and over 30 days, a splitting further examined in Figure 1.

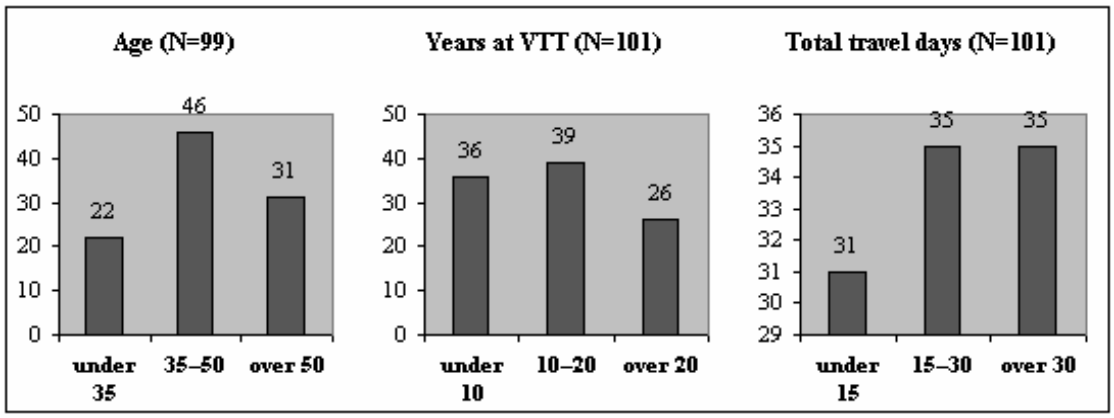

Figure 1 Background characteristics of the survey respondents

To summarise the background characteristics, as one can see above, the most respondents belonged to the age group of between 35 and 50 years, while the group of under 35-year-olds was the smallest, and a little less than a third of the respondents were over 50 years old. As for the respondents' length of career at VTT, the middle group was once again the largest, perhaps not unsurprisingly given the ages, a little over a third of the respondents had less than 10 years of experience, and the smallest group comprised of employees with over 20 years of experience. Finally, when it came to the amount of yearly travel, the respondents were somewhat evenly distributed in the three categories. Most employees had either the average amount of travel of 15–30 days, or over 30 days, while the least estimated their travel to be less than 15 days. With regards to the large range of travel, it might be worth noting that in the group of over 30 days, 16 employees estimated their yearly travel to be between 45 and 65 days, and 6 responses indicated a still larger total of travel days, including the maximum amount of 130.

The respondents were also asked about their frequency of using online tools in certain example situations. Even though assigning frequency classes and providing estimates to online tool use in situations which might occur on very different intervals in an individual's life might be considered somewhat challenging, a decision was made to provide ready examples on both possible situations as well as frequencies. Based on the notions from earlier studies and writings, as well as suggestions from the travel management experts, the information gathered was hoped to contribute in two ways. First, the rate of present online tool use could be employed to indicate possible interest towards using such a tool also for work-related travel, and second, by separately mentioning situations in which people might already use online tools, the aim was to help the respondents remember or realise that starting to use a new tool for work-related travel arrangements might not be such a big change. The frequencies of online use estimated by the respondents are presented in Figure 2.

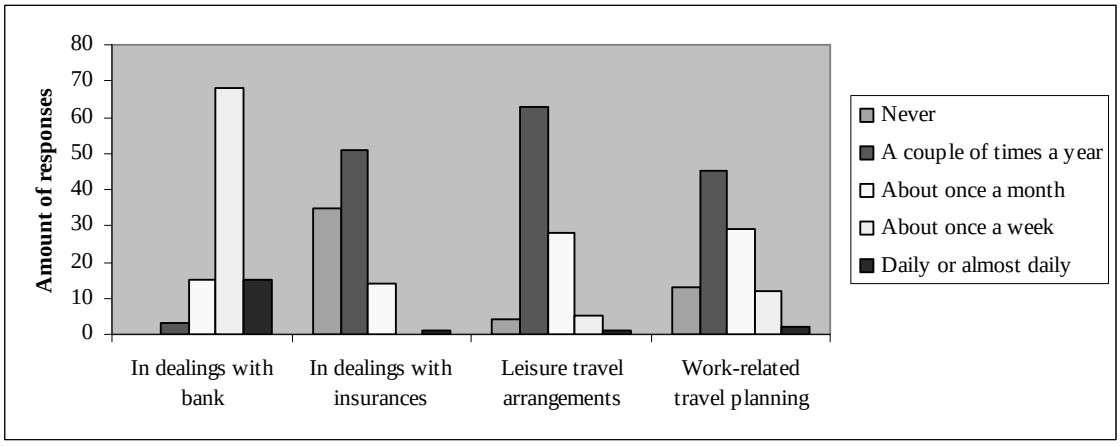

Figure 2 Frequency of online tool use in different situations (N=101)

By looking at the figure, one could suggest that most respondents used online tools in the example situations only a couple of times a year, while weekly or daily use in general was rather rare. When examining the usage rates based on the example situations, it could be argued that the respondents mostly used online tools in dealings with their bank, and most seldom in dealing with their insurances. As for examples related to travelling, most respondents indicated a frequency of a couple of times a year, when it came to making arrangements for leisure travel or planning work-related travel. If one was to provide accurate estimates on how heavy users of online tools the respondents were, some more information regarding their habits would be needed, as based on these responses only, it is not possible to estimate how frequent their online use was in relation to using other ways of making arrangements, or how common the example situations were in their life.

However, to provide even a somewhat approximate illustration of the respondents' frequency of online use more generally, an average was calculated for each respondent by assigning numeric values to the possible frequency choices with the logic the larger the value, the more frequent the use. Then, based on that information, the frequencies were further grouped into two categories; people who used online tools often or somewhat often, and to people who used the tools not that often or never. Before moving to examining the results of assigning the averages and making the groupings, it should perhaps also be noted that even though some respondents were in the framework of this example grouped into non-users of online tools, in reality they might be heavy users of a tool not listed in the alternatives. Bearing in mind the possible limitations to counting and categorising them, the average frequencies and their division into two are illustrated in Figure 3.

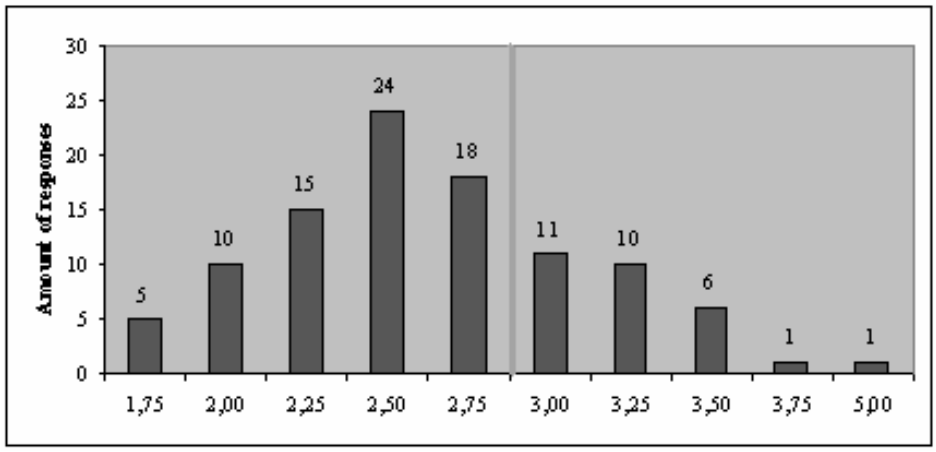

Figure 3 Average frequencies of online tool use (N=101)

When looking at the averages of the alternative frequencies (1= never, 2=a couple of times a year, 3=about once a month, 4=about once a week, 5= daily or almost daily), it could be stated that most respondents used the example online tools less than about once a month, and only very few once a week or daily. As also illustrated in the figure, a division was made, based on a wish to use an existing category line (3) as a division point, instead of artificial averages. As a result, 72 respondents were categorised in the group 'not that often or never', and 29 in the group 'somewhat often or often'.

In addition to collecting information about the respondents' characteristics, also their perceptions were of interest, and first, they were gathered regarding online tools. Five statements were presented, and even though they were chosen to also communicate to the respondents the possible benefits the adoption of a new online tool would bring, in an attempt to ensure a balance, two were regarding possible negative aspects. The respondents then indicated their level of agreement with each one. Of the respondents, 1 didn't have an opinion. The responses are presented in Figure 4.

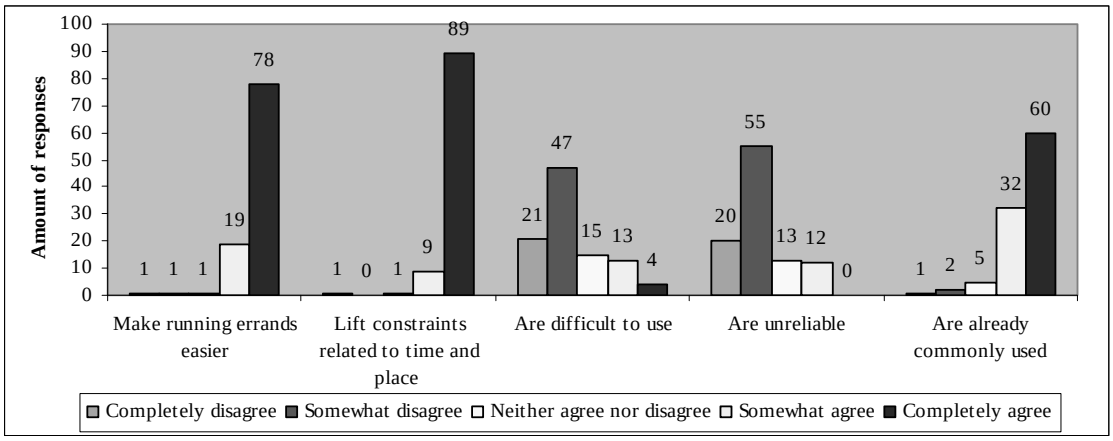

Figure 4 Levels of agreement with statements "In my opinion, online tools…" (N=100)

As the bars illustrate, a large majority of the respondents agreed or completely agreed with that online tools make running errands easier, lift constraints to time and place and are already commonly used. Meanwhile, most respondents either somewhat disagreed or disagreed with the statements of online tools being difficult to use or unreliable, but not in as clear majorities as with the three other statements. Also worth noting might be that while with the positive statements, the majority chose the extreme alternative of completely agreeing, only a somewhat disagreement was indicated with the perhaps more negative ones. When it comes to online tools being difficult to use, about a third of the respondents were either neutral or agreed with the statement, and 17 either agreed or completely agreed. Finally, while no respondents completely agreed with that the tools are unreliable, 12 were somewhat in accordance and 13 neutral.

Next, also in the purpose of gaining insights about perceptions, the respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with four statements about possible attitudes to change, of which two were designed in an attempt to present possible positive attitudes, and two negative. The respondents' degrees of agreement are pictured in Figure 5.

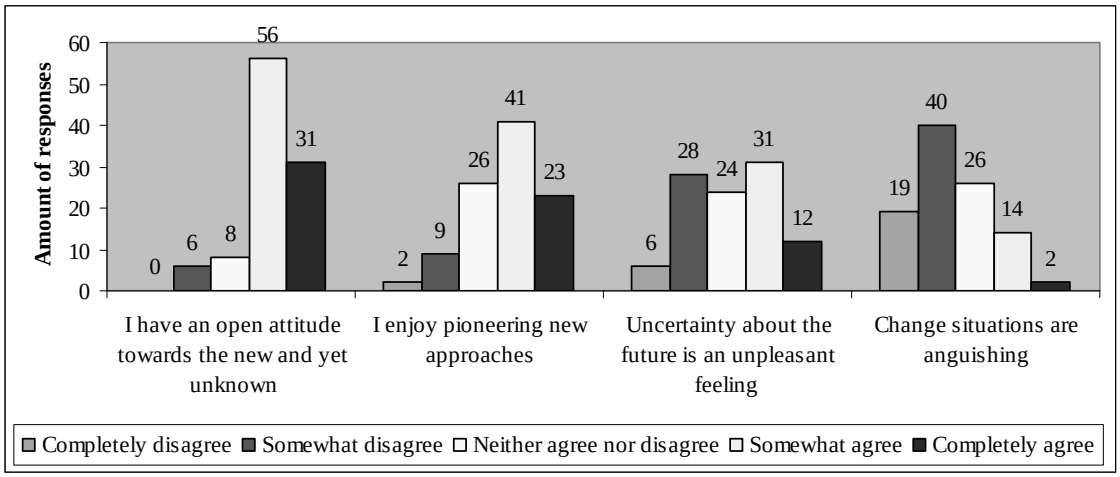

Figure 5 Levels of agreement with statements related to adopting change (N=101)

Instantly visible in the figure is that a clear majority of the respondents thought they had an open attitude towards the new and yet unknown. Also as for enjoying the pioneering of new approaches, the majority again indicated to at least somewhat agree. Meanwhile, when it came to uncertainty about the future being an unpleasant feeling, almost the same amounts of respondents either somewhat agreed or disagreed, so no clear opinion majority could be indicated. However, a slightly larger portion of responses indicated agreement than disagreement with the statement. When proceeding to examine the statement about change situations being anguishing, one can note that the majority of people either somewhat disagreed or disagreed with it. However, 16 respondents also indicated to at least somewhat agree. Finally, perhaps also worth highlighting is that apart from the question about an open attitude towards the new, all statements received a rather notable amount of responses indicating neutral views.

Based on the degrees of agreement with change-related statements, an average attitude score was counted in total and for each respondent. Even though the calculations were yet again somewhat artificial due to that the values used represented degrees rather than numbers, the aim was to present the responses in such a way that a lager the value, the stronger the agreement. Thus, the responses to the negative statements were reverse-coded. Based on such calculations, the average agreement with positive statements regarding change was 3,57, and as 3 was used to indicate a neutral standing, one could claim that it illustrates a more positive than negative view on change among all the respondents.

As a final part in the discussion regarding background information about the respondents, answers to the direct question on the level of interest about a possibility to use online tools also for making work-related travel arrangements, which somewhat summarises the first part of the survey research, are presented. The respondents were asked to indicate their level of interest, and of the 101 responses analysed, an average interest

score of 3,3, a little over somewhat interested, was found. Figure 6 presents the distribution of responses per level of interest.

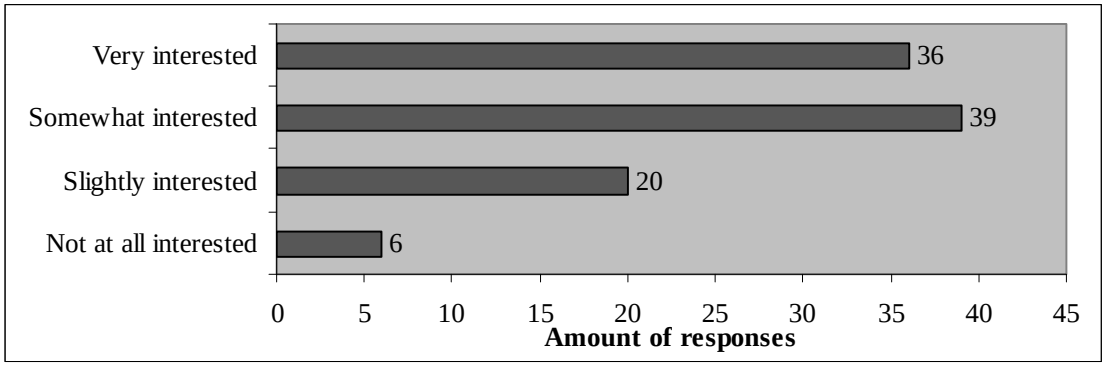

Figure 6 Levels of interest towards a possibility to use online tools also for making work related travel arrangements (N=101)

As the average value suggested, a clear majority, almost all the respondents indicated at least some level of interest towards using online tools also for work-related travel arrangements, and only 6 were not interested at all.

As a conclusion, the level of interest indicated by the respondents is discussed together with the groups defined based on responses to earlier questions. Figure 7 illustrates the percentage of employees in each respondent group who indicated a certain interest level.

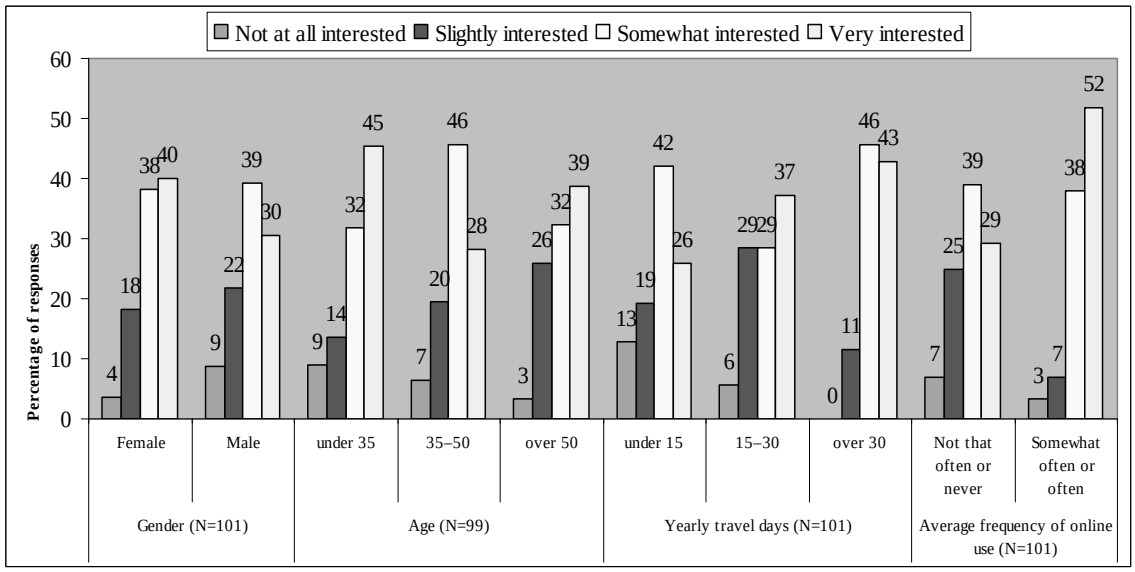

Figure 7 Levels of interest towards a possibility to use online tools also for making work related travel arrangements in different respondent categories

As it has already been noted that most respondents were at least slightly interested towards using an online travel tool at work, it is perhaps not surprising to observe that also when divided according to background groups, the majority of the bars indicate some level of interest. When looking at the per cent amounts of interest, it can be noted that the highest percentages of very interested employees were found in the categories of females, under 35 and over 50-year-olds, with 15 or more yearly travel days and at least somewhat frequent online tool usage. As for somewhat interested respondents, in all groups either the largest or the second largest percentage of employees indicated such a level. The third largest amount of respondents in all groups were only slightly interested, and males, over 50-year-olds, with 15–30 yearly travel days and less frequent online use, indicated the highest percentages for such an interest level. Finally, a clear minority of employees stated no interest at all towards using the tool, and per background group it can be detected that males, under 35-year-olds, with under 15 yearly travel and not that frequent online use were the categories with most responses stating no interest.

