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ABSTRACT

x	Master´s thesis
	Licentiate´s thesis
	Doctor´s thesis

Subject	International Business	Date	26.4.2010
Author	Hilla Sofia Pándy	Student number	14169
		Number of pages	101
Title	Creating a model for identification and motivation of innovation champions		
Supervisors	D.Sc. Birgitta Sandberg, M.Sc. Taina Eriksson		

Abstract

The study of innovation is important in today's rapidly changing business world. Moreover, there is a growing need to understand the phenomenon of innovation championing. In this study, innovation was defined broadly as a new or improved process within an organization, or a new or improved product or service for the end customer. According to theory, innovation champions are individuals who actively promote innovations in their organizations and break down barriers for change. These individuals emerge informally in organizations and therefore one needs to know how to identify and motivate these people and how to continually encourage them to be the motors for change.

The purpose of the thesis was to analyze how innovation champions can be identified and motivated within an organization. An actual case study of a Finnish logistics company was conducted to find out how to identify innovation champions within an organization and what motivates them for promoting innovations.

First a model for identification and motivation of innovation champions was built based on extensive body of existing theory. The theory was gathered from various sources; for example research on entrepreneurs was used as a base for defining the characteristics of innovation champions. Review on motivation included theories such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Schein's career anchor theory and many takes on the concept of creativity, which is central in the study of innovations.

Then the theoretical model was then modified based empirical findings that were gathered using face-to-face semi-structured interviews. Fourteen innovation champions were interviewed in January and February 2008. In addition, one Human Resources Development Manager was interviewed to gain more insight into the current compensation practices of the case company that can foster innovation. As a final step the model was validated by presenting it to the case company. Finally, its merits from both theoretical and practical sides were analysed and also limitations of the present research and suggestions for further study were given.

Key words	Innovation, innovation champion, identification, motivation, compensation
Further information	

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TIIVISTELMÄ

x	Pro gradu -tutkielma
	Lisensiaatintutkielma
	Väitöskirja

Oppiaine	Kansainvälinen liiketoiminta	Päivämäärä	26.4.2010
Tekijä	Hilla Sofia Pándy	Matrikkelinumero	14169
		Sivumäärä	101
Otsikko	Creating a model for identification and motivation of innovation champions		
Ohjaajat	KTT Birgitta Sandberg, KTM Taina Eriksson		

Tiivistelmä

Innovaatioiden tutkiminen ja innovaatiojohtamisen (engl. innovation championing) ymmärtäminen on tärkeää tämän päivän muuttuvassa maailmassa. Tässä tutkimuksessa innovaatiolla tarkoitetaan laajasti ottaen joko yrityksen sisäisen prosessin luomista tai parantamista, tai asiakkaalle tähtäävän tuotteen tai palvelun luomista tai parantamista. Teorian mukaan innovaatiojohtajat ovat henkilöitä, jotka aktiivisesti vievät innovaatioita eteenpäin yrityksissä ja auttavat osaltaan hälventämään muutosvastarintaa. Nämä henkilöt ottavat roolinsa vapaaehtoisesti, ja siksi on tärkeää ymmärtää keitä he ovat ja mikä heitä motivoi. Näin yritykset voivat varmistaa, että he tukevat liiketoiminnalle elintärkeitä innovaatioita jatkossakin.

Tämän pro gradu –työn tarkoitus oli tutkia miten innovaatiojohtajat voidaan tunnistaa yrityksissä ja miten heitä voidaan motivoida viemään innovaatioita eteenpäin. Tämä tehtiin case-yrityksen kautta, joksi valikoitui eräs Suomen johtavista logistiikan alan yrityksistä.

Ensin laaja-alaisen teoriakatsauksen pohjalta luotiin malli innovaatiojohtajien tunnistamiseksi ja motivoimiseksi yrityksissä. Teoria kasattiin monista eri lähteistä; esimerkiksi innovaatiojohtajien persoonallisuutta arvioitiin yrittäjiin pohjautuvan teoriatiedon mukaan. Keskeisimpinä motivaatioon liittyvinä teorioina käsiteltiin muun muassa Maslow’n tarvehierarkiaa, Scheinin ura-ankkureita sekä useita eri luovuusteorioita, sillä luovuus on keskeinen käsite innovaatioiden tutkimisessa.

Sitten teorian pohjalta luotu malli testattiin ja muokattiin empirian avulla, joka kerättiin henkilökohtaisilla puolistrukturoiduilla yksilöhaastatteluilla. Neljätoista innovaatiojohtajaksi nimettyä henkilöä haastateltiin tammikuussa ja helmikuussa 2008. Lisäksi yhtä henkilöstön kehityspäällikköä haastateltiin yrityksen palkitsemisjärjestelmistä, joilla voi olla vaikutusta innovoimiseen. Tämän jälkeen viimeistelty malli esiteltiin ja hyväksytettiin case-yrityksellä. Lopuksi mallin teoreettiset ja käytännön arvot analysoitiin, sekä keskusteltiin tutkimuksen rajoituksista ja annettiin ehdotuksia lisätutkimukselle aiheesta.