Ultimately, mostly for planning purposes outside this study, the respondents were also asked to state what travel operations they would be interested in making with the new online tool, and the responses are presented in Figure 8.

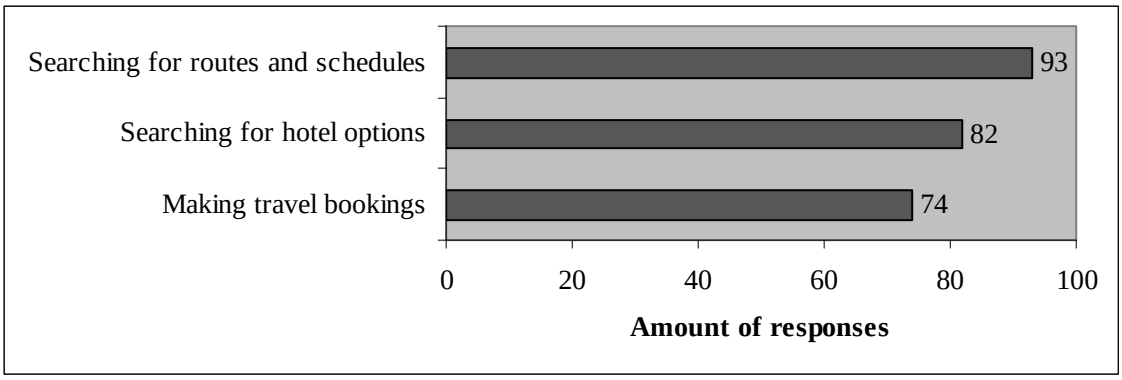

Figure 8 Responses to the question on what work-related travel operations one would be interested in making with an online tool (N=101)

The respondents were invited to choose all the alternatives they saw applicable, but at the same time, due to the formatting of the electronic questionnaire, were forced into choosing at least one. Taking into consideration such a limit when observing the results, it can be noted that all alternatives received ticks from clearly over half of the respondents, with searching for routes and schedules as the most, and actually making travel bookings the least popular among the alternatives. As it is impossible to know which alternative most respondents chose when having no interest towards making any ar-

rangements, the basis for any further observations is rather thin, but yet a remark is made on that overall, it would seem that the employees indicated a somewhat strong interest towards starting to make travel arrangements with the new tool.

To summarise the survey findings, prior to advancing to the chapter on supporting change implementation, it could be proposed that the group of 101 VTT employees who voluntarily participated in the survey had rather satisfactory representations of demographic background groups. In the meantime, when it comes to perceptions about online tools and change, the majority of the respondents were either neutral or positive towards example statements regarding online tools, change in general, and the interest towards adopting the new tool at work. When the interest towards the new travel tool was examined with the employees divided into different background groups, even no rigorous statistical analysis was conducted, one could claim that the findings were in line with observations made in earlier studies and writings, as well as with the field specific suggestions made by travel management experts. Overall, even though for the study's purposes some more variety in general attitude towards change and the new tool might have been interesting, the positive notion can be made that the responses could suggest that among the respondent group, the field for planting the seeds of successful change might be quite favourable.

4.4 Supporting change through encouraging supporters and attending to resistance

Given the variety of possible perceptions and attitudes the change recipients might have towards the change and adopting it, and as earlier authors had suggested providing encouragement to the supporters (Allen et al. 2007, 201; Sharma 2008, 23) while in the meantime also focusing on the opposers and overcoming any identified resistance before it escalating to unbreakable barriers (Keagan and Lahey 2001; Bommer et al. 2005, 736), exploring the possible ways of supporting change was also among the main themes in the interviews.

As for the travel management experts' perceptions, to summarise, one could argue that they agreed that recipients need to be provided support with adopting a change. Such supporting was also referred to as selling the change, as helping the wish to change to come from the people themselves, and as encouraging people to convert to it. It was further suggested that after identifying the key people or groups who might be more supportive, also referred to as the bellwethers, as a next step it was proposed that one should discuss the change first and more thoroughly with them, with the goal of them then starting to spread and carry the change messages through. In addition, the experts also provided their insights on suggestions about actions to take to overcome

barriers to change, as not attending to it had been noted to even lead to the collapse of change initiatives.

In the following, the themes discussed earlier in this study on supporting change implementation and overcoming resistance, based on past research results and different authors' insights are used to build the structure of the chapter for presenting the views gathered in the interviews and survey. Seeing as the grouping of the travel management experts' insights follows the one built on earlier writings, an overall remark could be made that their notions and suggestions were similar to past ones, with a field-specific point-of-view and personal distributions of emphasis. Worth noting might also be that since many of the themes and example tools discussed may be thought of as somewhat interrelated, the distribution of insights under certain rubrics was not conducted with creating strict boundaries in mind. Meanwhile, their gathering founded on both past writings and the experts' insights, the survey results discussed in this chapter are illustrations of the perceived levels of importance the respondents indicated for certain chosen example ways of supporting change. Even though the respondents' views on the levels of importance were asked in verbal form, an average degree was calculated for each case by assigning numeric values from 1 to 5 to the interest level categories, with 1 representing no importance, and 5 standing for very important.

Policy: In the interviews, creating travel policies and making sure they are followed was noted among the key tasks of the travel management function, and a respondent representing a larger organisation noted that some might consider it easier to implement changes in travel management than in other functions, as one can lean on a travel policy which, if necessary, can simply direct people to comply with changes. Stating a clear policy for employees to follow has also been mentioned earlier (Gurnani 1999, 213–214) as an important tool for guiding change recipients. However, the respondent further proposed that the issue is not that simple, as:

> *even though I have a policy to lean on, I do not want to be the police.*

The change effort's connection to strategy: Meanwhile, all the travel management experts interviewed strongly underlined the importance of clearly stating to all parties involved what will be changed, and especially, why. It was repeatedly emphasised how necessary it is to make the foundation for change implementation steady by giving reasons for the change and justifying it as a shift towards the better, instead of just stating that something will be done differently. One respondent noted that according to their experience, Finns especially are much better at adopting changes once they have heard all the reasons for them, and another concluded that in their organisation, nothing will get changed without clear reasoning, in other words, without having all the why questions answered. Similar remarks can be found from writings from a variety of fields (Senior 2002, 211; Cameron & Green 2004; Allen et al. 2007, 196; Green 2007, 208; Burke 2008, 25; Helms Mills et al. 2009, 133 ; Peus et al. 2009, 167,170).

Meanwhile, similar to earlier notions about the possible difficulties of acting on uncertainty (Morgan 2001; Clampitt & Williams 2004, 37), in connection to the discussion on the importance of clearly stating the reasons for the decision to change, a respondent mentioned that sometimes when beginning the implementation:

you might have nothing but a vague idea about the end result.

So for all questions, one might not be able to give clear answers right away, and that is why a project is needed, with a team formed of experts, who will find the exact answers about the future as the process moves on.

Also in the survey, respondents were asked about the importance of clearly stated reasons and goals for the change. The average importance given to clearly stating the reasons was 3,88, while for clearly defining the goals, the number was 3,76, and for a clearly defined process for change, 3,54, which can all be placed between somewhat important and important.. The distribution of opinions is further illustrated in Figure 9.

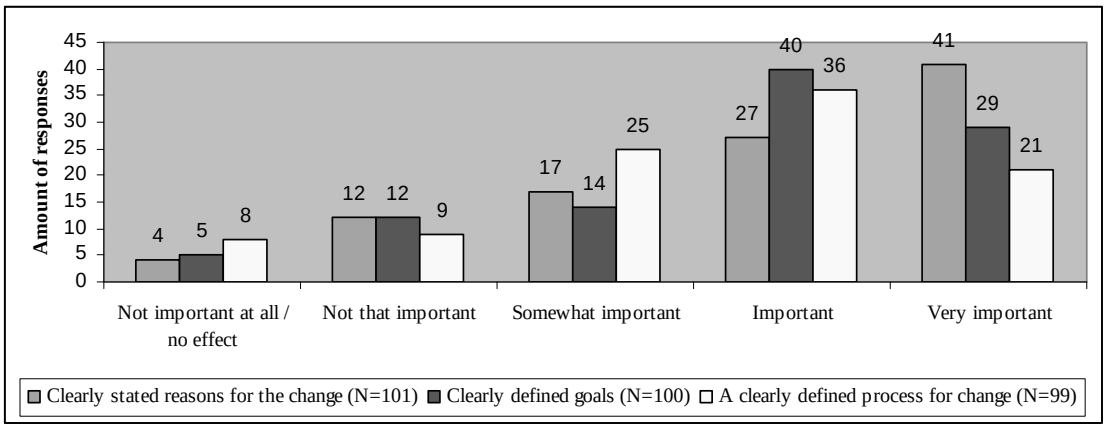

Figure 9 The perceived importance levels of clearly stated reasons for change, clearly defined goals and a clearly defined process when supporting change implementation

In line with earlier suggestions, as can be seen from the presentation, both aspects were considered by the majority of respondents either important or very important. Clearly stating the reasons was underlined as very important by over 40 respondents. Meanwhile, a couple of respondents still considered such issues to have no effect at all in supporting the change.

Supporting environment: Also, related to earlier discussion where it was noted that past experiences with change implementation could have an influence on future ones, creating a climate at the workplace that encourages change acceptance was mentioned by the interviewees as a possible goal for implementing and a way for supporting change, and it was added that with many changes taking place simultaneously in the organisation, all change projects could aim at building such a climate for the whole or-

ganisation, instead of only for each change separately. One respondent further mentioned that a specific project management office has been founded in their organisation, and among its goals is gathering information on and learning about earlier projects. Meanwhile, even though responses suggested that past changes could be used to support future ones, and more time could be taken to celebrate successes, it was also noted that nowadays such celebrations of reaching the change project's goals are still quite rare, and before one project has finished, others have already started, and thus people never get to have so-called harvest festivals.

As past experiences were mentioned by many earlier studies and writings to possibly have an effect on individuals' attitudes and perceptions to change, either towards the positive or negative, and since creating a supporting climate for change was emphasised also by the travel management experts, in the survey for future change recipients, questions were asked about the perceived importance of other peoples' examples and earlier experiences with change, when being part of implementing one. The reason it was chosen to ask about other people and not the respondents personally was the wish to gain insights on whether learning about possible positive or negative experiences or observing supportive or resistant behaviour towards the change would be given importance, and thus possibly affect the shaping of attitudes among employees. As examples of other individuals in the organisation, the respondent's own manager and colleagues were given. Of all the survey respondents, all but 1 provided an opinion to both statements. The average importance level of one's manager's example and experiences was 2,92, and the score for colleagues' examples was 3,54, indicating that most respondents considered their own manager's experience a little less, and that of their colleagues' more than somewhat important. Figure 10 further describes the different amounts of responses per importance level.

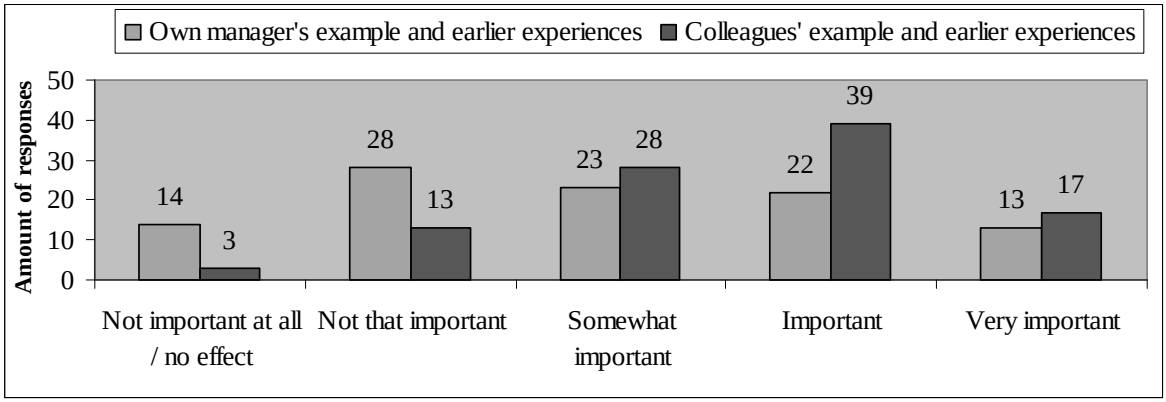

Figure 10 The perceived importance levels of one's own manager's and colleagues' example and earlier experiences on supporting change implementation (N=100)

By looking at the illustration, one can see that the respondents regarded their colleagues' examples and earlier experiences mostly either somewhat important or important, with over half of the respondents perceiving them at least important. As for managers, the alternative not that important received the most responses, and as the average score suggested, the respondents perceived the importance of their manager's example and experiences less important than that of their colleagues, with 14 stating they have no effect at all when supporting change implementation. Thus, the sharing of experiences might be noted to be among the factors possibly facilitating or hindering change implementation,

Involving those affected by the changes in planning and implementation: To advance in the discussion, when it came to other suggestions about supporting people with positive attitudes, the interviewees proposed that asking for many different parties to participate might help them to get more committed, as change no longer feels like something dictated from the above, but like something the recipients have been well informed about and of which they might have taken part in the planning, referred to a respondent as people wishing to be the subjects, not the objects of change being brought upon them, and also observed my many other authors as a key element (Ballantyne 1997, 356; Dunne & Barnes 2000, 194; Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 70; Varey 2002, 310; Deetz & Brown 2004, 172; Lewis et al. 2006, 120–121, 129). It was further suggested that once moving on to implementation, such more committed parties would speak for the change and stand behind it, and as a way of taking care of such bellwethers, the change implementers should continue to invite them to participate in conversations and listen to their opinions, to help them support the change implementation, and also, to foster their commitment. As examples of inviting change recipients to participate in planning, it was suggested that their comments and advice could be sought for when planning the usage instructions for the tool, in order to avoid a travel management specialist, either the organisation's travel manager or the supplier of a new travel tool, to unintentionally using a too field-specific point-of-view or making too quick shortcuts when describing something very familiar to them.

Similarly, the respondents also strongly emphasised the importance of paying attention to the parties identified as opponents and addressing their concerns, also noted earlier as a way of overcoming resistance (de Caluwé & Veermak 2004, 11). As one respondent put it:

> *One should keep them informed at all times and give them and their views some understanding …and not consider them as just the sulking ones, but approach them and ask them to share what they think is wrong or what things should be given even more attention.*

Furthermore, it was suggested that a step in overcoming resistance would be getting the people resisting to at least discuss the issues, and then clearly describe the facts and

thoroughly explain and re-explain the reasons for the change. Further propositions for overcoming resistance included making instructions so simple that following them becomes no issue at all, and offering a possibility for personal guidance with the new ways of working, if needed. It was proposed that in the end, hopefully, once the opposers notice their voices get heard and have an influence, without noticing, they might end up buying into the change.

Questions regarding participation and involvement were also asked from the survey respondents. All but 2 respondents stated their opinion about the importance of a possibility to participate in planning the change, and the average score 3,52 suggested they considered it somewhat important or more. As for a more general possibility for getting one's own opinions and perceptions heard, all but 1 had an opinion, the average score was 3,22, and thus also suggested that it was considered at least somewhat important. In Figure 11, the responses are illustrated further.

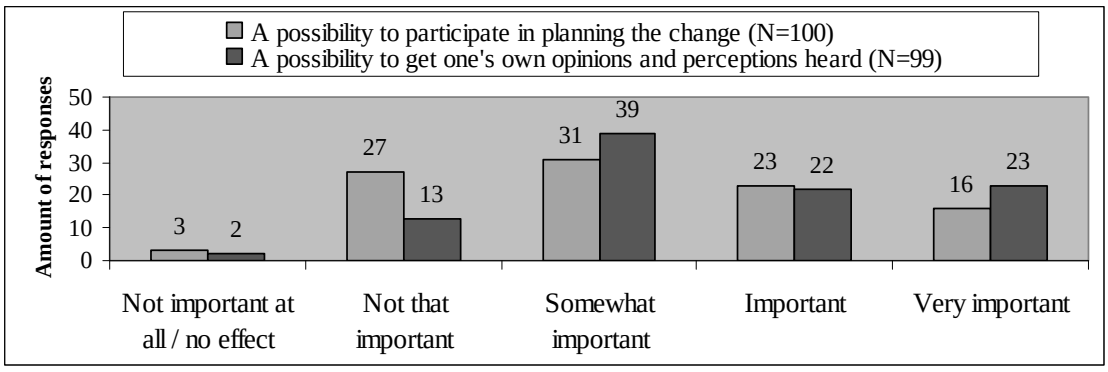

Figure 11 The perceived importance of a possibility to participate in planning the change and getting one's own opinions and perceptions heard when supporting change implementation

It would thus appear that both the possibility to participate in planning the change and the possibility to get one's own opinions and perceptions heard were considered by the respondents mostly somewhat important. While the possibility to get one's own opinions and perceptions heard was evaluated by about half the respondents important or more important, over a quarter of the respondents indicated that they did not consider a possibility to participate in planning the change that important.

To conclude the discussion on participation and involvement, an interviewee still suggested that when getting the recipients of change to participate, their efforts should be encouraged and rewarded for instance through showing, when introducing new ways of working, that improvements have been reached, some perhaps based on earlier suggestions from active employees.

Paying attention to culture: Moving on, among the expert responses, the shift to self-service with online tools was suggested to also mean changing the culture inside the

organisation, a topic also widely discussed in past writings both as its own as well as with regards to implementing change (Gummesson 2000, 35: Senior 2002, 160; Abrahamson 2004, 87; Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars 2004, 21; Cameron 2008, 430, 441; Schein 2008, 50). And as for means of achieving such a change, it was noted that in some ways it might come naturally, with new and younger employees more used to doing things on their own flowing in, but for the existing organisation, some work was considered likely to be required. And once again, it was emphasised that:

…you cannot achieve such change merely with rules and policies.

Overall, the cultural elements of change, both regarding national and organisational ones, were brought up at intervals during different phases of discussion, and perceived particularly important by a respondent from an international organisation.

Related to culture, the respondents also emphasised the importance of publicly stating the organisation's values, especially if they are the kind that can be considered supportive to adapting a certain change, as values and talking about them were considered to have an effect on the climate, to the possibilities and eagerness to change experienced by people. For example, if the organisation's values include being innovative, to encourage people to adopt a new online tool, one could mention the shared values and emphasise the possibility of being among the first to do something new. In connection with such notions, a remark could perhaps be made to that how in the background information collected from the future recipients of change, a clear majority at least somewhat agreed with enjoying pioneering new approaches.