Asiasanat	Innovaatio, johtaminen, tunnistaminen, motivaatio, palkitseminen
Muita tietoja	

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CREATING A MODEL FOR IDENTIFICATION AND MOTIVATION OF INNOVATION CHAMPIONS

Master's thesis in
International Business

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26.4.2010
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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Innovations and innovation champions

When the markets are global and companies are free to compete directly with each other, they must continuously develop innovative and high-quality products and services, and renew their way of operating (Huhtala & Parzefall 2007, 299). This is especially true at the moment when the world economy is going through a difficult time and there is perhaps more need to innovate than ever. There is a consensus among researchers that in the increasingly global and challenging business environment of today innovation is a critical prerequisite for acquiring competitive advantage (see for example Tidd, Bessant & Pavitt 2005, 5; Ramamoorthy, Flood, Slattery and Sardessai 2005, 142; Coakes & Smith 2004, 74).

The word innovation is derived from the Latin word 'innovare', which means 'to renew' (Jenssen & Jørgensen 2004, 63). Innovation can be defined as "the adoption of a new product or process" (Howell & Higgins 1990, 325) or as "a new product or service, a new production process technology, a new structure or administrative system, or a new plan or program pertaining to organizational members" (Damanpour 1991, 556). A more detailed classification of innovation encompasses all the different possible types of innovations:

1) technological process innovations
2) goods product innovations
3) organisational process innovations
4) service product innovations (Fagerberg, Mowery and Nelson 2006, 201).

A key element of innovation is its novelty since "innovation often relies on completely new technological principles, new architectures or new materials" (Gemünden, Salomo & Hölzle 2007, 410). It also brings about change (Tidd & al. 2005, 10). This raises an important question: to whom is the innovation actually new. A technology that has widely been used in industrialised countries can be considered an innovation when imported to developing countries while not being new per se. Therefore, innovation can also be regarded as "something that is judged as new" (Schweizer 2006, 166), and the perceived degree of novelty always depends on the person or group examining the change (Tidd & al. 2005, 13). In other words, "The innovation can be called radical in the technological dimension if the knowledge about the product architecture or its components significantly differs from existing knowledge" whereas "the innovation is radical for the market if the innovation satisfies former unsatisfied needs for the first time" (Gemünden & al. 2007, 410).

One more classification of innovation is that of technological and administrative innovations [equals technological process innovations and organisational process innovations in the category by Fagerberg et al. 2006] (Kimberly & Evanisko 1981, 692). In essence, there are two types of innovations: incremental (continuous) and radical (discontinuous) (Tidd et al. 2005; Trott 2005). Incremental innovations are continuous improvements of existing innovations, such as new models of cars, while radical innovations are discontinuous one time inventions that profoundly change customers' behaviour, such as the first car ever made (Tidd et al 2005, 11-12). In other words, they are "new both to the firm and to the market" (Sandberg 2007, 265). These 'new-to-the-world' innovations are the rarest type and the level of risk associated with them is without a doubt the highest (Cooper & Edgett 1999, 11).

Amidst all these definitions, it is worthwhile to notice that in the extensive body of literature on which this report is based innovation has been defined in different terms or not at all. For example Howell and Higgins (1990) only studied technological innovations while Gemünden and others (2007) examined radical innovations. In the thesis the term innovation encompasses all the four possible types of innovation as defined by Fagerberg and others (2006) and no distinction is made whether they are radical or incremental. According to some researchers, the fact that separates innovation from mere 'invention' is that it has been successfully commercialised (Trott 2005, 15) and "innovation is driven by the ability to see connections, to spot opportunities and to take advantage of them" (Tidd & al. 2005, 3). Here, the idea need not be commercialised at all to be considered an innovation. The exact classification of innovation adopted for this paper is taken from Andersson and Berggren (2007, 439): "An innovation means that the idea or invention is realized in a product or solution." Thus, innovation in this study does not only mean a product or a service made for customers but also a new process or improved method within the organisation that aims at better performance and efficiency.

As scholars agree on the importance of innovations for creating competitive advantage for companies, there is a growing agreement that innovation is facilitated and supported by innovation champions and that innovation success is closely related to the emergence of such an individual (see for example Howell & Higgins 1990; Jenssen & Jørgensen 2003; Coakes & Smith 2007). Shane (1995, 58) explained it well: "Championing is the process by which an individual employs various strategies to get members of an organization to support a new idea that other members of the organisation do not initially support". Due to the amount of different names given to these champions and the ongoing debate as to the strategies champions use for promoting innovations, the whole concept of innovation championing will be discussed in more detail in chapter 2.1.