Learning new skills: Given that in earlier studies and writings learning, related to employing internal marketing and change, as a part of it, a way to support it or even a necessity without with changes might be blocked (Beer et al. 1990; Berry & Parasuraman 2000, 181 ; Paton & McCalman 2000, 206 ; Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 181; Kotter & Cohen 2002, 3 ; Ballantyne 2003, 1257; Hultman & Axelsson 2005, 184 ; Green 2007, 246; Shani & Docherty 2008, 502) has been emphasised and suggestions made on the importance of providing training to the change recipients (Klein & Sorra 1996, 1073; Gurnani 1999, 213–214; Green 2007, 21; Burke 2008, 25; Helms Mills et al. 2009, 133), the interviewed travel management experts were also asked about it, and as ways of supporting the employees with adopting the change and making the new tool part of their daily work life, it was indeed considered essential in any change to offer training. It was also mentioned that recent travel management issues are discussed with all new employees during orientation, and all organisational members are invited to participate if they feel brush-ups are needed regarding any fields. Correspondingly, it was emphasised that already before and during implementation, information about where support, instructions and advice can be sought from afterwards, once the new ways of working have been introduced and are in use.

When it comes to the views gathered in the survey, it might first be worth noting that responses on the future change recipients' perceptions about online tools indicated that about a third of the respondents were either neutral or agreed with the tools being difficult to use, and 17 out of 101 disagreed. Furthermore, based on earlier writings as well the experts' insights regarding introducing new travel tools, the survey respondents were also asked about the perceived importance of user training and clear usage instructions for the new tool. The average levels of importance were counted, and for user training it was 3,67, suggesting they were considered more than somewhat important, while for clear usage instructions a score of 4,63 would suggest that they were considered between important and very important. Of all the respondents, 1 didn't state an opinion for the question on usage instructions, and the distribution per importance level of the rest is illustrated in Figure 12.

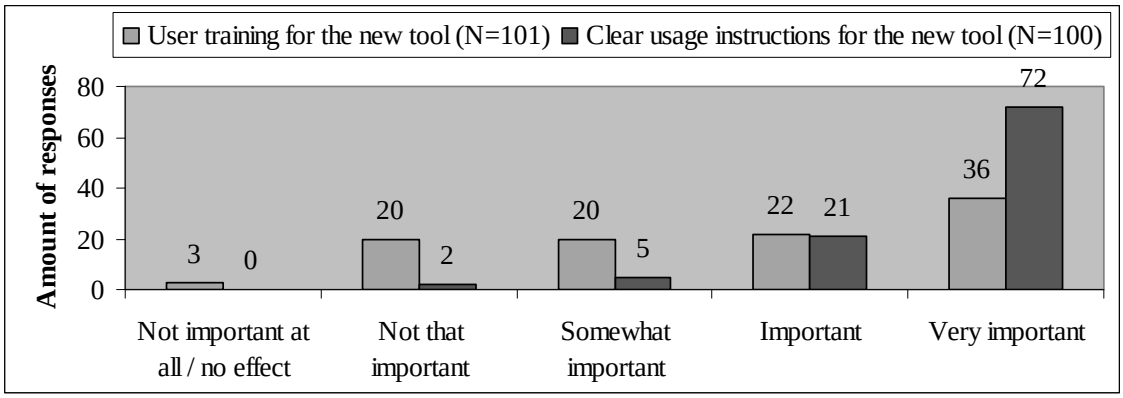

Figure 12 The perceived importance of user training and clear usage instructions for the new tool when supporting change implementation

Quite clearly, when examining the bars, one can notice how a large majority of respondents considered clear usage instructions for the new tool very important, while no respondents thought they had no effect. As for user training, the majority of a bit over a third of the responses were also given to the alternative very important, and the rest were rather evenly distributed between the alternatives of not that important and important. Based on the results only, one could suggest that the respondents might prefer to self-learn about the tool rather than participate in training.

As for organising and participating in training sessions, mostly for later planning purposes, the respondents were also asked to indicate their agreement with three statements about training. For the statement of usually participating in training sessions, of the 101 respondents 7 couldn't give an opinion, and the average level of agreement for the rest was 2,96, suggesting very slight disagreement. As for the respondents' interest towards participating in training, 3 didn't have an opinion in both cases, and for the statement on small-group training, the average agreement score was 3,07, suggesting

very slight agreement, while for virtual training it was 3,37, suggesting a little more agreement. Before further discussing the results also demonstrated in Figure 13, it might be worth noting that the design of the questions regarding training was perhaps somewhat confusing, which might explain the relatively high number of no opinions, and which sets some limits to analysing the results, as importance is measured with an agreement scale instead of one with perceived levels of importance. Bearing such limitations in mind, the analysis for the respondents' interest towards participating in training was conducted in similar ways as for the other examples in the questionnaire regarding supporting change.

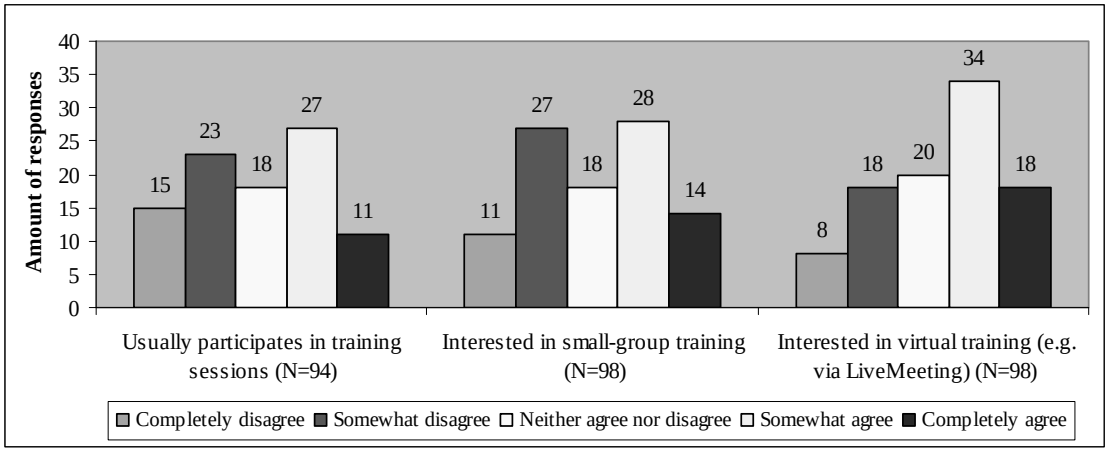

Figure 13 The levels of agreement with statements regarding training session participation and interest towards different formats of training

When looking at the distribution of responses per agreement level for each of the statements, one can see that when it comes to a tendency to participate in training, the responses were quite evenly distributed between the levels of somewhat disagreement and somewhat agreement, with somewhat agree as the most popular alternative. Meanwhile, 15 respondents stated complete disagreement, thus perhaps suggesting that they seldom participate in training. As for the interest to participate in training, for the small-group alternative, the respondents were yet again distributed quite evenly between the extreme levels, around 40% for each, with slightly more responses stating agreement with being interested. Some more clear differences can be seen when it comes to virtual training, with over half the responses indicating somewhat or complete agreement, and about a fifth either somewhat or completely disagreeing. Thus, even though no large majorities were found for any of the response categories, one could suggest that the respondents appeared most interested towards virtual training, which would be in line with earlier suggestions regarding a possible wish to learn about the new tool without physically attending events.

To proceed, as for *motivation and recognition*, also mentioned by many authors to have a role in supporting change (Gurnani 1999, 213–214; Zorn et al. 2000, 516; Paton and McCalman 2000, 18; Lanning 2001, 24–36; Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 25, 118; Kim & Mauborgne 2003, 67), as examples in the expert interviews it was suggested that since facts about usage rates are easy to gather, one could do follow-ups using reports on behaviour and reward the ones with high usage rates; give them a possibility to shine. In the meantime, reports would also tell the implementer who are not complying, and provide a possibility to act upon such information, too, as a remark was also made that usually it is the first ones to adopt who stumble the most due to everything being new to all parties, while the laggards tend have it easier, and thus eager adopters might get frustrated if no outcomes can be seen to result from not adopting the changes. Therefore, it was suggested that in addition to giving credit to the parties who have succeeded in implementing the change first, some consequences should also result to the parties objecting; also referred to using both sticks and carrots. Many notions about rewarding employees for reaching certain goals have also been made earlier (Gurnani 1999, 213–214; Kanter 1999, 20; Gilley et al. 2008, 158–159; Burke 2008, 25), while with regards to using, as referred to as in the interviews, sticks, some related remarks have been made (Jobber 1995, 612; Lewis et al. 2006, 128), but such conduct has not been recommended by many.

In the meantime, public declarations about the first ones who have adopted the change were considered in the interviews also mentally important to the parties implementing change, as through them it can be seen that getting the change through is possible, if there just is enough will, and to the parties still resisting they could show that adopting the change is not impossible, even though it at the moment the goals might seem unreachable. As ways of making public notions about progress, it was suggested that any remarks would be made regarding groups rather than individuals in the organisation. In addition to publishing for instance adoption rates on intra-organisational newsletters, one respondent mentioned that they rather tend to give oral praise to during briefing sessions or directly to the group concerned, than publicly draw attention to individual successful adopters.

Some challenges were also mentioned during the interviews regarding reports on usage rates as a source for giving recognition, as based on statistics alone, one could make mistakes, as it is not possible to be entirely sure who has made certain reservations themselves, and who has had someone to make the arrangements on their behalf. In addition, it was noted that if someone would be doing something, it might not yet indicate that they are doing it entirely willingly. Moreover, perhaps also worth noticing when it comes to rewarding people for quickly adapting to using new travel tools is that people have different amounts of travel related experience. For a frequent traveller, starting to make arrangements with an online tool might soon become self-motivating as they no-

tice all the benefits the system brings, while for another party, such features might be less familiar or relevant, which then through less actual usage would then lead to less rewards, even though the latter party would actually need to put in much more effort to learn to use the new system. Correspondingly, it was noted that as always with giving praise exclusively, there is a chance of other parties then feeling mistreated or jealous.

Also the survey respondents were asked for opinions regarding public follow-ups and rewarding people. All respondents provided an opinion, and for encouragement and rewards for adopting the change, an average importance of 2,84, slightly less than somewhat important, was given, while for public follow-ups of change adoption, the score was 2,48, suggesting even lower importance. In Figure 14, the results are presented in more detail.

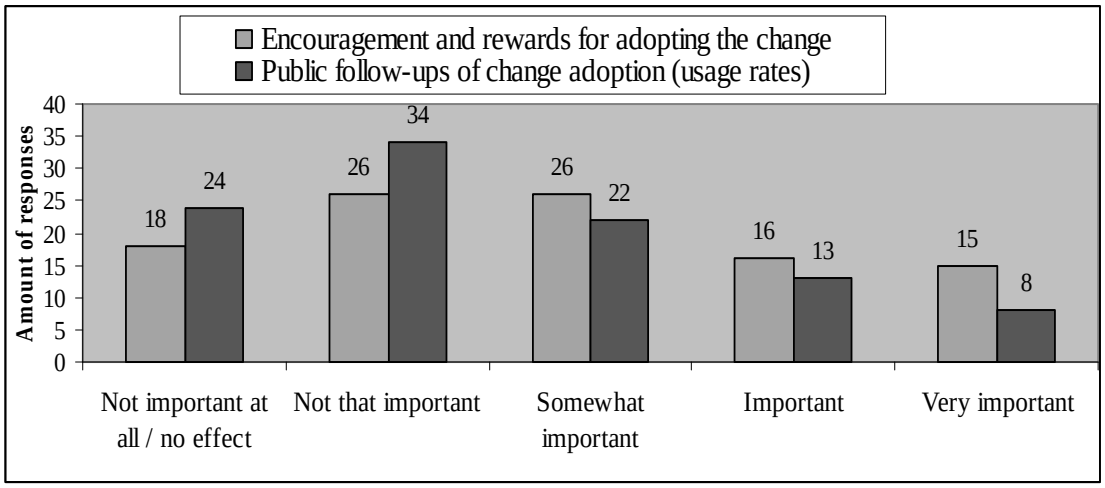

Figure 14 The perceived importance of encouragement and rewards for and public follow-ups of change adoption when supporting change implementation (N=101)

As can be noted, the respondents stated rather similar levels of perceived importance to both the example questions, with not that important as the most popular answer. However, even though the average scores might indicate a rather low importance given to either of the examples, it might be worth noting that due to the somewhat even distribution of opinions, a little less than half of the respondents still considered public follow-ups at least somewhat important, while a little over a half thought so of encouragement and rewards.

Management and leadership: As for important steps in implementing change successfully, the interviewees all emphasised selling the change to the management and gaining and ensuring their support and sponsorship, through for instance clearly defining a business case, getting an investment decision through and be granted the permis-

sion to spend time and other resources on implementing a change, away from ones' regular job-related tasks, and eventually involve others in the implementation, too.

It was further underlined that since building a steady foundation is important when managing any change, even though some management representative as an individual might personally not consider the change the best possible thing, once decided, they should stand behind the change and participate in communicating about it as a new common way of working, intended for everybody's good, because:

> *Then I as a change implementer can rest assured that I have something steady to lean on.*

It was also suggested that if needed, discussions on the reasoning could be held, but in private and not communicated to the field in the middle of everything. And if a decision would then be made to turn things around and move to another direction, an official decision should be communicated and everyone should stand behind it. The experts' notions about the importance of gaining support from management were also in line with earlier suggestions on the critical role of managers, with authority over issues and resources, in project success (Lanning 2001, 24–36).

Finally, in connection with management issues regarding change implementation, and the ways to handle resistance, in accordance with earlier notions about individuals with a strong tendency to resist change in general, the interviewees also agreed that in many changes, there are still people who, no matter what the change at hand is about, despite all discussions, training and briefing sessions, choose to resist it in principle, and simply do not adopt the new ways of working. One respondent illustrated the situation by discussing a 20/80 success ratio, likely to occur with almost any project, meaning that 80 per cent of the intended recipients adapt to the new situation rather smoothly, while with the remaining 20, 80 per cent of the time and efforts are spent on. It was noted that in such cases, it is a managerial issue to decide how much diversion is to be tolerated, and further, that the worst cases of individual resistance ought to be handled on a managerial level, as there are rules that need to be followed in all work life. Related to that notion, one respondent observed that in countries with a management culture with power and authority, the best results are often reached.

However, it was also suggested that when facing resistance, a change implementer should assess the convenience of putting in the effort of aiming at full change already at the beginning, as sometimes, by setting the goal at getting as many people on board voluntarily as possible, one does not have to demand instant adoption from everyone. In other words:

> *One should never have to bang their head against the wall.*

Furthermore, even with changes aimed at everyone, a respondent mentioned picking certain groups of which the members might not necessarily be forced to change, including for instance people with only a little time away from reaching retirement. However,

it was also noted that clearly justified and accepted reasons must be behind such decisions. Correspondingly, other respondents suggested that with people who truly and strongly state that they will not adopt the change, one should let them have their way, instead of pushing and forcing them, since if one has facts supporting the decision to change and an approved business case for it showing that it is beneficial for the organisation:

> *…they will follow, it will just take some time.*

Furthermore, supporting such notions, it was suggested that change implementers should aim at preventing the opposers from feeling like they need to go on gathering their own troops. Because as noted, adopting a change may at least at first seem rather tough, communication in organisations can flow in many directions and through many parties, and people tend to seek for acceptance for their own ways of thinking, if someone is forced to change, there is a possibility of them starting to sell and spread a negative opinion inside the organisation through getting others with undecided minds on board, too. Finally, as a summary a respondent illustrated:

> *…in a big organisation, you a pretty much forced to think: 'you don't have to win all the battles, just win the war'.*

In relation with such remarks from the interviewees, similar suggestions can also be found from earlier writings, among which the level of freedom individuals experience (Morgan 2001; Reunis et al. 2005, 216), and allowing time for adoption with setting and reaching smaller goals (Storey 1992, 123; Jobber 1995, 614; Kim & Mauborgne 2003, 68; Chew & Choo 2008, 115) have been mentioned.

Measuring and assessing progress: When discussing change implementation as a process and its key stages and ways of supporting it, all interviewees underlined the importance of measuring, also emphasised by past studies and writings (see, for example Beer et al. 1990, 164; Gurnani 1999, 213–214 ; Lanning 2001, 24–36; Angdal et al. 2005, 52–53; Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 20). It was further underlined that one should measure everything, including gathering so-called mere nice to know information, that can be measured in order to see whether the goals set for the change have been reached and if the change has resulted in benefits or not. Openly taking measures and doing follow-ups was also considered a way of showing to a larger audience that what you do has some meaning, and that the change has started to move on.

As examples of measures, the interviewees mentioned presenting proof about financial and other benefits to the management, already before the intended change, in order to get their support, which, as noted earlier, was considered crucial to the success of implementing changes. Other examples of things to measure throughout a change process included behaviour, amounts of travel and amounts of money spent, as well as communication efficacy, which will be discussed later.

Specifically regarding the example of introducing a new online tool, as one respondent put it, in summary, with a behavioural change, measurements could be used to follow if any change has actually happened, or if people have stuck to their routines. The respondents suggested setting goals and doing follow-ups between usage rates of the new tool and the traditional channels, and on destinations or routes on which the most self-bookings get made. In addition to measuring aspects that were referred to as the cold facts, conducting surveys on attitudes was also suggested. Moreover, taking measures and following both facts and opinions was also considered important due to, as one respondent illustrated, one can't trust words alone, and a message simply saying 'all is well' might mean different things in different countries.

In another personal example, like in many other projects, at first, with quite significant changes in the way of working, some hiccups were experienced, and then, after a while things started to move forward as people gave it some more thought and were able to proceed with the change. According to the expert who shared the experience, what had been interesting to notice was that even a couple of years after the change, people might come to the travel manager stating that the change in the credit card policy resulted in this and that, and in such situations, one must have the data to show that follow-ups have been conducted and things have moved towards the better, not the worse. So, one should always ensure measurability, and sometimes there is a need to measure things for a long time. However, at the same time, as another respondent noted, it needs to be acknowledged that mistakes can still happen, and will certainly happen, as in a big organisation, it is impossible to follow everything.

Finally, it might be worth highlighting that throughout the discussion on implementing change successfully, supporting the recipients with adoption, and understanding and overcoming possible resistance, thus in summary and in the framework of this study, internally marketing a change, all interviewees emphasised communication, perhaps not unsurprisingly, given that it has been widely accentuated by many earlier authors', and therefore already from the planning phase considered a key element in this study. In the interviews, communication was further specifically underlined as a key tool for marketing change, and a respondent noted that among the many issues one needs to consider when implementing travel management changes, what never ends is communication. As a conclusion, when asked about any additional things worth mentioning when it comes to supporting change implementation, another respondent listed three things:

communication, communication and communication.

In line with such remarks, also the survey respondents gave the example of information and communication regarding the change an average importance level of 4,4, which suggests that it was considered between important and very important. The responses gathered from all but 1 respondent are further illustrated in Figure 15.

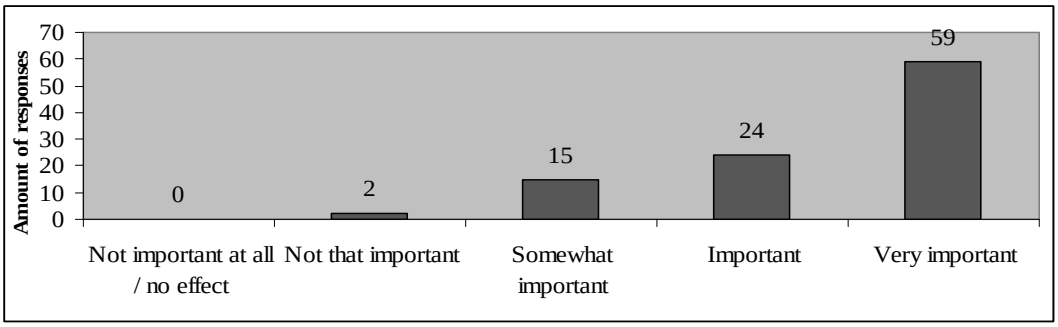

Figure 15 The perceived importance levels of information and communication regarding the change when supporting its implementation (N=100)

In addition to the average score, also the almost total lack of responses stating no effect or not that important, and the majority very important, further suggest that among the survey respondents, a relatively high level of perceived importance was given to communication.

In the following chapter, due to its importance stated by many authors whose views and research results have been used as the basis of this study, as well as both the travel management experts and the survey respondents, communication as a tool for supporting change is discussed more thoroughly on its own.

4.5 Employing communication to facilitate change

When discussing communication with the travel management experts, it was also suggested that marketing related to a change implementation means communication through all possible channels and sources, and gaining the commitment of key people, who then take part in communicating the change further. It was also emphasised that communication tools should be used for justifying the change with the goal of making it easier for the recipients to understand.

Furthermore, the interviewees underlined the planning aspect in change implementation in relation to communication, and it was mentioned that all major communication initiatives are listed in corporate-wide yearly action plans, and one should perhaps even more thoroughly make plans for who communicates what and when. Similarly, a respondent suggested that among the first tasks is drafting a communication plan with dates and types of communication, ranging from written and oral communication to other types of influencing people.

In addition, cooperation with the organisation's communication specialists when implementing a travel management related change was also considered worthwhile, for valuable assistance with channel decisions, timing, message formatting and proof-

reading, and in the example of big organisations, for communicating with multi-cultural audiences. Its importance was emphasised by the notion that as communication can have a huge influence in organisational issues, it is a subject often under discussion, since people who are not experts of communication need to take care of communicative tasks all the time in addition to their regular jobs, and thus, in organisations where change implementers don't have the possibility of receiving assistance from a separate communications department, the level of their own communication skills can have significant impact on the process.

4.5.1 Laying the basis for effective communication

As ways for achieving the goals set for communication, some interviewees suggested that change implementers should thoroughly communicate and discuss change issues with the recipients, including clearly explaining what is sought after and why, and what things will change, to all parties involved; to the whole organisation, if necessary. They further mentioned that in their organisation, such conduct is based on a very open communication policy and fuelled by a wish to know about things expressed by the employees. In summary, as a respondent put it:

> *Communication comes first. When implementing travel management changes people need to know why something is done and what it means for them personally, and how it will benefit them. Once that is taken care of, things should start moving forward.*

In line with such remarks, several earlier authors have also underline the importance of communicating well and often, thus providing the recipients detailed and accurate information during change (Gilmore 2000, 79; Paton & McCalman 2000, 12; Senior 2002, 211; Cameron & Green 2004; Allen et al. 2007, 196; Burke 2008, 25; Helms Mills et al. 2009, 133 Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 22).

In addition, the interviewees suggested that also with regards to communication, change implementers should pay attention to the target groups of the change. Bearing in mind the goals sought with communication, it was suggested that change implementers should get familiar with the target group, especially the parties identified as the key people regarding a certain change, and aim at understanding what the change means to them in practice personally, and even if not quite personally, at least what it means in an individual's immediate surroundings. Based on that, it was suggested that one should try to understand what the groups wish to hear, and what use the communication will be to them. Very strongly in line with such remarks, several other authors have also recommended taking into account different stakeholder groups and adjusting communication accordingly for interactions with each one in order to further support the change

(Jobber 1995, 607, 612; Stauss & Hoffmann 2000, 143; Varey 2002, 84; Ahmed & Rafiq 2003; Cameron & Green 2004; Dawson 2004, 70; Green 2007, 184; Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2007, 12).

Thus, it was noted that one should take many approaches when implementing change, to match different needs, which might often include informing people about things from quite a practical point-of-view, as the big general picture might not always be what people truly want to hear about, even though it is probably good to communicate that, too. In addition, some respondents also noted that even though it might be impossible to deliver messages personally to all employees, one should support people with overcoming situations where they feel helpless by showing them that if needed, even personal assistance can be made available.

Based on such notions, also the survey respondents were also asked to share their views regarding the contents of communication in a change process. When asked about receiving information about the change's effect on one's own everyday work, all but 1 respondent stated an opinion, and the average degree of importance was 3,98, while for such information regarding the whole organisation, all respondents provided an answer, with the average level of perceived importance of 3,42. Thus, it would appear that receiving information about the change's effects was considered more than somewhat important regarding both issues, and further, the respondents seemed more interested in hearing about its effects on their own everyday work than on the whole organisation. The distribution of opinions is further illustrated in Figure 16.

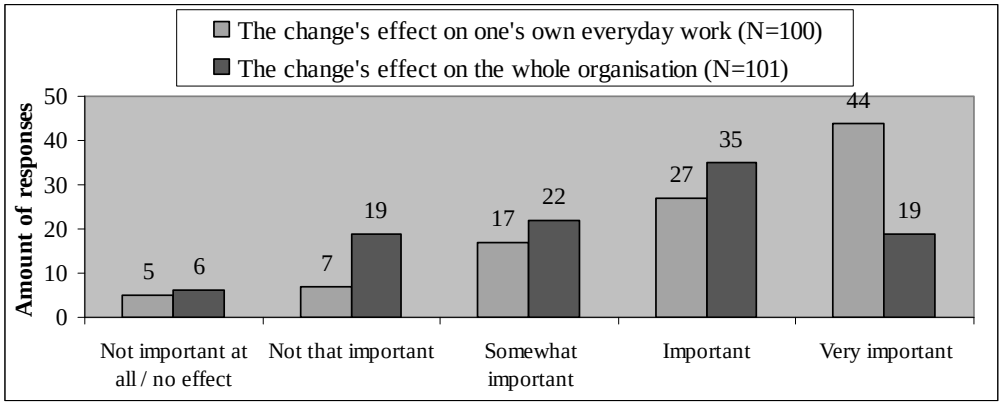

Figure 16 The perceived importance level of receiving information about the change's effect on one's own everyday work and on the whole organisation

In accordance with the suggestions made based on the average scores for perceived importance, by looking at the bars one can observe that receiving information about the change's effect from a more practical point-of-view was considered very important by almost half the respondents, while about a quarter of them indicated that information

regarding the whole organisation would not be that important. Some respondents also chose the alternative of designating no importance at all to communication on the change's effect on either of the examples.

In the meantime, regarding travel management related changes especially, communication was also considered a good tool for helping the recipients of change understand and accept that in the field, there are changes on which none of the organisation's members can have an influence on, the examples of which have been discussed earlier.

4.5.2 Designing the means for communication

After discussing the importance of communication and the goals set for it when implementing travel management changes, the discussion moved on to the means and channels, which have been noted to be numerous (see, for example Kotter 1996, 10; Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 196; Hayes 2007, 180; Welch & Jackson 2007, 178).

Before discussing examples of communication channels, as an overall notion regarding the construction of messages that are to be sent to the recipients of change, it was suggested that in addition to carefully designing what to communicate and when, one should also pay attention to the choices of language and wording, themes also considered important by earlier authors (Varey & Lewis 2000, 300; Ahmed & Rafiq 2003; Dawson 2004, 71; Helms Mills et al. 2009, 133). As it has been noted, the party making the decisions may sometimes be rather far from the grassroots level, and when a travel management professional communicates using certain field specific terms and perhaps mistakenly considering certain things self-evident, misunderstandings might occur. It was suggested that travel managers, when introducing a new way of working, should bear in mind that possible user instructions might be intended for specialists of the field, and thus need some adjustments before being introduced to the actual end-user recipients.

When it comes to examples of communication channels used to distribute travel management related change messages, most respondents mentioned holding informative staff meetings and briefing sessions. It was proposed that by inviting employees to participate in such meetings, the change implementers have a chance to thoroughly explain the reasons for an upcoming change and the process as a whole, and thus give people time to prepare for it. One respondent noted that based on their experience, with briefing sessions arranged for all parties involved, the amount of questions about unclear issues later was smaller, while another respondent emphasised the importance of timing, as such events can't be held either too early or too late.

In addition, it was suggested that such meetings could be held in cooperation with outside stakeholders participating in the change, such as agency representatives, who

may have a key role in the change and at the same time, represent the kinds of travel management functions that the employees see in practice. A respondent illustrated an example, where when introducing a new tool, a representative of the supplier was invited to staff training sessions, based on a wish to have a neutral party to give instructions. In addition to a specialist's expertise of a certain field, it was considered important to have someone from the outside explaining to employees who might express complaints about the tool or system, that due to for instance technical limitations, nothing can be done about such aspects. Then, hopefully, the organisation or its travel management function wouldn't mistakenly get blamed by the employees for just having decided to come up with yet another change. Such remarks could be regarded somewhat connected to the observations made on also communicating potentially negative information (Peus et al. 2009, 166, 167, 170).

Meanwhile, another respondent noted that even though communication and marketing regarding a change could comprise of organising different types of meetings, workshops or kick-off events, since travel management is a support function, the attendance rate in such events has been rather low. According to them, something fun can be organised every once in a while, but the content need to be very appealing before people take the time off from their work and come listen to a support function. That being said, it was still suggested that one should remain open to possibilities:

…all means are allowed and one should try everything.

Moving on, it was also mentioned by all interviewees that it is nowadays a very common to use electronic channels for communication. As one respondent noted:

I do not have much faith in circulating paper memos.

As for the main tools of electronic communication, all respondents emphasised using the organisation's intranet site. It was said to play a very big role, to have large amounts of communication flow through it, and have all news posted on it. The respondents also noted that the intranet is promoted to the employees as a main source of information regarding travel management issues, and therefore it is also important to keep the site updated and organised. One respondent also mentioned that while e-mails are tried to be kept at a minimum as communication tools for larger audiences, based on experience they do not work as well as postings on the intranet, they could be used to invite people to go have a look at the updated contents of the intranet. Similarly, it was proposed that the goal of all communication regarding a change would be to direct people to the intranet. In addition to posting messages on the intranet, online discussion forums were mentioned as a way of giving employees the possibility for giving and sharing comments and asking questions, among other topics, all travel management issues. Some respondents also proposed building a FAQ site regarding any changes, or inviting travellers to participate in creating the communication content, through for in-

stance a blog, in hopes of such channels being considered a positive thing to activate and encourage the employees.

However, some challenges regarding the use of electronic communication were also noted. As many functions nowadays rely on the organisation's intranet as a main channel for communication, it is often filled with information, and thus some messages might pass the employees unnoticed, especially if they aren't considered relevant or current at the moment of publication. Also, a challenge also mentioned with using the intranet was that the responsibility of getting the message through is left with the receiver, and once a message has been posted, it is difficult to know whether anyone has actually read it. Furthermore, the contents of the intranet are often constantly created by different parties in the organisation, of which only few are communication experts, which might also result in challenges. In the meantime, regarding the usage of online discussion forums, a respondent noted that challenges might arise from employees using the forum conversations as official instructions, instead of looking for information about for instance policies from the correct place on the intranet. It was therefore again emphasised how one should have all official information in one place, and then use other means to direct everyone to the same source.

In addition to electronic communication, as examples of communication channels, different types of personnel magazines were mentioned, in which it was suggested one could give practical examples of successful change implementations, to make things more concrete for people. Thus, with such examples from practice, the change would not only be text written on the intranet, but people would be able to see it has actually gotten implemented all the way until its far set goals.

Founded on such remarks, questions about communicating examples of successfully implementing change were included in the survey, too. The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with two statements, one regarding the acknowledging of their own success publicly in the organisation, and the other about receiving information about others' success. A relatively notable amount of respondents stating no opinion was encountered with these, and even though the number of such responses was still relatively low, 6 for public recognition about one's own success, and 5 for information about the success of others, it might indicate that public celebrations for success were not that much of interest to the respondents, or that they were not that familiar with such examples of supporting change. Based on the responses that had indicated some level of agreement, averages of 2,78 and 3,33 were calculated, suggesting that the respondents were somewhat in disagreement with the statement about public recognitions of their own success encouraging them, and slightly interested in hearing about examples of others' success. Figure 17 further illustrates how the opinions were divided.

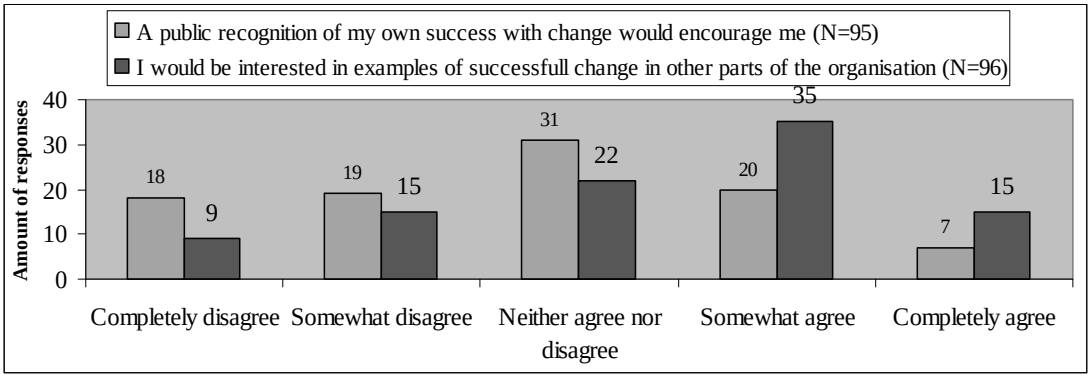

Figure 17 Levels of agreement regarding the acknowledging of one's own success publicly in the organisation and about receiving information about others' success

In line with earlier notions, what one can see from the figure is that clearly more respondents were more interested in receiving information about the success of others than having their own success communicated in the organisation. In the meantime, also worth mentioning might be the observation that overall, the respondents' opinions were rather evenly distributed, and over a quarter of responses regarding each of the questions indicated one of the extreme levels of agreement or disagreement. Based on such remarks, the topic of publicly communicating examples of successful change implementation might be worth further examination when it comes to its possibilities with supporting change, even though based on average scores alone it might not seem as important as some other examples.

Moving on in the discussion on communication channels, given that, as has been suggested earlier, identifying the key parties in a certain change is an important task for a change implementer, when it came to communication, the respondents noted that deciding upon who in the organisation will be asked to carry through the change messages, is also an important channel choice. With travel management changes, managers and travel assistants were considered key parties. Also, when it comes to the key parties with a lot of influence as communication channels, it was considered crucial to ensure that they are strongly involved in the change and support it, have understood its reasons and goals well enough and know how to use the new tool, in order for them to be able to support others with it. Or, as summarised in other words:

> *If I try to carry through a change, everything might get crumbled on the next step if the parties people turn to when questioning the justifications for the change do not have the same answers stating that this has now been decided and that is the end of it.*

As for managers as a communication channel, it was noted that they often are opinion leaders with much personal influence in the organisation, and a change should first

be communicated to management, so that they can then carry it through in their own organisations.

In addition to management, it was suggested that travel assistants should be invited to take part in communicating the change, also referred to as selling it. Some respondents noted that based on their experience, communication through travel assistants tends to flow more smoothly, as they are the parties to whom employees are naturally used to turning to for advice regarding travel issues. Thus, as a respondent summarised, when in contact with travel assistants, the employees are already thinking about travel issues, and information about future changes could be given to them in such situations.

Also, a respondent noted that when working in a big organisation in an international environment, changes are implemented through many levels of implementers, mainly with a travel management background, and travel management representatives in each country take care of communication, as they know what will work best locally, to help people understand what a global news posting actually means for and expects from them. What's more, they also noted that in some countries it matters very much who the person is who sends the change message forward. Sometimes it is very important that it is the country organisation's managing director who gives the directive, while in other organisations any assistant can take the message all the way to the level of a single traveller and make sure that the new way of working gets implemented.

To summarise on the travel management experts' experience, perceptions and suggestions regarding the channels through which to communicate when aiming to support a change initiative, one could claim that they were related and somewhat in accordance with, for instance and in addition to many other remarks, the topics of growing electronic communication use and its tools and possible challenges (Varey & Lewis 2000, 295; Hultman & Axelsson 2005, 176; O'Kane et al. 2004, 94; Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 17, 19), as well as the notions about also considering the key people in an organisation and regarding a certain change, through which it might be worthwhile to send messages (Bobo 2000, 18; Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 35; Lings & Greenley 2005; Allen et al. 2007, 198; Yates 2008, 21; Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 10; Peus et al. 2009, 167).

The discussion on communication channels was also expanded to include insights from the survey respondents, who were asked about the channels through which they usually received information, and the channels through which they wished to receive information. Based on earlier studies and writings and on the field-specific notions gathered in the interviews, as examples for channels the intranet, travel assistants, one's own manager and colleagues were presented to the employees to choose from. Even though an opportunity for open suggestions might have provided broader insights, the four fixed alternatives were chosen based on a wish to only include existing and available channels in the discussion as a basis for future implementation. The respondents

were given the freedom to tick as many alternatives as was applicable, but yet again due to the format of the questionnaire, all were forced to choose at least one channel. Such a limitation results in that if among the respondents there were people who neither received nor wished to receive any information through any of the mentioned channels, their answers are among the ones further illustrated in Figure 18.