Most organisations of today do realize their need to innovate for survival - and more importantly growth - but innovation is often resisted because people have a tendency to prefer the 'status quo' of things and to be afraid of change (Lawless & Price 1992; Shane 1995; Schweizer 2006). This is where innovation champions are needed: to break down the organisational resistance and to implement the mindset for accepting changes (Howell & Higgins 1990). Some studies (Coakes & Smith 2007; Howell & Higgins 1990) have demonstrated that innovation champions are special people with particular personality types. It is champion's technical competence, familiarity with the innovation and the organisation, drive and aggressiveness, and political astuteness that tend to differentiate them (Chakrabarti 1974; Howell & Higgins 1990).

1.2 Research purpose and subobjectives

In the innovation championing literature briefly presented above, the researchers paid little attention, however, to identifying these 'change agents' in organisations. Previous research provides also little guidance on how managers can 'get the most' out of them, except on a very general level, like creating an environment conductive to new ideas and adopting an appropriate management style. Some suggestions to these questions might be found in entrepreneurship and leadership studies (Howell & Higgins 1990). As Professor Kathrin Möslein from University of Erlangen-Nuremberg and Center for Leading Innovation and Cooperation in Germany states: "Leadership studies are mostly found in psychology and social psychology, while innovation has been the territory of engineer studies. The challenge lies in combining the two." (Alaja 2008, 16) The thesis is in part aiming at answering that challenge.

Another problem of the extant research in the field is, that it tends to concentrate on studying management level employees, which somewhat anticipates the gender and age of the respondents, for example Howell & Higgins (1990, 328) only studied managers from executive and middle level, all of whom were male and whose average age was 45. In addition, in innovation studies the sample usually consists of technologically oriented industries, such as an engineering services firm (Sim et al. 2007, 426), R&D organisations (Andersson & Berggren 2007, 437) and firms in technological areas (Gemünden et al. 2007, 412) Thus the findings are rarely valid in other situations and therefore, more studies in other research settings are needed. However, some of these studies did seem to construct their samples from a variety of functional areas in organisations (Howell & Higgins 1990, 328; Shane 1995, 47) and not just the R&D departments, which could have been the case.

In the thesis the case company investigated is Itella (formerly Posti 'the Finnish Post') and the specific object of study is one of its three business groups: Itella

Logistics. More information about the case company can be found in chapter 5.1. Introduction of case company. While post service may not traditionally be the most innovative of industries, times are changing. Itella has got a clear need to innovate in order to stay in the game in this era of email and mobile phones that clearly diminishes its monopoly as the primary way of connecting people. The business group Itella Logistics was chosen by the case company as a suitable object of study.

Because of the importance of innovation champions to companies, such as the case company Itella, management must be able to identify these people and to motivate them in the most suitable way. In general, employees can be managed to perform with material motivators, such as monetary wages and fringe benefits, and immaterial motivators, such as praise, commands, participation and autonomy (Frey & Osterloh 2002, 82). What is the driving force behind innovation champions for promoting change: is it monetary rewards, recognition by peers and supervisors, or simply self-fulfilment? The thesis aims at answering this fundamental question by combining some established theories relevant to the topic with empirical research findings of the case company. Thus, the purpose of the study is to analyse how innovation champions can be identified and motivated within an organisation with the help of the following subobjectives:

1) To identify innovation champions within an organisation
2) To analyse what motivates innovation champions for promoting innovations.

Identification of innovation champions here means finding the right people in the organisation that already are or have the potential to become innovation champions. It will be done by taking a look at background variables of innovation champions, such as age, gender, years in the organisation and so on, and also studying what possible personality traits innovation champions might possess. These are to help the company in finding its current and potential innovation champions. This is the first part of the process. The second is to understand what motivates these individuals for promoting innovations and how can organisations best help them to stay maximally motivated in doing so. In addition to these subojectives, the case company requested a look at the current state of their innovation system and how it could be improved. As innovation champions would be familiar with the innovation system and would know how to improve it, this dimension was added to the original study plan.

The main aim of the thesis, however, is to look at innovation champions at an individual level rather than organisational but its final aim is to provide organisations with a clear tool set for managerial purposes. The following figure will show the scope of the thesis with the help of the individual and organisational factors related to the emergence of innovation champions.

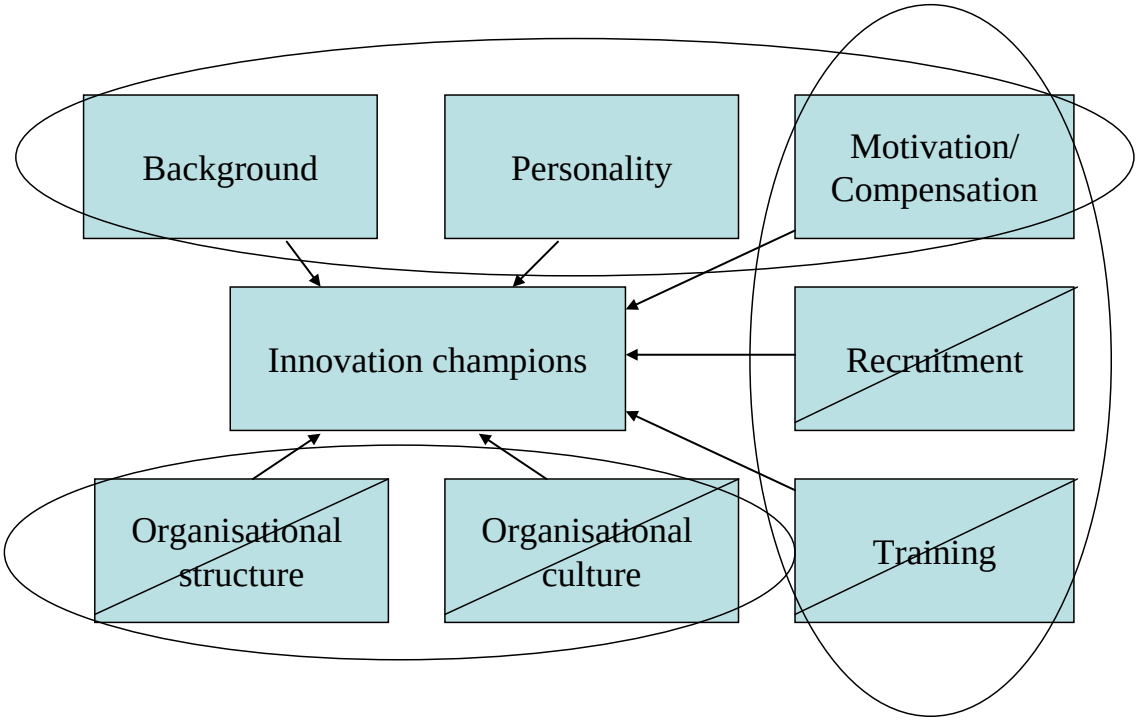


Figure 1 Scope of the thesis

In the centre of the figure is the topic of the thesis, the innovation champion, and right below it are the factors by which innovation championing behaviour is encouraged or hindered in organisations: organisational structure and culture. These important factors will not be discussed in detail in the thesis, which is shown by crossing over these boxes, although referring to them in analysing the case company will hardly be avoided. These important aspects are left out of this study because of the available resources. Itella is one of the biggest companies in Finland, and to adequately describe its organisational structure and culture would require substantially more time in the field. Also, the organisational structure of Itella has only recently gone through major changes and their impacts on the company culture are yet to be seen. On the right hand side of the figure are the three major human resource management (HRM) tasks every company faces: recruitment, training and motivation/ compensation. These could have been placed below the organisational structure and culture but to highlight their importance they now stand alone. It is important to study these aspects in relation to innovation because HRM and innovation seem to be closely connected (De Leede & Looise 2005, 108). Again, the impact of recruitment and training to innovation championing are not studied and this is marked by crossing over these boxes. Again, due to the limited time and resources, recruitment and training are left out of this study and only motivation is studied. Thus, it is motivation/ compensation aspect that is in the interest of this research from a managerial point of view.

Finally, above the innovation champion are the individual aspects that contribute to an individual emerging as an innovation champion: the individual's background (e.g.

education, career development, and life history), personality (especially in terms of extroversion and introversion) and finally motivation. The motivation/ compensation box is showing both an individual aspect of the employee as well one of the managerial factors of the company. One could say that it is the concept of motivation that is in the heart of this study, and that ties together both the individual and the organisation: what motivates an individual to do their best at work and how can an organisation help them do it? This topic is important, as Innovation Researcher Apilo said: "Compensation procedures are among the greatest obstacles for innovation in Finland" (Alaja 2008, 16).

Such a managerially-oriented problem is best answered through a constructive research method that will be discussed more in the methodology chapter. To put it simply, constructive research aims at constructing a model. Here, the model will reflect both existing literature in the field as well as hands-on collected, fresh empirical data from a selected case company, Itella Logistics. The model will be constructed and refined in three consecutive steps. First step is to review existing innovation champion and motivation literature, and also other research problem relevant research, such as entrepreneur and creativity studies. Literature review forms a starting point of the thesis because there already exists adequately refined theories of all the interest points of this study but the aim here is to combine them in unique way that will support the purpose of this study. Thus, a model of the theory is formed based on the literature review. This theory-model building will also be done in two separate steps: one for personality and the other for motivation theories that will finally be merged in to one.

In the second step the empirical data, which is collected by one-on-one interviews, is analysed keeping the theory always in mind. The theory model is then modified according to the findings of the empirical data analysis. This results in a preliminary model for identification and motivation of innovation champions in organisations aiming fulfilling the research purpose. At this stage a discussion round is organised with the case company to gather their insights and thoughts of the model. Based on this validation process, the final model for identification and motivation of innovation champions in organisations is formed and discussed.