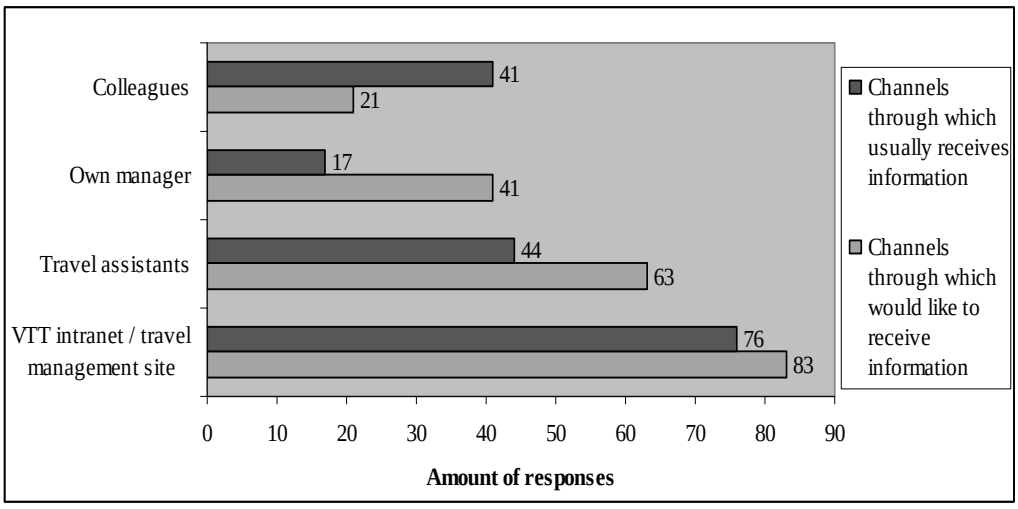

Figure 18 The channels through which one usually receives and would like to receive information about travel management related changes (N=101)

Overall, what the bars instantly communicate is that over three quarters of the respondents stated that they received information through the intranet, which was also promoted as the first choice of means by the travel management experts. The second most popular present channels for communication were travel assistants and colleagues, with a little less than half of the respondents choosing the alternatives. The smallest amount of respondents ticked their own manager as a channel for receiving information on travel management changes. As for the most preferred choice of channel for receiving travel management related information, the intranet was again mentioned by a grand majority, also supporting the interviewees' notions about concentrating information on the intranet. Regarding the popularity of other alternatives, more differences were found. Travel assistants were mentioned by more than half of the respondents as a channel through which they would like to receive information, which was more responses that what the channel had received when asking about present channels. The biggest difference between the amount of respondents who currently received information through a channel and who wished to receive information through it was found when it came to the respondents' own managers. A remarkably larger number of employees stated a wish to receive information from their own managers than ticked them as a present channel. Meanwhile, almost the opposite was encountered with regards to colleagues, as notably fewer respondents indicated a wish to receive information from

colleagues than ticked them as a present channel. To conclude, one might suggest that the amounts of employees currently receiving and wishing to receive information about the change also through other channels than the intranet alone, are perhaps somewhat in accordance with earlier remarks about the need for personal contacts in the world of high tech (Gummesson 2000, 37–38), even though the exact way communication with managers should take place was not discussed.

Furthermore, even though when it came to the preferred ways for conveying travel management related change messages, colleagues were ticked by the smallest amount of employees, they were still mentioned by almost half the respondents as an existing channel, which suggests some communication about change taking place between colleagues among the respondents. Regarding colleagues as a communication channel, some earlier observations have been made on acknowledging also the informal networks at work, and how, in addition to useful information regarding day-today issues surrounding the change, communication between employees might focus on airing views and sharing the burden of changes (Barnes 2000, 206, 208; Gilmore 2000, 81; Lewis et al. 2006, 123; Allen et al. 2007, 197, 198).

Based on such notions, a question was also included in the survey regarding the sharing of change-related experiences and perceptions with others. All but 1 respondent indicated an opinion, and the average level of importance was 3,27, suggesting that it was considered of slightly more than somewhat importance. The amounts of responses per the perceived level of importance are presented in Figure 19.

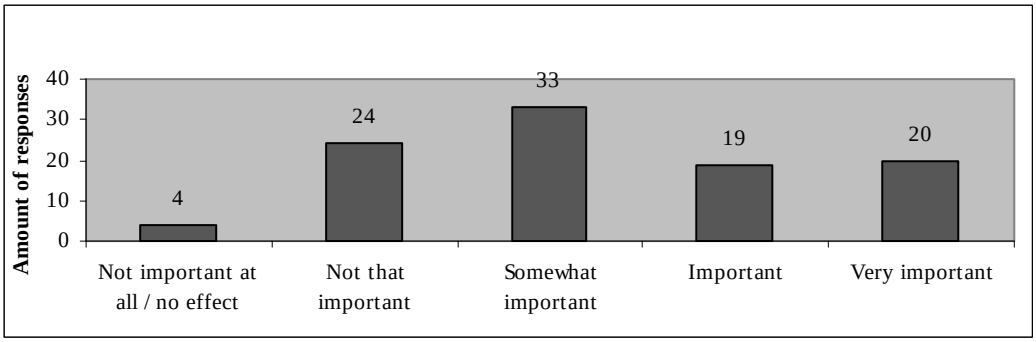

Figure 19 The perceived importance levels of sharing experiences and perceptions with others when supporting change implementation (N=100)

As the average importance score suggests, most respondents considered sharing change-related experiences and perceptions with others somewhat important. Apart from a remarkably smaller than average amount for the alternative of no effect, the responses were rather evenly distributed among the different levels of even slight importance, with 39 statements indicating that it was perceived either important or very important, and at the same time, about a quarter of the respondents considering it not that

important. Even though no clear majorities could be found for the basis of further discussion, it might be worth noting that almost three quarters of the respondents thought that sharing change-related issues with others was at least somewhat important when supporting change implementation.

Finally, the amount of communication was also discussed, and in the interviews, the travel management experts agreed that the more information and the larger the variety the better, and that one should employ all the channels and tools one can find, which was in accordance with some earlier observations (Cameron & Green 2004; Watson Wyatt Worldwide 2009, 22). Even though it was also noted that one should pay careful attention when choosing the channels for communication, it was suggested to rather choose too many than too few, as it may sometimes be difficult to estimate beforehand the ways people look for and find information. Meanwhile, it was also mentioned that it may sometimes be frustrating how much time one has to use to make sure people get enough information, and one should always remember that people might complain about not having received enough information, even though in many cases they have not been willing to take enough efforts to receive it, which might for instance result from that when resisting, the ability to receive information might not be at its best.

Using many channels was also supported by the notion that when messages flow from many directions and through many groups, there is a higher possibility of it reaching all the intended recipients. It was noted that in big organisations, a single message only reaches a certain fracture of the intended target group at one time, and the chain of communication might break at some point, if the parties who were thought to send the message forward don't do that, and in such cases, the final end users might be left in the dark. Also, according to responses, one should note that as travel management is a support function about which people might be more or less interested at a given moment, and as people need to process huge amounts of information daily, sometimes information might still just fail to reach its intended recipients.

However, it was also noted that it is possible for there sometimes being too much communication. A respondent mentioned that while communication should always be open, one should pay attention to timing and aim at providing the right information to the right target audiences at the right time, and, for example, it makes no sense to address the target audience as a whole during the pilot stage, as that would be too early. Similarly, according to another respondent, there is no need in communicating for example small bugs in the system or the project, if a resolution has been found and is likely to soon remove the problem, but instead, one should focus on the positive aspects and look for success stories about people or groups who have achieved good outcomes from successfully implementing the change. Moreover, it was also emphasised that even when employing many ways of communication, the actual sources of information, such as intranet postings, should be kept at a minimum, because more sources for the change

information also lead to more work and a higher possibility of misunderstandings when aiming to have all sources kept up to date with the same information.

Many of the points made by the interviewees have also been discussed in past studies and writings, for instance the importance of making sure any communication efforts truly are carried through until the end-recipients (see, for example Hargie & Tourish 2004, 235)., and also, the notions about a possibility of there sometimes being too much communication (Oreg 2006, 94; Davis 2009, 20), and that also the phases of implementation have an effect on the advisable amount of communication (Burke 2008, 25).

A question regarding the amount of communication received about travel management related changes was also posed to the survey respondents, with the alternatives of stating that the amount was perceived too small, adequate, or too big. Figure 20 illustrates the amounts of responses received for each alternative.

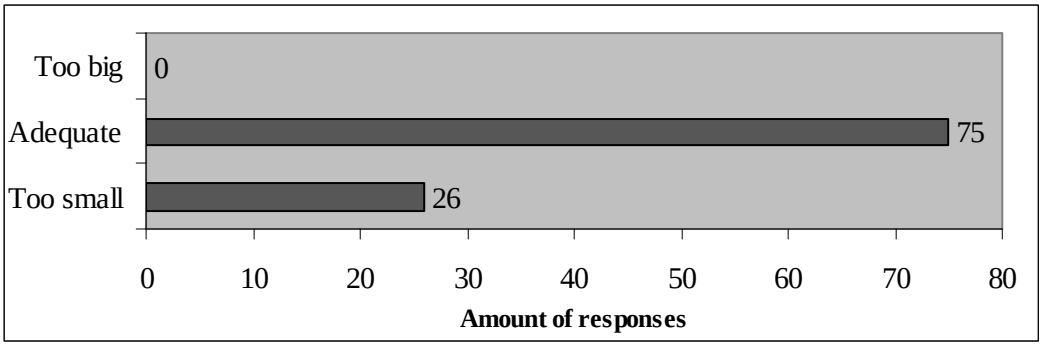

Figure 20 The perceived amount of communication received about travel management related changes (N=101)

What one can instantly notice from looking at the presentation is that clearly a large majority of the respondents considered the current amount of communication regarding travel management changes adequate. Not a single respondent thought the amount was too big, and about a quarter considered it too small. Overall, one could suggest that the current amount of communication would appear rather satisfactory, while still having some room for improvements and expansions.

4.5.3 Inviting change recipients to participate in communication

Given that several authors have emphasised the importance of communication being two-way, dialogue, listening as well as informing (Appelbaum & Callagher 2000, 50–51; Hogg & Carter 2000, 112; Sliburyte 2004, 192; Russ 2008, 204), participatory communication was also discussed with the travel management experts. In line with earlier notions, the interviewees again underlined the importance of participation, in

addition to having mentioned it among the ways to encourage and support people with adopting the change, as well as overcoming resistance.

In the final part regarding communication the interviewees were then asked about two-way channels and gathering and welcoming participation and feedback from the change recipients. All respondents considered them important and mentioned that in their organisations, people give feedback quite eagerly and are encouraged to share their thoughts, during all the stages of change processes as well as during daily work. Also, it was noted once again that overcoming resistance starts by allowing an upstream flow of feedback and messages and listening to the recipients of change. Moreover, it might also be worth mentioning that all the interviewees emphasised the importance of taking measurements throughout change processes, and collecting and analysing feedback from the recipients can be considered a way for that, too. A respondent further observed that the information from the field should never be overlooked, as the people giving the feedback are the ones to whom the work in the travel management function is done; the actual travellers and businesses. However, also regarding feedback and upstream communication, a respondent noted that once the change process has moved to the stage of informing people about a future change, possibilities for questioning the decision to change should be behind; such discussion should take place during earlier stages of project planning.

As has already been mentioned, the survey respondents indicated a level of at least somewhat importance to the possibility to get one's voice heard and participate in the planning of the change. With regards to communication and feedback, they were further invited to indicate their level of agreement with the statements that a possibility for giving feedback is an important communication channel, and that one enjoys giving constructive feedback. Of the 101 respondents, 3 had no opinion about the importance of feedback as a communication channel, and the average agreement level was counted as 4,32, which suggests more than somewhat agreement with the statement. As for enjoying giving constructive feedback, 2 respondents had no opinion, and the average level of agreement was 4,05, which also suggests a somewhat or stronger agreement. Figure 21 further demonstrates how the responses were distributed.

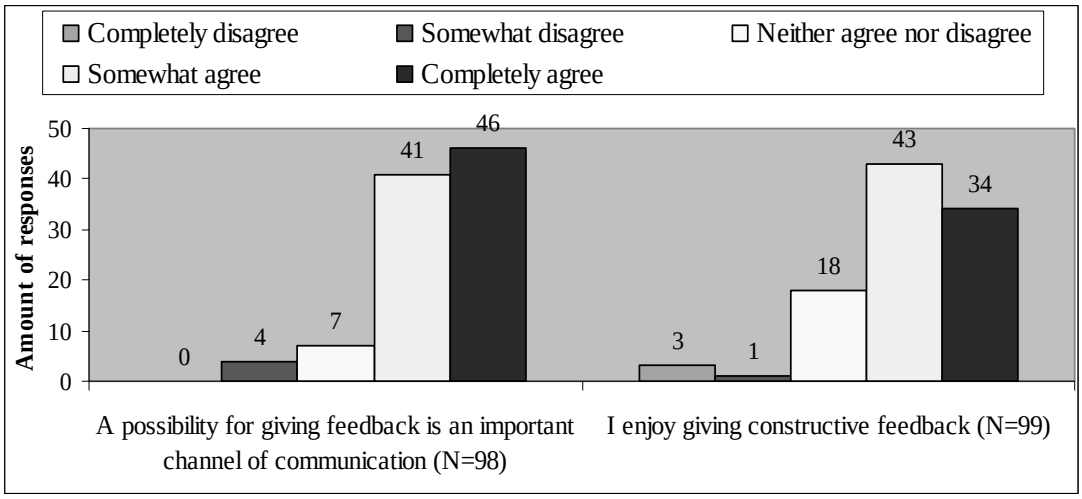

Figure 22 The levels of agreement with statements regarding giving feedback as a channel of communication

It would rather clearly appear that a remarkable majority of the respondents either somewhat or completely agreed with both statements, even more with feedback being an important channel, with the majority of responses at the extreme level of agreement. The respondents were slightly less in agreement with enjoying giving constructive feedback, with 18 neutrals and 4 respondents either somewhat or completely disagreeing with the statement. However, overall, most of the survey respondents would consider feedback an important communication channel and enjoy giving constructive feedback.

Furthermore, in the interviews, it was also suggested that even though in change processes, feedback tends to flow in rather naturally all the time, in addition to keeping channels open for two-way communication, feedback should also be deliberately and regularly gathered, and employees should be kept aware about that regular follow-ups are conducted, showing that the change implementers are interested in their opinions. As for ways of receiving and collecting bottom-up communication and feedback from the field, a respondent stated that it is both very interesting and very time-consuming, as people use all possible channels to share their views about travel management issues. In relation to that notion, to summarise the insights gathered in the interviews regarding examples of feedback channels, one could suggest that all means used to communicate change message forward could also be employed in sending messages up the stream, either by deliberately collecting feedback, or by simply keeping the channels open both ways. When it comes to specific examples, the respondents considered personally turning to the organisation's travel management representatives, both managers and assistants, an important channel for two-way communication, and it was also mentioned that through electronic communication, for instance online discussion forums, insights from the change recipients could be gathered. Most frequently, however, the respondents mentioned conducting regular, usually yearly, customer satisfaction surveys regarding

travel management in general, as well as using pilot groups, target group surveys and briefing sessions for committing people and inviting them to share their comments regarding a certain change on different stages of the process.

The interviewees' responses regarding feedback and its channels can be considered to be in accordance with earlier notions about the importance of both having channels for two-way communication available and especially, collecting deliberate feedback, of which the most often mentioned channel was conducting surveys, and example content discussed related to identifying and assessing the attitudes, morale and needs of employees (Schein 1999, 131; Paton & McCalman 2000, 163, 173; Stauss & Hoffmann 2000, 149; Senior 2002, 326; Russ 2008, 205; Yates 2008, 19; Mamantov 2009, 34).

Based on such notions, regarding the collection of deliberate feedback, in addition to building the channels for it, the interviewees were also asked to share suggestions on what change implementers might wish to ask from the respondents regarding communication in a survey, as one was planned to be conducted as the second stage of research after the interviews. First, it might be worth mentioning, as a respondent noted, that even though some questions in a change survey might be related to communication issues, communication just as communication is not often measured or evaluated in travel management surveys, as that is something that falls under the responsibility of the communication department.

That being said, regarding communication in a change process, as for questions to pose after the implementation, respondents suggested asking the change recipients how they felt about the amount, availability and fluency of communication, information, assistance and good service. Also, it was proposed that one could ask people whether they have seen, read or heard a certain message or not, and possibly, why or why not. Similarly, it was suggested that one could aim at measuring the success of online communication via the intranet by counting clicks on links, for instance. However, it was also noted that even when counting clicks or visits to a certain site, it is still impossible to know whether a person has read the whole message, or only parts of it. When it comes to taking measurements regarding communication, the interviewees also noted that facts can of course be collected on the type and amount of communication sent, and the results can then be compared with whether the recipients consider they have received enough information or not.

As for asking communication related questions before implementing a change, it was suggested that the future change recipients could be asked about what they consider the best ways for getting information about certain issues, and through what channels they would like to get the messages. However, it was also mentioned that when asking people to tell how they would like to be communicated with, there is a risk of hearing about wishes that cannot be fulfilled.

For instance, a respondent illustrated that if given a free choice, most people would probably request for the information to be personally delivered to them, but that is not possible. Therefore, it was proposed that when asking about the desired channels of communication, one should offer the ones truly in use as alternatives.

In this study, as the interviews with travel management experts were also used to gain suggestions about the contents of the later electronic survey, all opinions were taken into consideration, and some questions in the actual survey were designed based on the interviewees' insights.

Ultimately, the interviewees were invited to share their comments on the next steps to take after collecting or receiving feedback from the change recipients, and in accordance with several earlier remarks (see, for example Jobber 1995, 607; Morgan 2001; Senior 2002, 326; Yates 2008, 20), all respondents agreed that feedback should not just be gathered and then forgotten. Also the survey respondents' opinions were gathered, and they, too, indicated agreement with that all feedback should be handled openly, with an average level of agreement at 4,4, and one respondent stating no opinion. The survey responses to the question are further pictured in figure 23.

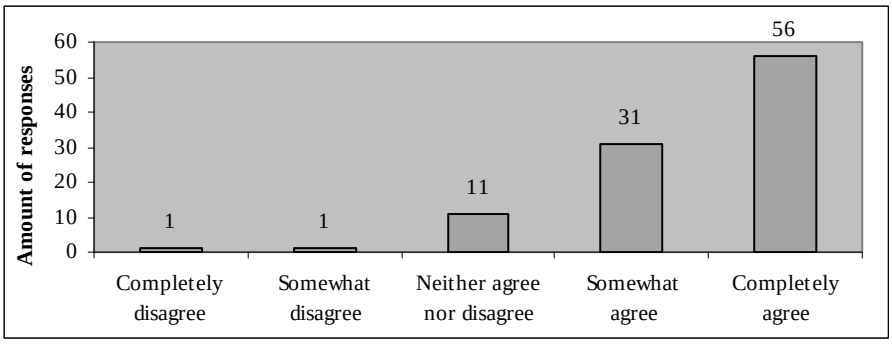

Figure 23 Levels of agreement with the statement "All the feedback gathered should be handled openly" (N=100)

Given that the average score on opinions indicated at least somewhat agreement, it is perhaps not surprising to notice that over a majority of the survey respondents stated to completely agree with the statement. Only 11 respondents had a neutral side, and in total 2 indicated somewhat or complete disagreement. Thus, in summary, the respondents would seem to hold handling all feedback openly important.

As for ways of handling and reacting to feedback, in the interviews it was noted that they vary, but of course one should respond to complaints and welcome any suggestions for improvement, and tackle all alarming comments more thoroughly. It was also suggested that the implementers of change could already from the beginning of the process keep track of the questions asked and build the recipients a FAQ to revert to.

In addition, it was recommended that after gathering the feedback, it should get analysed, and everyone should be informed about the results, conclusions made, and any following actions taken. The respondents mentioned presenting survey results in staff meetings, or openly publishing the outcomes of global surveys, and giving people a possibility to explore their own country's results and discuss any critical issues in more detail. So in summary, it was suggested that feedback should also be given to the givers of feedback. But not just as the raw results, but as an overview of what actions have been taken based on the insights gathered from the internal customers.