An experimental study concerns itself with causal relationships with variables, and a survey study with correlational ones but a field study is more concerned with describing or modelling a phenomenon. The description and modelling is then directed to understanding better phenomena already discussed in the literature. (McKinnon 1988, 36). The main aim of this study is not to explicitly demonstrate the practical usability of the made construction, the aim is rather to increase understanding of the innovation championing phenomenon in general through this case study.

2 CHARACTERISTICS OF INNOVATION CHAMPIONS

2.1 Definition of innovation champions

Before discussing how to identify and motivate innovation champions, one has to understand the concept itself. That is not altogether simple as there have been almost as many definitions of innovation champions as there have been researchers investigating them. According to one researcher, "a champion is an individual that is willing to take risks by enthusiastically promoting the development and/or implementation of an innovation inside a corporation" (Jensen & Jørgensen 2004, 65). Another suggests that "innovation champions are catalysts or inhibitors for intermittent or ongoing knowledge sharing efforts" (Coakes & Smith 2007, 78). To put it simply, innovation champions are people who seek sponsorship for an idea and attempt to build a coalition of supporters for it (Scott & Bruce 1994, 582).

The innovation championing process happens when an individual employs various strategies to get members of an organization to support a new idea that other members of the organisation do not initially support (Shane 1995, 58). Championing can also be classified as the practice of putting effort into creative ideas and bringing them to life (De Jong & Kemp 2003, 192). Here is one illustration of the role of an innovation champion in NPD (New Product Development) process, see figure 2.

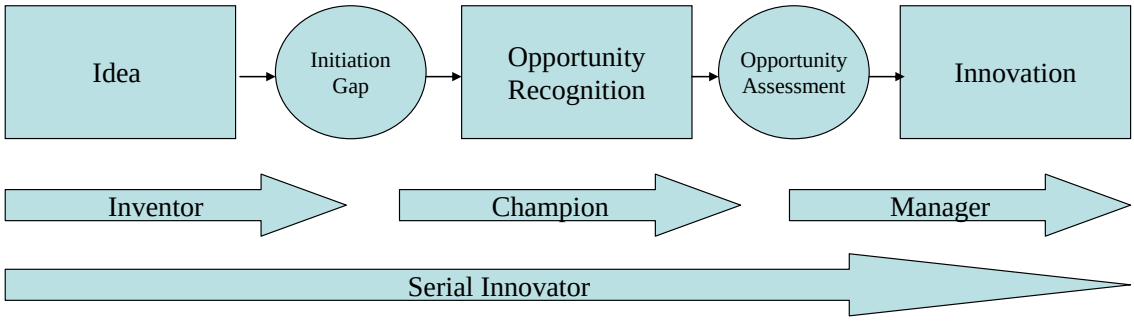


Figure 2 Serial Innovator Activity in the NPD Process (Sim et al. 2007, 425)

There have been several names for these innovation supporting individuals, such as gatekeepers, technical innovators, user champions and business champions. Innovation champion is only one of them, perhaps the first one ever given (see Howell & Higgins 1990 for a complete review). Others include corporate champions, or knowledge entrepreneurs, (in practise meaning corporate entrepreneurs or intrapreneurs), product champions, executive champions and organisational change agents. There has also been a division into bottom-line oriented managers (stewards) and creative technical employees (creators) whose interests often clash in the process of technological

innovation (Austin & Nolan 2007). Some have subdivided the roles of an innovation champion further into organisational buffer, network facilitator, organisational maverick and transformational leader (Shane 1995). These will be further discussed in relation to an innovation champion's national culture.

Rost and others (2007, 351) defined innovation champions yet differently. They talk about promoters as "the specialization of a person on only one work role" and measured champion "as the concentration of work roles". The five work roles (categories) were:

1) Expert promoter,
2) Power promoter,
3) Process promoter,
4) Relationship promoter
5) Technological gatekeeper (Rost et al. 2007, 350).

Expert promoters encourage innovations by means of specific knowledge, in particular, technical and/ or procedure-specific know-how. Thus, they assist by the actual development of new products or procedure. Power promoters promote innovations by means of hierarchic power. They provide protection for those in favour of innovations and order sanctions against their opponents. In reality, these persons usually have a managerial position. Process promoters encourage innovations by acting as an agent between the technical and economic world by means of organisational knowledge, and they have good negotiation capabilities. Relationship promoters, as the title suggests, promote innovation-related business relationships inside and between the organisations. In particular they know how to build and maintain relationships to important actors and third parties. The last category, technological gatekeepers, supports cross-organisational knowledge transfer by searching out and evaluating external technical information. (Rost et al. 2007, 350.)