Ultimately, some challenges, even dangers, were noted to exist, too, as when people share their thoughts and desires and then give suggestions that are impossible to carry through, it might result in problems, disappointment, for instance. Cultural differences were noted to have an influence, too, as in some cultures giving feedback or admitting that something can't be done is not that easy. Still, also in such situations where no actions can be taken to fulfil the suggestions, it was considered important to communicate that as well. A respondent mentioned that in their view, it is art on its own trying to find ways to serve all parties, and with travel management issues, the emphasis is on the businesses rather than on individual travellers. To summarise, the respondents views were in line with earlier suggestions regarding handling feedback and possible challenges related to it, and overall, in addition to that communication was mentioned as a key tool for supporting change, they also considered focusing on carefully planning not just the change, but also the communication aimed at supporting it, through identifying and taking into account the different recipient groups.

To summarise the part on supporting change implementation as a whole, a presentation of all the perceived importance levels assigned by the survey respondents to each of the examples is given. In figure 24, the statements discussed as example ways of supporting change adoption are listed in the reverse order of the average importance scores assigned based on the respondents' perceptions.

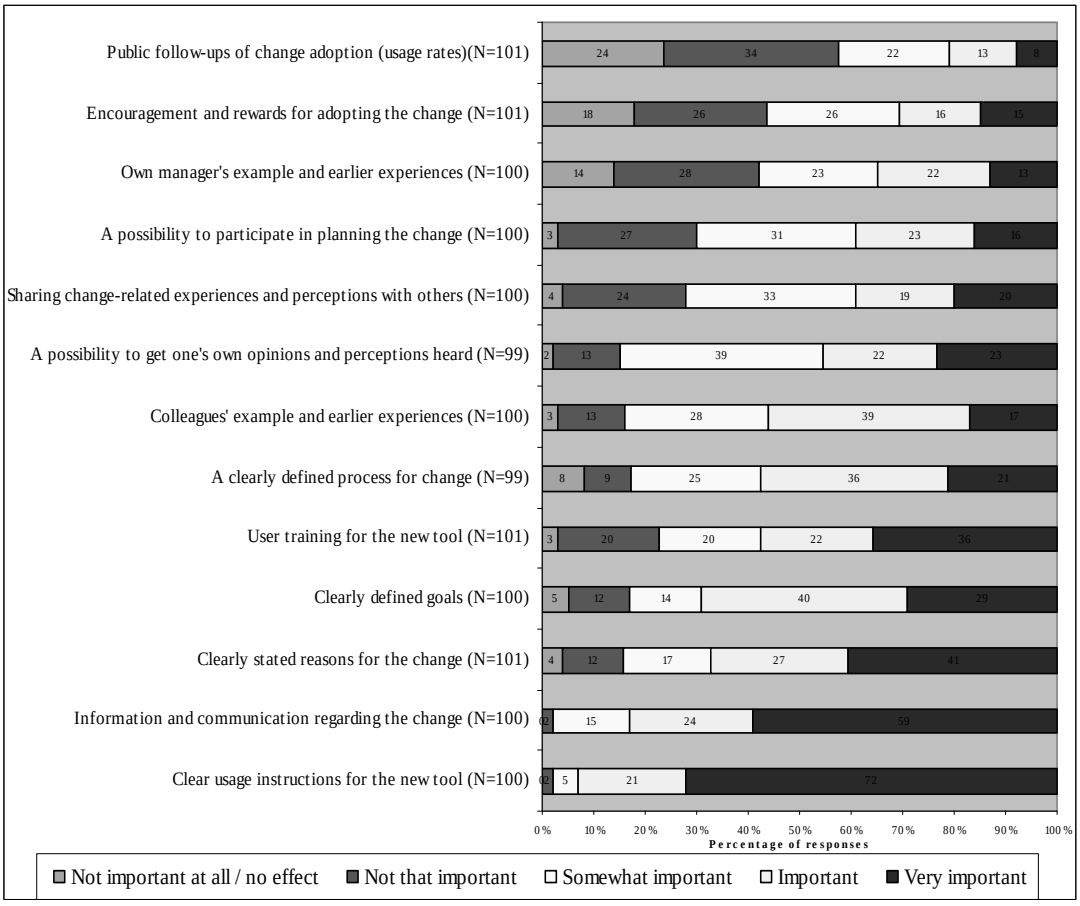

Figure 24 A summary of the perceived importance levels indicated for different ways of supporting change implementation

Based on the perceived levels of importance indicated by the survey respondents, it would appear that clear usage instructions, information and communication and clearly stated reasons for the change were considered by the employees the most important ways of supporting them with change. Meanwhile, public follow-ups of change adoption, encouragement and rewards and one's own manager's example and earlier experiences were regarded the least important. However, what can also be noted based on the illustration is that for over half of the examples, which had been constructed on the basis of earlier observations and the travel managers' suggestions, a majority of respondents indicated an importance level of at least 'important', and all examples but public follow-ups of change adoption were considered at least somewhat important, indicating that the results gathered from both the interviews and the survey were to a notable extent in accordance with earlier suggestions on that it might be worthwhile for change implementers to take into account the elements discussed when planning and supporting change implementation.

5 CONCLUSIONS

In the following, the main findings from the different phases of the research are discussed, followed by the evaluation of the process as a whole. Finally, to bring this study to a closing and to offer ways to continue, some suggestions for future research are proposed.

5.1Discussing the main findings

As the basis for building this study, after getting acquainted with the main themes of interest, the main research problem was formulated as: How could internal marketing as an approach for change implementation be facilitated? It was then divided into three research questions:

What does change implementation in organisations consist of?

What elements does internal marketing involve?

In what ways can change implementation be supported?

When it comes to change implementation in organisations, many insights from earlier studies and writings suggested taking a process point-of-view, and indeed several process model approaches for implementing change can be found both in academic discussions as well as more practical textbooks. Similarly, also the expert interview responses underlined how change implementation can, and even should, be treated as a process and managed as a project with clearly defined stages. As for such stages, despite detail-related variance between earlier models and notions and the interviewees' opinions, all sources appeared to hold it central to clearly define the reasons and goals of a change initiative to all parties involved and conduct thorough planning before embarking on the process of implementation. At the same time, both earlier insights as well as practical notions collected in this study also emphasised that even though planning is crucial, it is equally important to make the plans flexible and adjust them as the change proceeds, since change implementation can to an extent be considered a journey towards the unknown.

Regarding other stages of change implementation, the interview responses together with many notions from earlier authors stressed the importance of gaining the change recipients' commitment in order to reach the final goal of them adopting the intended change, and many suggested setting enough milestones and short-term goals on the way, in order to keep momentum for change alive and give the parties involved – both the implementers and the recipients – possibilities for reaching success while still on the way towards the final goals. When it comes to such milestones, when first discussed more from the implementers' point-of-view, both earlier authors and the interviewed

experts suggested for instance choosing a smaller target group of change recipients to introduce the change to first, with the aim of then inviting them to participate in spreading the change and positive attitudes towards it further in the organisation. Depending on example cases, such groups could for example consist of experts of the intended change, the parties most interested or with the most influence inside the organisation, and among the ways they are referred to as are pilot groups, bellwethers, leading coalitions, or simply supporters. When it comes to the stages more close to the end of the process, concepts such as enforcing the change, anchoring it in the organisation, making it stick, or refreezing, were mentioned especially in earlier studies and writings, and similarly, the interview responses underlined the importance of conducting regular follow ups to monitor success and if necessary take corrective actions throughout the implementation process, since a notable risk of change recipients going back to their old behaviour patterns was brought up by many.

Thus, to summarise the insights gathered regarding the first research question, it could be stated that many sources have suggested treating change as a process, and more recently even as a project to which many project management tools and guidelines apply. At the beginning of such a process, the reasons should be clearly stated and the goals defined, and during it, through setting and reaching smaller milestones and providing support, the commitment of the parties involved sought after. Finally, towards the end of the process and continuously after it, the change should be kept firmly anchored in the organisation. As for field-specific notions regarding the example context of the empirical phase, it was also observed that challenges might arise as travel management is a support function and changes regarding it might not be closely related to the recipients' daily work routines and thus might suffer from a lack of time and attention devoted to them. However, it was also observed that many consider travel a very personal issue, and challenges might also arise when aiming to demonstrate that actually, it is much regulated by a variety of parties.

Meanwhile, as for the second main theme of this study, internal marketing, already when gaining acquaintance with the concept it became somewhat obvious that no clear consensus yet exists regarding definitions or suggestions on how and with what goals marketing could be applied inside organisations. However, many authors suggested that instead of only focusing on enhanced outcomes regarding external customers, internal marketing could also be applied to facilitate internal processes, including change implementation. Some have even argued that change should be marketed, or that a market and demand for it should be created.

As for the tools of internal marketing, a variety of authors have simply recommended turning the traditional marketing methods inwards, including the marketing mix, market segmentation and target marketing. Regarding the application of the marketing mix internally, it has been proposed that among the main skills for execution is persuasion,

which starts from trying to understand the situation from the employee's standpoint. To summarise the insights gathered from earlier authors regarding the traditional 4Ps of marketing internally, the product can be said to comprise of the plan and strategies that are being proposed, together with the values, attitudes and actions that are needed to make an initiative successful, the price is what the internal customers are asked to pay as a result of accepting the plan, place refers to the environmental conditions of the workplace, and promotion to information sharing, as well as recognition and encouragement. However, even though the application of traditional marketing methods internally was supported by many authors, differing opinions were also given, and a relationship view embracing more collaborative approaches was proposed. For instance, it was noted that relationship development has been shown to be the mediating variable between learning activity and knowledge renewal and a pivotal factor in internal marketing theory development, and thus internal marketing could benefit from a relationship-mediated approach.

As for the expert interviews, a somewhat notable difference was found between earlier notions and the interviewees' responses about the concept of internal marketing, especially with regards to supporting change implementation, as none of them readily stated to apply internal marketing in their organisation, nor mentioned any marketing tools they might have turned inwards. Instead, applying marketing internally was perceived a somewhat difficult concept, even negative, by some respondents, which was in line with earlier remarks made on the lack of a clear definition, and on aiming at internal marketing being a mechanism for exchange, not mass manipulation.

Yet still, when summarising the notions explored with regards the second research question, it can be underlined that in addition to internal marketing indeed being perceived a somewhat difficult concept to define and apply, the expert insights gathered from the empirical field also suggest that marketing-related aspects such as the importance of internal customers, internal marketing research, segmentation and target marketing are already included in discussions about supporting change implementation, even though perhaps not only in marketing terms.

In the meantime, also regarding marketing concepts used inside organisations, the employees, or change recipients, were referred to as internal customers by many earlier authors as well as the interviewees, who quite strongly stressed the importance of knowing their internal customers and serving them as well as possible. Thus, when it comes to the third and broadest theme of this study, the ways for supporting change implementation, based on several earlier notions regarding both change implementation and internal marketing and the experts interviewed, it could be suggested that at the basis of almost any supportive actions lies knowing and understanding the parties involved in the change, in order to find and apply the most effective ways of affecting their attitudes, and through that their behaviour towards adoption.

As for individuals' attitudes towards change, roughly, building on insights from earlier writings as well as the interview responses, it could be stated that the parties involved in a change process can be grouped into supporters, neutrals and opposers, or in marketing terms, that internal marketing research should be applied and the internal customers then segmented according to their attitudes. Furthermore, a variety of issues were suggested to have an effect on individuals' attitudes towards a change initiative. First, demographic factors and personality traits were mentioned, as well as earlier personal or observed experiences with change. Also the context in which change occurs was discussed, including aspects such as other change projects being implemented simultaneously, the burden of one's work days as well as the organisation's culture and values; whether or not they are supportive or encouraging regarding the change at hand. Finally, the content of the change itself and its effects on the individual and the organisation were mentioned, and a reluctance of moving away from a familiar and comfortable status quo and a general fear for the unknown were underlined by many as possible sources of opposition. However, even though almost all sources suggested that mapping the attitudes is of value for enforcing positive behaviour, and overcoming any barriers set by the opposers, a notable amount of insights both from earlier authors as well as the expert interviews emphasised the importance of also appreciating and attending to the resistance a change might face, since valuable contributions to the success of an initiative might be received through listening to parties first seemingly opposing the change.

Especially regarding the example case of introducing an online self-booking tool to employees, in the interviews it was suggested that younger employees with more travel and experience with online tools might be more positive about adopting the new travel tool, and in the survey it was indeed the case when asking about the interest towards a possibility for using online tools also for making work related travel arrangements. In addition, female respondents were found slightly more interested. Overall, of the survey respondents, three quarters indicated to be somewhat or very interested about such a possibility, and when looking at average responses to questions regarding online tools more generally, in average, they suggested an attitude more positive than negative. Therefore, it could be summarised that in the survey respondents' organisation, at least in the respondent group, the grounds might be favourable for implementing the change.

Moving on, when it comes to the ways of enforcing positivity and reducing negativity, a variety of themes were examined in earlier studies and writings, in the expert interviews and in the survey to future change recipients. The themes discussed were grouped under the topics of having a policy to follow, connecting the change effort to strategy, providing a supportive environment and allowing time for the implementation, involving those affected by the changes in planning and implementation, paying attention to culture, providing opportunities for learning new skills, motivating and giving recognition, attending to managerial and leadership issues while ensuring support from

management, and continuously measuring and assessing the process. Particularly regarding the parties resisting the change, it was further suggested that they should be listened to and invited to participate, and thought should be given to managing uncertainty and fear. Even though all the abovementioned aspects were considered important, the interview respondents especially emphasised thoroughly justifying the change and clearly explaining its goals and effects, involving at least some of the intended recipients in planning and implementing the change, providing clear instructions and adequate training and support and taking thorough and continuous measurements, while always ensuring steady support from management. As for the survey respondents, almost all the themes were perceived at least somewhat important when supporting change implementation, and rather in correspondence with the experts' insights, among the most important ones were clear usage instructions for the new tool, clearly stated reasons, clearly defined goals and a clearly defined process for the change, as well as colleagues' example and earlier experiences. Meanwhile, of the least, yet at least of somewhat, importance were public follow-ups of change adoption, encouragement and rewards for adoption, and one's own manager's example and experiences.

Moreover, remarkable importance was also given to communication by earlier authors and studies, both with regards to change implementation as well as internal marketing, the interviewees and the survey respondents, of whom a large majority considered information and communication regarding the change important or very important when supporting its implementation. As for earlier authors and the interviewees, midst conceptual discussion on internal marketing, it was also asked whether internal marketing could be considered to actually be communication, and vice versa, either way also emphasising the importance of considering communication issues when supporting change implementation.

As for the ways of employing communication to support change implementation, the experts interviewed in line with earlier notions underlined the importance of communicating well and often, thus justifying the change and providing the recipients detailed and accurate information during the implementation. Careful planning was also emphasised, as well as taking into consideration different stakeholder groups and adjusting communication initiatives accordingly. When it comes to the content of communication, it was suggested that the change's effects should be explained both on an individual and an organisational level, and some interviewees suggested that change recipients might be more interested in hearing about the effects on their immediate surroundings, with which survey responses agreed by indicating more importance to receiving information about the change's effect on their own everyday work rather than the whole organisation, even though the latter was also considered at least somewhat important.

Also regarding communication, all sources further brought up the importance of giving attention to the choice of language and wording, advising change implementers to

avoid jargon not familiar to all recipients. Furthermore, as for choosing the channels for communication, it was suggested that one should rather use too many than too few, even though a possibility also exists for too many channels causing for instance confusion, as without enough official information, rumours might start to spread. In the interviews it was suggested that the amount of communication regarding a change might often be considered too small, sometimes resulting from the recipient not actively searching for information, and in this study, even though some respondents did indeed state that the amount of information they receive regarding travel management changes is too small, most considered the amount adequate.

When it comes to examples of communication channels to employ, electronic channels were mentioned by many as a constantly developing area, with the company intranet considered by many a main communication channel today, and social media a source for possible new advantages. In the meantime, even though electronic communication was given emphasis both by earlier authors as well as the interviewees, some suggestions were also given regarding more traditional means, such as employee magazines and staff meetings. Many also provided examples of people as communication channels, which was in line with some earlier authors' notions about a need for high touch midst evolving high tech. Those with influence, such as managers, were mentioned as possible channels for communication, and regarding travel management changes, travel assistants were considered important. What's more, the exchange of information and even thoughts and feelings about the change between colleagues was also discussed. Finally, regarding people as communication channels, all sources emphasised that the parties people might turn to for information about the change should be kept up to date and supportive, and also, it should be made sure that no party with a negative attitude and influence should be left unattended, as messages harmful to the change initiative could also spread. Some also mentioned bringing in outside parties for responding to specific questions or communicating possible negatively perceived information.

Building on notions made earlier in the study about the importance of inviting the intended change recipients to participate, facilitating participation with two-way communication and possibilities for feedback was mentioned by many earlier authors and considered important by both the interviewees as well as the survey respondents. It was suggested that by showing the recipients that their views are of interest, commitment could be increased, while also obtaining valuable information for enhancing the implementation process or assessing its success. As for the channels for participation, keeping all channels open for two-way communication was mentioned, as well as deliberately seeking feedback from the recipients. Once collected, all sources underlined the importance of analysing, acting upon and giving feedback on the feedback, instead of merely collecting it or presenting only raw results.

To summarise the notions gathered regarding the third main research theme of supporting change implementation, it could be suggested that first, one should get familiar with the intended target group of the change when it comes to their attitudes and perceptions about the change, in order to employ the most effective means for supporting its implementation, of which importance was especially given to justifying the change, providing training and instructions, and communicating throughout the process. Regarding communication, careful planning with regards to target groups, language and channel choices were suggested, as well as offering possibilities for participation. Finally, some interview responses also underlined that such means for supporting change implementation do not only apply when it comes to change recipients, but may also be crucial for the implementers' commitment and perceptions about it, and all emphasised the importance of first ensuring support from management.

As a conclusion to the chapter, and to provide insights regarding the main purpose of this study, it could be noted that a considerable amount of aspects would seem to be necessary to be taken into consideration when supporting internal marketing as an approach to implementing change. Ranging from exploring the process and stages of change implementation, taking part in conceptual and practical examination as well as the application of internal marketing, understanding individuals' attitudes and behaviour and employing the various means for facilitating change implementation, with special attention given to communication, change implementers aiming for success would indeed seem to require expertise from a variety of fields, as well as adequate time for thorough planning and research prior to actual implementation. Given today's often hectic working environment and that in many organisations, several change initiatives might be introduced during a certain time period, supporting a change initiative towards success could also be considered to involve celebrating the reaching of different-sized goals and allowing the parties involved to have their harvest festival at the end of a process, in hopes of enforcing positive attitudes also on a more general level and helping to truly anchor the changes in the organisation. Completing such a number of tasks, often added on the top of one's regular work, might seem a tough goal even to the most efficient change implementer.