In the thesis, the term innovation champion was chosen. Firstly, because it has the actual word 'innovation' in it, which clearly indicates the main issue it has to do with. Secondly, being the original name of the concept, one pays tribute to its long tradition in the innovation literature. In the thesis an innovation champion is considered a person who encourages innovations in organisations through their expertise, attitude and social networks. There was no need to have such a narrowly described, complex definition of innovation champions as found in previous literature (see for example Shane 1995; Rost et al. 2007) but a broader, more flexible view was adopted. The next issue to discuss is what demographic variables one can expect to find in innovation champions according to theory.

2.2 Demographics of innovation champions

Howell and Higgins (1990) investigated project champions of technological innovations and their sample consisted of male executive or middle managers across a variety of functional areas and their average age was 45 years. However, the study found no significant difference between champions and nonchampions with regard to age. Rost and others (2007, 348-349) studied 533 inventors from 69 different companies in the automotive industry and in their sample found the average age of 46 years. Maslow talks about self-actualising people that share similar characteristics to innovation champions (these will be discussed more in the next chapter) and states that perhaps it is not possible in our society for young people to be at this stage of self-actualization (Maslow 1987, 126). Therefore, one can also expect innovation champions to be older employees rather than younger.

"The only difference between women and men that is absolute is that women bear children and men beget them." (Hofstede 2001, 280). Biological differences between women and men are recognized in human societies all over the world, but what is made of those differences varies considerably because "biological differences between women and men tell us nothing about the general social significance of those differences". In the contemporary social sciences, gender is considered as a fundamentally cultural construct rather than a natural phenomenon and it is a given, that "the world is divided into gender specific domains and spaces, and into gender specific tasks" (Moore 1994, 71-72).

This was somewhat proven in a famous studies of cultural values by Geert Hofstede where he found significant gender difference trends in relation to one's career. He found that advancement, earnings, training and up-to-datedness were more important for men whereas women valued friendly atmosphere, position security, physical conditions, manager and cooperation more in their jobs (Hofstede 2001, 281). However, he did not find any significant gender differences for job content goals (challenge, use of skills) or for private life goals (personal time, desirable area) (Hofstede 2001, 281). Also Shane (1995) concluded in his related study of championing preference roles that only a very small portion of the variance in championing roles was explained by the demographic characteristics of the respondents. However, he claims that "championing roles require many behaviour patterns on which men and women differ" without justifying what these behaviour patterns may be (Shane 1995, 58). Also, entrepreneurs of our time seem to be more successful if they are white males rather than women or minorities. This may be due to the resources they can assemble and the experience they can bring to bear. (Sexton & Kasarda 1992, 305).

In terms of motivation and especially competition, Deci and Ryan (1985) found differences between men and women in their studies. They found that men are more

oriented toward competition and they prefer it to no competition. In addition, their desire to engage in future competitions is more dependent on current competitive outcomes than is the case for women so that competition seems to undermine the intrinsic motivation of women more than that of men. To put it simply, when women win their intrinsic motivation increases and when they loose, their intrinsic motivation decreases whereas for men it is the exact opposite: when men loose their intrinsic motivation increases and when they win, their intrinsic motivation decreases. (Deci & Ryan 1985, 327-329.) Another difference they found was that women saw praise as being controlling whereas men considered it more as informational (Deci & Ryan 1985, 99). In general, whether a person sees something as informational, controlling or amotivating is influenced by interpersonal context (Deci & Ryan 1985, 112). More of their findings are presented in the chapter of intrinsic motivation.

In this era of globalisation many MNCs (multinational corporations) are struggling to decide where to locate their innovation efforts to guarantee them the best chances to succeed (Ghoshal 1987). Some researchers believe it is the cultural values of people that make other societies more innovative (Hofstede 2001). Shane (1995) has investigated how the preference for different championing roles is affected by national cultures in terms of their relation to uncertainty acceptance. This is a measure derived from Hofstede's cultural dimension called uncertainty avoidance, which means the tendency of members of a national culture to tolerate uncertain and ambiguous situations (Hofstede 2001). The four innovation championing roles in different stages of the innovation process as derived from literature by Shane (1995) are: network facilitator, transformational leader, organizational maverick and organisational buffer.

The study by Shane (1995) showed that the more uncertainty-accepting the society from which an individual came, the more likely that individual was to prefer all the above-mentioned championing roles. A limitation of the study is, however, that it only looked at preferences for championing roles rather than the actual championing roles individuals in reality possessed. The research also raised a question for another measurement of national culture than the country of birth, for example, the country where one has spent most of their working lives in. (Shane 1995.)

Many researchers have associated educational level of employees positively with innovation supporting behaviour and innovative activities (Hambrick & Mason 1984; Kimberly & Evanisko 1981). However, Howell and Higgins (1990) found in their study that champions and nonchampions were not significantly different in educational level. Again, there is no extensive body of literature discussing the effect of education to championing behaviour and one has the option to turn again to studies of entrepreneurship for comparison. There are no definite answers as to whether level of education is associated with becoming an entrepreneur. However, for high-technology firms, education to the master's degree level tends to be better than lower or higher

levels of education. (Sexton & Kasarda 1992, 306-307.) The other similarities of entrepreneurs and innovation champions will be discussed more later with regard to personality.