Therefore, to bring this discussion to a closing, based on earlier notions from various sources, it is suggested that instead of considering a change implementer an individual person, internal marketing as an approach for supporting change implementation could be facilitated by a group of experts from a variety of fields. Naturally, representation would be included from the party or organisational function initiating the change, thus the experts of the change's content. Also, as marketing concepts are involved, some group members could have a marketing background, and given the emphasis placed on communication, some could come from the organisation's communication function. Furthermore, human resources could also be involved, as staff commitment and charac-

teristics have been noted to be of high importance. Finally, some members with specific project management knowledge could be involved for planning and coordinating the implementation process as a whole. Such cooperation could facilitate internal communication between different organisational functions and assist in shaping the organisation's culture and working environment more supportive for change, and also in coordinating several change efforts to minimise the burden and change related pain experienced by the employees. Such a group could be partly formed with a long-term scope, and partly case-specifically for carrying out at least change initiatives with the most notable impacts on the organisation and individuals, in order to employ the most suitable and valuable expertise for applying internal marketing to support change implementation.

5.2 Evaluating the study

Before a final conclusion, in the following, the trustworthiness of this study is examined, and some insights given on possible limitations related to the chosen approaches, concepts and definitions. Regarding evaluation, according to Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 151), the goals for successful interpretations can be considered to be in making sure that an outside reader, when choosing the researcher's point of view, also comes to the same conclusions based on the research report, and Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008, 290) suggest that adopting explicit criteria for evaluating the research may increase its transparency and provide means for highlighting its strengths and limitations.

5.2.1 Assessing the phase of empirical research

Even though mistakes are tried to be avoided when conducting research, the degree of trustworthiness and quality of results varies, which is why in all research, the quality of the research and how much the results can be trusted, should be estimated, and a variety of ways for doing that exist (Hirsjärvi et al. 1997, 231). As for instance Kent (1993, 31) notes, any measurement taken needs, as far as possible, to be both valid and reliable.

In qualitative research, reliability and validity have received various interpretations. For instance Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008, 291) suggest that it might be helpful to distinguish between three different ways of using evaluation and assessment criteria in qualitative research: adopting the classic criteria of good quality research, which originally stems from quantitative research; adopting alternative but common criteria for qualitative research; and abandoning the idea of common evaluation criteria for qualitative research approaches. Similarly, Ladkin (2004, 536–548) discusses research evalua-

tion in the context of action research and asks how the validity and quality of their work can be determined without the more traditional criteria, and suggests that those undertaking action research would need to be using different measuring sticks for assessing the quality and trustworthiness of documented studies. However, as Hirsjärvi et al. (1997, 232) and Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 188) note, some way for assessing the quality and trustworthiness of the research should be found, and possible shifts away from the traditional forms of evaluation do not indicate that research could be conducted in any possible way. In this study, quality and trustworthiness are assessed under the topics of validity and reliability, with remarks made on the differences between evaluating qualitative and quantitative research taken into consideration.

Validity refers to the ability of the measures or research methods to measure exactly what it has been intended to measure; a measurement is said to possess validity it there is evidence that the instruments, techniques or processes used to measure the concept do indeed give a true reflection of the intended concept (Kent 1993, 31; Hirsjärvi et al. 1997, 231). In qualitative research, the concept of validity is also originally driven from the quantitative field, and a way for defining validity is observing how much the research conducted focuses on the subject of the study; if the concepts used in the study reflect the phenomenon studied (Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2004, 187).

Furthermore, validity entails that the indicators selected properly reflect the entire domain of the concept or variable being measured, and that differences between measurements taken, for instance with scales, do correspond with true differences among the cases of interest (Kent 1993, 31; Malhotra & Birks 2007, 358). Validity is also often associated with lack of bias, which refers to a systematic error that occurs in a consistent manner each time something is measured (Kent 1993, 31). In addition, Malhotra and Birks (2007, 266) note that structured questions and fixed-response alternative questions may result in loss of validity for certain types of data such as beliefs and feelings. When it comes to qualitative research, validity can be increased by the researcher throughout the study openly stating their choices of approach and explaining what alternative interpretations have been left out (Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2004, 189), and through descriptions of the circumstances of data collection and creation in detail, with regards to the circumstances and surroundings of the interview situation, how much time was used, possible disturbances, misinterpretations and also a self evaluation of the situations by the researcher (Hirsjärvi et al. 1997, 232).

In this study, when designing interview themes and constructing the survey questionnaire, insights and examples from earlier studies and writings focusing on the same research topics were gathered and used as a basis for developing questions, with the aim of increasing validity. As for question design, during the phase of qualitative interviews, no fixed-response alternatives were set, thus allowing the travel management experts to express their perceptions freely. Meanwhile, in the quantitative survey, where questions

were structured, the employees were not directly asked to select possible attitudes or feelings from a strictly limited list of alternatives provided by the researcher, but were invited to share their level of agreement or disagreement with certain statements, with the goal of no respondent being forced to indicate feeling or perceiving anything they truly did not. Also, by providing the options to select neutral attitudes or state no opinion at all on the scales, the aim was to measure only true perceptions. However, when analysing the results a constraint was found, not regarding the attitude measures but in connection with asking the respondents to choose any amount of alternatives regarding the details of their interest towards using online travel tools and their presently used and preferred channels of communication from a predetermined list, as due to the settings of the online questionnaire, no possibility was provided for not choosing any of the suggested alternatives. Nevertheless, given that the questions with such limits were regarding only details and not the main topic of the study, and based on other previous notions, one could claim that their impact on the of validity of the quantitative measures was not severe. Finally, to increase the validity of the empirical part of the study, especially its qualitative phase, thorough and transparent descriptions and evaluations of data collection, preparation and analysis were striven for.

Reliability, in turn, refers to the extent to which repeat measures produce similar or consistent, thus not random, results (Kent 1993, 31; Hirsjärvi et al. 1997, 231). According to Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 186), reliability means that that when doing research on the same person on separate occasions, the same results may be found, or when separate researchers end up with the same results, and Malhotra and Birks (2007, 357) further note that when using scales, reliability is the extent to which a scale produces consistent results if repeated measurements are made on the characteristic. Often, reliability is measured either by comparing two or more repeat measures, or comparing two or more different, but equivalent, measures taken at the same time (Kent 1993, 32; Hirsjärvi et al. 1997, 231).

Meanwhile, according to Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 185, 188), in qualitative research, the aspect most closely related to the traditional concept of reliability can be found regarding data quality, where reliability is more affected by actions conducted by the researcher than the responses or their analysis. For instance, reliability is related to making sure that all the available data been taken into consideration and analysed, the data has been properly prepared for analysis, and it is also important that the results, as far as possible, represent the respondents' perceptions (Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2004, 189).

The authors also discuss a third way for understanding reliability; when two different research methods provide the same results. However, as they argue, if one admits that human behaviour is also context driven and can thus vary according to time and place, it is unlikely that two different methods would produce exactly the same results. Still, the possible differences between the results of using different methods should not necessar-

ily considered a weakness of either method, but instead a result from changed circumstances. (Hirsjärvi & Hurme 2004, 186.)

Finally, as for example Kent (1993, 32) notes, reliability is no proof of validity since a measure may be consistently wrong. He further observes that some researchers argue that a valid measure, on the other hand, must be reliable because there is no error, systematic or random, and even though some debate has been going on regarding that argument, he suggests it might be easier to consider a valid measure, by definition, reliable. (Kent 1993, 32.)

Regarding reliability in this study, as data was collected only once, no comparisons between separate measures, or researchers, were possible. However, when it comes to reliability of the qualitative interviews, all stages were aimed at being described as thoroughly as possible, and also, as the interviewees were given a possibility to review the interview data both as raw material as well as in a further prepared mode, possible misunderstandings would have been noted before presenting the respondents' perceptions in the final report. As for the quantitative survey, the reliability of the measures was hoped to be increased by employing commonly used scales and question types from earlier similar research. However, with regards to data preparation, a possible impact on the reliability of the data analysed might have resulted, as a range of recoding and classification actions were taken, as well as artificial averages calculated for non-numeric values for comparisons. Yet still, as no further calculations were conducted on such artificial numbers, and they were used only in further describing the data, they were not considered to have a significant effect on the overall reliability of the research.

Furthermore, worth considering when assessing the trustworthiness of a research design are also the several potential sources of error that can affect it. According to Kent (1993, 3) and Malhotra and Birks (2007, 357), while systematic error has no impact on reliability, because it affects measurement in a constant way and thus doesn't lead to inconsistency, the level of random error should be assessed, as it may lead to lower reliability through inconsistency. In summary, where the focus of a study is a quantitative measurement, the total error can be defined as the variable between the true mean value in the population of the variable of interest, and the observed mean value obtained in the research project (Malhotra & Birks 2007, 83).

Sampling error arises from the sampling procedure itself, when the particular sample selected is an imperfect representation of the population of interest, and may be defined as the difference between a sample result and the result that would have been achieved by undertaking a complete census (Kent 1993, 42; Malhotra & Birks 2007, 83). Kent (1993, 42) further notes that bias arises when the sampling procedures used result in over- or under-representation of types of cases in the sample, and that may happen because the selection procedures are not random, the selection is made from a list that does not cover the population or uses procedure that excludes certain groups, or when non-respondents are not a cross-section of the population.

In this study, in order to reduce sampling error, specialist help was requested when choosing the interview participants, with the aim of obtaining an adequate representation of organisation types and travel manager roles. As for conducting the quantitative survey, no further sampling procedures were conducted apart from only including VTT employees as eligible participants, with a risk of obtaining a biased representation of the target population. Moreover, as the invitation to participate and the link to the questionnaire were posted openly on the intranet, it was assumed that no respondent would respond more than once, even though technically that would have been possible. Nonetheless, on the basis of analysing the data, a rather even demographic representation of employees responded, and even though collected completely separately, the list of voluntarily provided contact information related to participating in the price-draw showed no multiple entries of a single employee's responses.

Furthermore, Kent (1993, 40–41) observes, when reviewing the accuracy of samples, it is helpful to bear in mind that not all errors are necessarily a result of the sampling process, and it is possible to distinguish between sampling errors and *non-sampling errors*, which are unconnected with the procedures used for selecting cases. Non-sampling errors can be attributed to sources other than sampling, and may be random or non-random. They result from a variety of reasons, including errors in problem definition, approach, scales, interviewing methods, questionnaire design, and data preparation and analysis, and they consist of non-response errors and response errors. (Malhotra & Birks 2007, 83.)

Non-response error is a type of non-sampling error that occurs when some of the respondents included in the sample do not respond, and it may be defined as the variation between the true mean value of the variable in the original sample and the true mean value in the net sample (Malhotra & Birks 2007, 84). Even though in this study, an explicit definition of the amount of non-response error might be challenging to give, it might be worth noting that the choice of an electronic survey as the data collection method might have had some influence on the response rate. When conducting an online survey, the researcher assumed that all intended respondents had access to the Internet and the necessary skills for filling out electronic questionnaires. However, this assumption could be considered justified, as such skills can be regarded a necessity in today's business environment, and in addition, conducting an online survey about perceptions regarding the introduction of a new online tool seemed appropriate. Moreover, as a possible explanation to non-response, one could take into consideration that simultaneously with the posting of the invitation to the survey, news postings and information were published regarding other urgent global travel related issues, and thus the limited attention of the possible respondents could have been directed towards other topics. Finally, it could also be assumed that as participating in the survey was completely voluntary and as its goal of using the results as a basis for planning a future change was mentioned, the employees with not enough interest to participate were excluded.

Response error, in the meantime, may arise when research is based on asking people questions, and where, for one reason or another, respondents do respond but give inaccurate answers or whose answers are misrecorded or misanalysed (Kent 1993, 41; Malhotra & Birks 2007, 84). According to Kent (1993, 41) potential response error may arise for a variety of reasons, and it is often a result of poor or inadequate questionnaire design, and thus can be minimised by careful design of question wording, question formulation and questionnaire layout, the latter a notion supported also by Malhotra and Birks (2007, 278, 372), who also observe that the context in which the research is conducted may have an effect.

In this study, in order to minimise response error, the questionnaire was designed to be as simple and clear as possible to fill out, and standardised response alternatives were given to most questions, therefore reducing the possibility for inaccurate or misrecorded answers. Also, all questions were marked mandatory with the aim of eliminating the possibility for respondents to, accidentally or willingly, leave parts of the questionnaire unanswered. Given that in the majority of the questions a possibility for not agreeing with any of the proposed alternatives was provided, response error might arise only from the already mentioned questions, where respondents lacked that possibility, which was taken into account when analysing the results. As for research context, only the interview environment was known and could be affected; and it was designed to be disturbance-free for all the interviews. As for the survey responses, they could have been given in any environment with Internet access, so no means for controlling possible context-related response error existed.

In addition to the research design, also the actions of both the parties asking the questions as well as the ones providing the answers may have an impact on response error. As for response error being affected by the respondent, Malhotra and Birks (2007, 85, 266, 280) observe that they have been discussed to include the respondents inability and unwillingness to provide accurate answers, and further note that respondents may be unwilling to respond if the information requested is sensitive or personal, and a tendency of respondents to give answers that may not be accurate but may be desirable from a social standpoint is referred to as social desirability. Similarly, according to Kent (1993, 79), one should bear in mind that people, on the whole, like to be helpful and cooperative, which often means that they will give the answers they think are wanted from them, and thus, it has been discovered that most questionnaires generate more yes than no answers. Finally, it has also been questioned, when measuring unconscious processes, whether individuals truly can self-assess their own defence mechanisms (Bovey & Hede 2001, 539).

Among possible sources of such response error in this study could be, first in the interviews, the questions regarding personal earlier experiences of implementing change, either successful or unsuccessful, as based on the above notions, a possibility might

exist that not all respondents would have been willing to share their possible failures. In order to minimise such response error, and for example errors resulting from a desire to please the interviewer with answers considered more correct, respondents were given a promise of anonymity. Meanwhile, in the questionnaires, respondents were asked to state their attitudes and perceptions, and especially with regards to self-evaluations of one's own attitudes towards change and adopting new things, a possibility might arise for response error, both resulting from social desirability and the challenges with self-evaluations of partly unconscious processes. Thus, respondent anonymity was also in the survey promised in hopes of encouraging honest and accurate answers, and earlier studies with similar question content used at the basis of questionnaire design.

Meanwhile, Malhotra and Birks (2007, 85) observe that the ways response error might be affected by the interviewer include respondent selection, questioning, recording and cheating errors. Moreover, Flick et al. (2004, 9) wish to highlight that while in quantitative research a central value is attached to the observer's independence of the object of research, qualitative research relies on the investigator's subjective perception as one component of the evidence, and similarly, Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008, 30) note that in qualitative research, researchers are integrally part of the research process. In accordance, Hirsjärvi and Hurme (2004, 189) observe that while research should focus on revealing the perceptions and world of the research targets as well as possible, researchers should be aware of that they have an effect on the knowledge of the respondents already at the data gathering state, and the results from interview research are always results from the actions and inputs from both the interviewers and the interviewees.

In this study, the possibilities for response error resulting from the researcher's actions was more likely to occur regarding data collection and analysis at the qualitative interview stage, as the interviews were conducted personally, while the questionnaires were filled out independently by the respondents. Before and during the interviews, minimising possible response error was taken into consideration by building and following a predetermined framework for the interviews, and aiming at avoiding leading questions or assumptions, and letting the interviewees express their own views. Also the tone of the interviews and choices of words was aimed at being consistent and neutral, even though rather conversational, in all interviews. As all interviews were recorded and transcribed, data for analysis was taken from direct recordings and thus did not rely on notes taken by the researcher in their own words. Overall, based on the discussion on assessing the quality and trustworthiness of research on all its stages, it could be claimed that in this study an adequate level of validity and reliability was reached.

5.2.2 Observing limitations to the study's approach

In addition to evaluating the empirical research phase, some limitations can also be observed when reflecting upon the framework built and used in this study as a whole. Based on the decisions to limit the focus on change as a process with change implementers on one and change recipients on the other side, internal marketing as an approach suitable for supporting change management inside organisations, the human aspect of change, and communication a key tool for combining insights from many fields, earlier studies and writings were observed and empirical data collected. Even though with regards to notions from the previous chapter, one might claim that the validity of the whole research process was increased by thorough examinations from different perspectives of the chosen themes, and of the chosen themes only, setting limits and basic assumptions, no matter how broad, always result in something being left out, sometimes unintentionally.

By choosing to consider change a single individual process to be carried through, the assumption was that an implementer would have the resources necessary to first thoroughly plan the change, examine and understand its different intended recipients, build support strategies for each group identified, and then proceed to executing and finally evaluating and reinforcing both the change as well all its supportive actions derived from many functions in the organisation. While such an approach allowed for versatile observations on the different stages, it did not leave much room for considering how simultaneously implementing several changes, or change implementation with exceptionally scarce resources, would have differed. In addition, by for the sake of clarity dividing the parties involved in change into its implementers and receivers, more understanding was built on the extreme point-of-views and their implications to studying how change could be supported, but not much discussion was further conducted on the possible roles of in between, even though it was noted that among the goals of supporting change is attaining bellwethers.

Also the decision to consider, in the framework of this study, internal marketing a suitable tool for supporting change implementation inside the organisation, with no goals necessarily related to external customers, might lead to challenges. Even though several authors have indeed discussed the benefits of internal marketing as a facilitator for change, it has also been proposed that applying external marketing concepts internally requires some care, and it might be problematic to stretch the application of marketing on various fields outside its original environment (see, for example Mudie 2000, 254; Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 25). For instance, Mudie (2000, 254) states that marketing as a discipline might not be equipped in terms of concepts and techniques to confront the complexities of organisational life and employee considerations, and according to Dunne and Barnes (2000, 197–198), the application of external market thinking in an

intra-organisational context has perhaps been too inflexible and simplistic, not because of the traditional marketing concept as such, but instead, because it may have been too narrowly interpreted and applied in the internal context. Inevitably, Ahmed and Rafiq (2002, 25) note, the question arises on how useful the concepts and techniques such as customers, segmentation, market research, and the marketing mix are for driving behaviours and generally motivating employees, as such goals have traditionally been in the realm of human resource management. Finally, they further note that among the main problems with applying marketing internally is that while in traditional, external marketing situations, customers do not have to buy products that they do not wish to buy and the consequences of non-purchase are not severe, the products sold to employees may be unwanted or may in fact have negative utility for them, for example in the cases of introducing new working methods, and employees may be forced into acceptance under the threat of disciplinary actions, even though using force or formal authority is never considered to a marketing solution to a problem (Ahmed & Rafiq 2002, 25, 26).

Another observation first made and then adopted, based on the variety of supportive notions regarding holding people central in change, was inviting employees to participate in planning, supporting and evaluating the change initiative, with the assumption that an opportunity to voice concerns and ideas would be perceived a positive experience and thus encourage individuals with adopting the change. However, such an assumption has its limits, and among others Russ (2008, 206) has studied the possible challenges with participatory activities. According to him, while traditional programmatic approaches can suffer from rigidity, lack of holistic engagement and excessive top-down control, traditional participatory approaches might lead to significant ambiguity where the original intent of the change gets lost in the rush of involving too many actors. Also, while participatory approaches assume that most employees want to be involved and are intrinsically motivated to fully implement planned changes, some of them may dislike participating in the process, which may hinder their involvement in change efforts and their evaluations of the change's successful implementation. Furthermore, some direction-oriented organisational members may prefer more explicit direction from the formal leadership team, and may grow weary of, and possibly frustrated with, the lack of focus and clear course of action and may, as a consequence, evaluate the implementation process as inefficient and unsuccessful. (Russ 2008, 206.)