However, several researchers have established links with one's organisational position and championing behaviour (Hoffman & Hegarty 1993; Hambrick & Mason 1984; Jenssen & Jørgensen 2004). Here the term 'organisational position' tries to capture the aspects of work experience (in years), job level and functional area.

Younger and less experienced managers have been found to be more favourable towards pursuing innovative strategies than older managers who are more inclined to the established ways of the organisation (Hambrick & Mason 1984). Howell and Higgins (1990) noted, however, that work experience gives individuals more credibility as champions. Jenssen and Jørgensen (2004) agree that a longer career may imply previous experience in innovation related projects, and thus enhance one's chances of emerging as a champion. Rost and others (2007, 349) found that their sample had approximately 21 years of employment. Howell and Higgins (1990) also found in their research that champions were not significantly different in job level or functional area. Some researchers then again have come to opposite conclusions: not surprisingly, especially technical people and people with scientific and engineering backgrounds were found to be more supportive of innovation and change (Chakrabarti 1974).

As the demographics of innovation champions, age, gender, national culture, education, organisational position and length of career are investigated in this thesis because knowing these may help to identify innovation champions in organisations. Age, gender and national culture were chosen because they are considered the "basic" demographics of people in general and are easy to discover in research subjects. Education, organisational position and length of career were chosen as they impact one's working life and were considered thus to also have an effect on innovation championing behaviour. Other demographics such as sexual orientation, family status (single, married, divorced), height, weight and similar were not considered to impact innovation championing behaviour and therefore were not studied in this research. We will now turn to look at some of the results suggested by innovation championing literature to determine the prevailing demographics of innovation champions i.e. whether the demographics chosen to be studied in this research do have an effect on the emergence of innovation championing behaviour. Next the personality characteristics of innovation champions will be discussed.

2.3 Personality of innovation champions

2.3.1 Extrovert type

One of the most widely used methods in personality research is the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and the sixteen different personality types (Briggs & Myers Briggs 1977). The indicator is sometimes credited as the Jung-Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. This is because Myers and Briggs based their research on Jung's model of four preferences for taking in information and making decisions. Jung stated that human behaviour on an individual's part is not random but is fairly consistent over time. Our preferences for how we take on information, how we reach conclusions and which world we prefer, inner or outer, seems to be innate. (Hirsch 1985.)

What is of relevance for the study in hand is Jung's famous introversion/ extraversion separation (see for example Hirsch 1985[1].). Jung distinguishes two differing attitudes to life, two modes of reacting to circumstances: introversion and extraversion. The extroverted types have interest "in events, in people and things, a relationship with them", whereas the introverted type "lacks confidence in relation to people and things, tends to be unsociable, and prefers reflection to activity". The direction of the extroverted type's thought is towards the outside world, whereas the introverted type looks within him/herself. He argues that this differentiation in attitude begins so early in life that it can be considered innate. Parallel to Maslow's self-actualising individual, "the extroverted type is sociable and confident in unfamiliar surroundings, -- is generally on good terms with the world and even when disagreeing with it can still be described as related to it". (Fordham 1964, 29-31.) Different to the self-actualising individual who accepts the world as it is (Maslow 1987, 128-130), "they prefer to argue and quarrel, or try to reshape it according to their own pattern" (Fordham 29-30). Describing human beings as either introverted or extroverted, Jung means that our habitual consciousness is either the one or the other while the other remains unconscious. However, he adds that no one is completely introverted or extroverted, "but manifests the unconscious attitude at times, though in an inferior way". (Fordham 1964, 31.)

In the light of the innovation championing literature it would also seem just to claim that innovation champions are extroverted rather than introverted because the primary role of champions in championing innovation is influencing others through their social

[1] Original source: Jung, C.G. (1928) Personality types. In: Contributions to Analytical Psychology, ed. by Routledge & Kegan Paul, 295-312.

networks using variety of influence tactics (Howell & Higgins 1990). Thus, it seems reasonable to assume that champions find energy in things and people and social interaction rather than in their inner worlds. According to Jung, "the extroverted adult is sociable and interested in anything and everything; he likes organisations, groups, community gatherings, and parties, and is usually active and helpful". He also describes these types as optimistic and enthusiastic, though he says that their enthusiasm does not last too well –and neither do their relationships with others. He also criticizes the extroverted individuals as superficial and dependent on making a good impression: they enjoy nothing more than an audience, dislike being alone, think reflection morbid and lack self-criticism. However, Jung concludes that this type is well adapted to society and "is the type that keeps our business and social like going". (Fordham 1964, 32)

Jung also pays some attention to the different thinking style of extroverted types as well, restating that they are interested in facts and material and again emphasise their connection with reality. He says that if they are concerned with ideas, they will be derived either from tradition or from the atmosphere of the time and thus, they will arise from what is generally known as 'reality'". The merit of extroverted thinking is its 'down-to' earth nature', its concentration on objects and the discipline that this imposes. However, but contrary to what one might think he sees them as being rather conservative so that it becomes all too easily tied to facts; they cannot see beyond them, or free itself for the purpose of establishing an abstract idea. He does not see this as being any less creative style of thinking and mentions Charles Darwin as an excellent example of a creative, extroverted thinker. His theory of evolution was at the same time creative and firmly tied to facts. (Fordham 1964, 35-36.)