Finally, some limitations could also be said to have resulted from the overall explorative approach of the study, chosen for gathering a broad and diversified understanding of the combinations of fields yet somewhat unfamiliar to the researcher. Even though it could be claimed that exploring insights from the different sides of internal marketing, change and the ways of supporting it did indeed accomplish the building of a rather versatile depiction of the studied theme, focusing on all the aspects of a broad theme did not allow for more profound examinations on the details of single elements. With more

existing experience on the fields studied, a narrower and thus deeper focus might have provided valuable observations, too.

5.3 Exploring areas for future research

After laying the basis for discussion on internal marketing as an approach to change implementation in this study, a variety of research themes could be developed for further examination in future research. For instance, continuing the conceptual discussion on internal marketing and especially its application to intra-organisational processes could provide interesting insights. Observations could be collected from academic debate and recent managerial literature, as well as by studying examples and perceptions from practice.

Also the topic of implementing change could offer a vast field of further discussion, given that each case of implementation is different as examples of change vary in type, size and impact, and the organisations in which they are introduced differ from one another in many aspects, thus forming different contexts for change initiatives, some more open and other more reserved towards adopting new ideas or ways of working.

As for the theme of supporting change implementation, especially from a marketing point-of-view, when considering understanding the people involved crucial, to build ground for implementation, aspects related to planning and conducting internal market research could be further explored for a deeper understanding of what to examine and based on what to then segment the internal customers involved in the change process. Based on such research, the best possible approaches for supporting the change could then be planned and introduced.

Further regarding the parties involved in a change process, even though in this study a rather common, yet somewhat general, division into implementers and recipients was used, in further research a broader view could provide a deeper understanding, as with several changes often introduced simultaneously, single individuals might be placed in the role of an implementer in one, and that of a recipient in another. Moreover, even though many studies have focused on advising change implementers about encouraging change recipients to adopt a change, some more attention could also be given to understanding and supporting the implementers.

Finally, when it comes to the tools to employ for supporting change implementation with marketing, there would seem to be opportunities for more research into what tools could provide the best results in different situations, as well as into broadening the array of tools available and further developing existing ones for even better tailored support.

To conclude the discussion on suggestions for future research, given that internal marketing as an approach to change implementation would seem to comprise of several

fields and stages worth of careful attention, it is proposed that the theme could also be further explored from a collaborative viewpoint, by gathering both academic and practical insights on how knowledge from different disciplines and organisational functions could be combined for facilitating internal marketing as an approach towards implementing change successfully.

6 SUMMARY

Curiosity towards exploring how marketing could be applied as a facilitator of intra-organisational processes was behind the motive for conducting this study. As it has been recognised by many parties that we live in a time of exceptional change and managing change has been noted to be challenging, resulting in that many change initiatives fail, as an example situation, managing change towards success was observed. Furthermore, of special interest regarding change was the implementation phase.

Meanwhile, also building on remarks from the field of current research and writings, internal marketing was chosen as the main approach through which success with change implementation could be achieved, a decision which could be seen to be supported by observations noting how most recent developments in the discussion suggest broadening the concept to include implementation processes of functional strategies, with internal marketing as a change management methodology suggested in a number of studies.

The third main theme in this study was holding people central when aiming for success with change, based on insights observed when studying change management and internal marketing, as well as the overall notion that as organisations consist of people, any change that requires things starting to be done in a different way, simply won't get implemented unless individuals adjust their behavior accordingly. Based on such remarks, of interest was to develop an understanding of what the underlying elements affecting individuals' attitudes are regarding change, as building on such observations, more appropriate means for supporting them with adopting it could perhaps be designed. Furthermore, in addition to understanding them, inviting people to participate and get involved with change implementation was also regarded among the key means for reaching success, and it could be argued that by emphasising the human element key, a point-of-view related to the field of organisational development was chosen.

Ultimately, due to the emphasis given to it both in the fields of internal marketing and change management, the fourth main theme of interest was communication. In addition to regarding communication as a possible tool for supporting change and applying internal marketing, it was also observed as the means for putting into action many of the supportive strategies suggested by authors from the other fields studied.

In summary, in this study, the aim was to explore how change could be implemented towards success, and how internal marketing could be applied to support that. As it had been noted that the human element was considered vital when aiming for success with change, the means for supporting change with internal marketing were mainly explored as ways for affecting individuals' attitudes in order to achieve behavioural change, through first observing what affects attitudes.

Based on such notions, the purpose of this study was presented as: How could internal marketing as an approach for change implementation be facilitated? The main pur-

pose was then divided into the themes of observing what change implementation in organisations consists of, what elements are involved in applying marketing internally, and in what ways change implementation can be supported.

The study was conducted by first building a framework based on earlier studies and writings, with insights gathered both from academic discussion as well as managerial literature, and the structure of the framework chapter was designed for observing the main research themes in a manner that allowed information to accumulate towards the end. Subsequently, after laying the basis for the study, two stages of empirical research were carried through for practical observations, with the goal of developing a deeper understanding of change implementation and the ways to support it.

The study as a whole was conducted in cooperation with two organisations, the Finnish Business Travel Association FBTA and VTT Technical Research Centre of Finland, and based on the researcher's personal interest and the co-operation partners' field-specific knowledge, the context of the empirical phase was set to be travel management in organisations, with the example case of introducing an online self-booking tool to VTT employees. With the two stages of research, the goal was to obtain perceptions from respondents representing either the change implementers or the change recipients in the framework of implementing a travel management tool. This was done through first conducting interviews with travel management experts, and then inviting VTT employees to participate in a survey, and thus both qualitative and quantitative research approaches were observed when designing the empirical phase. Further regarding research approaches used for background, insights from the fields of organisation development, action research, internal marketing and force field analysis were gathered.

After constructing the framework, designing the empirical research phases and collecting and analysing the data gathered, insights from the different phases were combined in order to strengthen the understanding of how the important, yet often challenging, change implementation could be supported by internal marketing. The results of the study were also made available to the co-operation partners for instance to be considered when planning and executing the implementation of the new online tool, and thus this study aimed at providing insights to both academic and practical discussion.

As for the main findings, to summarise the insights gathered regarding the first main theme of change implementation, it was noted that many sources suggested treating change as a process, and more recently even as a project to which many project management tools and guidelines apply. At the beginning of such a process, the reasons should be clearly stated and the goals defined, and during it, through setting and reaching smaller milestones and providing support, the commitment of the parties involved sought after. Finally, towards the end of the process and continuously after it, the change should be kept firmly anchored in the organisation.

Regarding the second main theme, internal marketing, no clear consensus was found regarding definitions or suggestions on how and with what goals marketing could be applied inside organisations, and several suggestions were observed regarding the need for further discussion and clarification. However, it was also noted that many authors suggested that instead of only focusing on enhanced outcomes regarding external customers, internal marketing could also be applied to facilitate internal processes, including change implementation. As for the tools of internal marketing, a variety of authors simply recommended turning inwards the traditional marketing methods, including the marketing mix, market segmentation and target marketing. However, even though such an approach was supported by many, differing opinions were also given, and a relationship view embracing more collaborative methods was proposed. In the expert interviews, a somewhat notable difference was found between earlier notions and the interviewees' responses about the concept of internal marketing, especially with regards to supporting change implementation, as none of the respondents readily stated to apply internal marketing in their organisation, nor mentioned any marketing tools they might have turned inwards. Instead, applying marketing internally was perceived a somewhat difficult concept, even negative, by some. However, it was observed that the insights from the empirical field still suggested that marketing-related aspects such as the importance of internal customers, internal marketing research, segmentation and target marketing could still be found in discussions about supporting change implementation, even though perhaps not only in marketing terms.

When it comes to the third and broadest theme of this study, the ways for supporting change implementation, based on several earlier notions regarding both change implementation and internal marketing and the experts interviewed, a conclusion was drawn that at the basis of almost any supportive actions lies knowing and understanding the parties involved in the change, in order to find and apply the most effective ways of affecting their attitudes, and through that their behaviour towards adoption.

As for individuals' attitudes towards change, a variety of issues were suggested to have an effect, and it was observed that based on attitudes, the parties involved in a change process could be roughly grouped into supporters, neutrals and opposers, which in marketing terms could be referred to as internal market research and segmentation. When observing what affects attitudes, demographic factors and personality traits, earlier experiences with change, the context in which change occurs, and finally the content of the change itself and its effects on the individual and the organisation. Especially, a reluctance of moving away from a familiar and comfortable status quo and a general fear for the unknown were underlined by many as possible sources of opposition. Meanwhile, even though almost all sources suggested that mapping the attitudes could be of value for enforcing positive behaviour and overcoming any barriers set by the opposers, notable emphasis was also given to the importance of appreciating and

attending to the resistance a change might face, since valuable contributions to the success of an initiative might be received.

Especially regarding the example case of introducing an online self-booking tool to employees, it was suggested that younger employees with more travel and experience with online tools might be more positive about adopting the new travel tool, and in the survey it was indeed the case when asking about the interest towards a possibility for using online tools also for making work related travel arrangements. Overall, of the survey respondents, three quarters indicated to be somewhat or very interested about such a possibility, and it was summarised that in the survey respondents' organisation, at least in the respondent group, the grounds appeared to be favourable for implementing the change.

Moving on, as for the tools of supporting change implementation, a variety of themes were examined, and they were grouped under the topics of having a policy to follow, connecting the change effort to strategy, providing a supportive environment and allowing time for the implementation, involving those affected by the changes in planning and implementation, paying attention to culture, providing opportunities for learning new skills, motivating and giving recognition and attending to managerial and leadership issues, while ensuring constant support from management, and continuously measuring and assessing the process. Particularly regarding the parties resisting the change, it was further suggested that they should be listened to and invited to participate, and thought should be given to managing uncertainty and fear. Remarkable importance was also given to communication, and as for the ways of employing it to support change implementation, emphasis was given to communicating well and often, and to careful planning and taking into consideration different stakeholder groups and adjusting communication initiatives accordingly. Regarding content, it was suggested that the change's effects should be explained both on an individual and an organisational level, and when discussing language choices, the use of jargon avoided.

As a summary of the notions gathered regarding the third main research theme of supporting change implementation, it was then suggested that first, one should get familiar with the intended target group of the change when it comes to their attitudes and perceptions about the change, in order to employ the most effective means for supporting its implementation, of which importance was especially given to ensuring steady support from management, justifying the change, providing training and instructions, and communicating throughout the process. Regarding communication, careful planning with regards to target groups, language and channel choices were suggested, as well as offering possibilities for participation. Finally, it was also noted that the means for supporting change implementation might not only apply when it comes to change recipients, but could also be crucial for affecting the implementers' commitment and perceptions.

As a conclusion to the research findings, it was suggested that since a considerable amount of aspects would seem to be necessary to be taken into consideration when applying marketing to support change, instead of regarding a change implementer an individual person, internal marketing as an approach for supporting change implementation could be facilitated by the cooperation of specialists from a variety of fields, ranging from the experts of the change at hand to marketing and human resources to project management and communication.

In the end of the study, the research process as a whole was evaluated with different measures for trustworthiness, which was striven to be kept satisfactory through detailed descriptions of the phases and through minimising errors. When evaluating the study, some observations were also made with regards to possible limitations resulting from the overall approach of deliberately focusing only on the implementation phase of change, and dividing the stakeholders in change processes into either implementers or recipients. Furthermore, it was observed that discussing the concept of internal marketing as a facilitator of intra-organisational processes might not always be without problems, and the underlying assumption behind many of the support tools discussed of people being more supportive towards something they have helped to create, was challenged. Finally, it was also noted that even though the chosen exploratory approach could be regarded well suited for gathering a broad and diversified understanding of the combinations of fields yet somewhat unfamiliar to the researcher, a narrower and thus deeper focus might have provided valuable observations, too.

Ultimately, based on the main findings and the observed limitations, some suggestions were made for future research. Continuing the conceptual discussion on internal marketing and especially its application to intra-organisational processes, the topic of implementing change with varying context and content, aspects related to planning and conducting internal market research, broadening the grouping of the parties involved in change, further examining, developing and widening the array of the tools used for supporting change, and exploring the possibilities of inter-disciplinary and -functional collaboration were proposed as areas for further studies on internal marketing as an approach to change implementation.

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APPENDIX 1 GENERAL THEMES FOR THE INTERVIEWS WITH TRAVEL MANAGEMENT EXPERTS

1. A brief overview of travel management as an operational environment and organisational function
    - Travel management's role and tasks in the interviewee's organisation
    - Triggers for travel management -related changes

2. Implementing change in a travel management context
    - Defining success and setting the goals for implementation
    - Reaching for the goals, change implementation as a process

3. Supporting change implementation
    - Understanding and affecting individual attitudes
    - Adding positivity, encouraging change adoption
    - Reducing negativity, identifying and overcoming hurdles to adoption

4. Applying marketing internally and employing communication to support change implementation throughout its different stages

5. Insights on planning a future change and suggestions for question themes in the upcoming survey

6. Possible depictions of personal experience with change implementation, what has and has not worked before

7. Any additional remarks on change implementation and/or supporting it

APPENDIX 2 ELECTRONIC SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE TO VTT EMPLOYEES

Broadening the use of an online travel tool at VTT

Part 1/4: Information about the respondent

To begin, we would like you to answer a few background questions.

1) Gender: *

- Female
- Male

2) Year of birth: *

3) What year did you start to work at VTT? *

4) Please give an estimate on how many days a year you have of domestic work-related travel. *

5) Please give an estimate on how many days a year you have of international work-related travel. *

Part 2/4: Information about the respondent's views about online tool use.

Next, we would like you to answer some questions regarding online tools, based on your own experience and perceptions.

6) How often do you use online tools in the following situations: *

	1 - never	2 - a few times a year	3 - about once a month	4 - about once a week	5 - almost daily or daily
In dealings with my bank (e.g. Internet bank) *	○	○	○	○	○
In dealings with my insurances *	○	○	○	○	○
Making arrangements related to leisure travelling *	○	○	○	○	○
Planning work-related travel *	○	○	○	○	○

7) In my opinion, online tools (eg. Internet bank, making travel arrangements electronically) ... *

	1 - completely disagree	2 - somewhat disagree	3 - neither agree nor disagree	4 - somewhat agree	5 - completely agree	6 - don't know / have no experience
Make running errands easier *	○	○	○	○	○	○
Lift constraints related to time and place *	○	○	○	○	○	○
Are difficult to use *	○	○	○	○	○	○
Are unreliable *	○	○	○	○	○	○
Are already commonly used *	○	○	○	○	○	○

8) How interested would you be about a possibility to use online tools also for making work-related travel arrangements? *

- ○ Very interested
- ○ Somewhat interested
- ○ Slightly interested
- ○ Not at all interested

9) What work-related travel operations would you be interested in making with an online tool? *

- ☐ Searching for routes and schedules
- ☐ Searching for hotel options
- ☐ Making travel bookings

Part 3/4: Information about the respondent's attitudes towards change in ways of working

Next, we would like you to state your attitude towards statements related to adopting change, based on your own experience and perceptions.

10) Please estimate your degree of agreement or disagreement towards the following statements: *

	1 - completely disagree	2 - somewhat disagree	3 - neither agree nor disagree	4 - somewhat agree	5 - completely agree	6 - don't know / can't say
I have an open attitude towards the new and yet unknown *	○	○	○	○	○	○
I enjoy pioneering new approaches *	○	○	○	○	○	○
Uncertainty about the future is an unpleasant feeling *	○	○	○	○	○	○
Change situations are anguishing *	○	○	○	○	○	○

11) From a personal point of view, how important would you consider the following examples when supporting the future implementation of a new online tool: *

	1 - not important at all / no effect	2 - not that important	3 - somewhat important	4 - important	5 - very important	6 - don't know / can't say
A clearly defined process for change *	○	○	○	○	○	○
Clearly defined goals *	○	○	○	○	○	○
Clearly stated reasons for the change *	○	○	○	○	○	○
Information and communication regarding the change *	○	○	○	○	○	○
A possibility to participate in planning the change *	○	○	○	○	○	○
A possibility to get one's own opinions and perceptions heard *	○	○	○	○	○	○
Sharing change-related experiences and perceptions with others *	○	○	○	○	○	○
Own manager's example and earlier experiences *	○	○	○	○	○	○
Colleagues' example and earlier experiences *	○	○	○	○	○	○
User training for the new tool *	○	○	○	○	○	○
Clear usage instructions for the new tool *	○	○	○	○	○	○
Encouragement and rewards for adopting the change *	○	○	○	○	○	○
Public follow-ups of change adoption (usage rates) *	○	○	○	○	○	○

Part 4/4: Information about the respondent's perceptions about communication

Next, we would like you to answer some questions about communication related to the change process

12) Related to change, how important do you consider receiving information about ... *

	1 - not important at all / no effect	2 - not that important	3 - somewhat important	4 - important	5 - very important	6 - don't know / can't say
The change's effect on one's own everyday work *	○	○	○	○	○	○
The change's effect on the whole organisation *	○	○	○	○	○	○

13) How do yoy feel about the amount of information you receive regarding travel management related changes? *

- ○ Too small
- ○ Adequate
- ○ Too big

14) Through what channels do you usually receive information about travel management related changes? *

- ☐ VTT intranet / travel management site
- ☐ Travel assistants
- ☐ Own manager
- ☐ Colleagues

15) Through what channels would you like to receive information about travel management related changes? *

- ☐ VTT intranet / travel management site
- ☐ Travel assistants
- ☐ Own manager
- ☐ Colleagues

16) How do you feel about training related to travel management changes? *

	1 - completely disagree	2 - somewhat disagree	3 - neither agree nor disagree	4 - somewhat agree	5 - completely agree	6 - don't know / can't say
I usually take part in training sessions *	○	○	○	○	○	○
I would be interested in taking part in small-group training *	○	○	○	○	○	○
I would be interested in taking part in virtual training (e.g. via LiveMeeting) *	○	○	○	○	○	○

17) How do you feel about feedback channels regarding travel management related changes? *

	1 - completely disagree	2 - somewhat disagree	3 - neither agree nor disagree	4 - somewhat agree	5 - completely agree	6 - don't know / can't say
I consider a possibility for giving feedback an important channel of communication *	○	○	○	○	○	○
I enjoy giving constructive feedback *	○	○	○	○	○	○
All the feedback gathered should be handled openly *	○	○	○	○	○	○

18) How do you feel about using communication tools for encouraging the adoption of change? *

	1 - completely disagree	2 - somewhat disagree	3 - neither agree nor disagree	4 - somewhat agree	5 - completely agree	6 - don't know / can't say
A public recognition of my own success with change would encourage me *	○	○	○	○	○	○
I would be interested in examples of successfully implementing change in other parts of the organisation *	○	○	○	○	○	○