2.3.2 Entrepreneurial orientation

The concept of 'intrapreneurship' combines the role of employee and entrepreneur and it gives the company an opportunity to capitalize on the imagination and ideas of entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurs get a chance to exercise their creative talents without the risks they would normally face on their own (Igbaria et al. 1999, 46). Howell and Higgins (1990) named risk-taking as one of innovation champion's main personality traits. They defined it as a propensity to enjoy taking chances. This type of behaviour has often been associated with entrepreneurs as well, together with the need for achievement and locus of control (Sexton & Kasarda 1992, 308). It is said in the case of entrepreneurs that "a belief that one can make a difference would lead to proactive behaviour and higher performance" (Sexton & Kasarda 1992, 309). This should hold true for innovation champions as well. Therefore the entrepreneurship

literature can help to identify the important dimensions of the champion personality in terms of, for example, education, experience and gender.

In the case of entrepreneurs, it is believed that experience in the field of one's business should enable the founder to use product and market knowledge, as well as contacts, to make better decisions about their businesses (Sexton & Kasarda 1992, 307). Also, broader experience could be expected to lead to higher performance because of the ability to tackle wider range of problems (Sexton & Kasarda 1992, 307).

In addition to the risk-taking attitude, entrepreneurs and champions seem to share several other personality characteristics such as: social independence, political astute, persistence and dedication (Howell & Higgins 1990). However, these are mostly based on researchers' impressions of innovation champions derived from literature reviews rather than actual empirical research. For example, Howell and Higgins (1990) actually found that in terms of endurance (i.e. continuing even in the face of great difficulty) champions and nonchampions did not significantly differ from each other.

2.4 Synthesis of characteristics of innovation champions

Several theories have now been looked at in order to identify innovation champions in organisations. Based on that literature review, a model for identification of innovation champions is formulated in terms of their demographics and personality. See figure 3.

Demographics	**Personality**
older male higher education technical/ scientific background longer career experience in the field managerial position	interest in outside world social confident with unfamiliarity down-to-earth nature in touch with reality risk-taking need for achievement locus of control persistent

Figure 3 Characteristic of innovation champions

Based on previous research it seems that innovation champions are older rather than younger employees because they can use their longer career and experience in the field

for promoting innovations. They presumably also are in managerial position that allows them more power, resources and networks for innovation championing. It is conceivable, that innovation champions have higher rather than lower education and tend to have a technical/ scientific background. Therefore, innovation champions can be assumed to be males rather than females. It was also found that innovation championing behaviour is more likely to occur in uncertainty-accepting societies but because this research is only studying one national culture, this demographic was not included in the model.

In terms of personality, innovation champions were classified as extroverts. That is, they have interest in events, people and things (=outside world in general), they are social, confident with unfamiliarity, have down-to-earth nature and are in touch with reality. Comparison with entrepreneurship studies showed that innovation champions are prone for risk-taking, they have a high need for achievement, and that they are persistent even in the face of difficulties.

Next it is time to look what is the motivation that drives innovation champions generally in their working lives and especially what motivates them for encouraging innovations and thus, becoming innovation champions.

3 MOTIVATION OF INNOVATION CHAMPIONS

3.1 Hierarchy of needs

3.1.1 Basic need hierarchy

"For organizations to thrive, indeed in many cases even to survive, members of the organization must be motivated to perform well." (Deci & Ryan 1985, 294). To start a discussion about motivation of innovation champions, one must understand how individual motivation in general operates in people. Abraham Maslow's famous five-level hierarchy of needs is a good starting point for this investigation. This is because "the study of motivation is the exploration of the energization and direction of behaviour". "Energy in motivation theory is fundamentally a matter of needs" and "direction in motivation theory concerns the processes and structures - - that direct action toward the satisfaction of needs". (Deci & Ryan 1985, 3.)

According to Maslow, an individual's actions are motivated by an on-going quest to fulfil one's set of inborn needs and those needs have a certain hierarchy in the order they must be fulfilled. (Maslow 1987). According to another researcher: "People's needs are not simply given and unproblematic, they always require an interpretation." (Moore 1994, 93). However, Maslow does state that "any behaviour tends to be determined by several or *all* of the basic needs simultaneously rather than by only one of them" (Maslow 1987, 29). Typical way of portraying Maslow's need hierarchy is that of a pyramid (see figure 4).

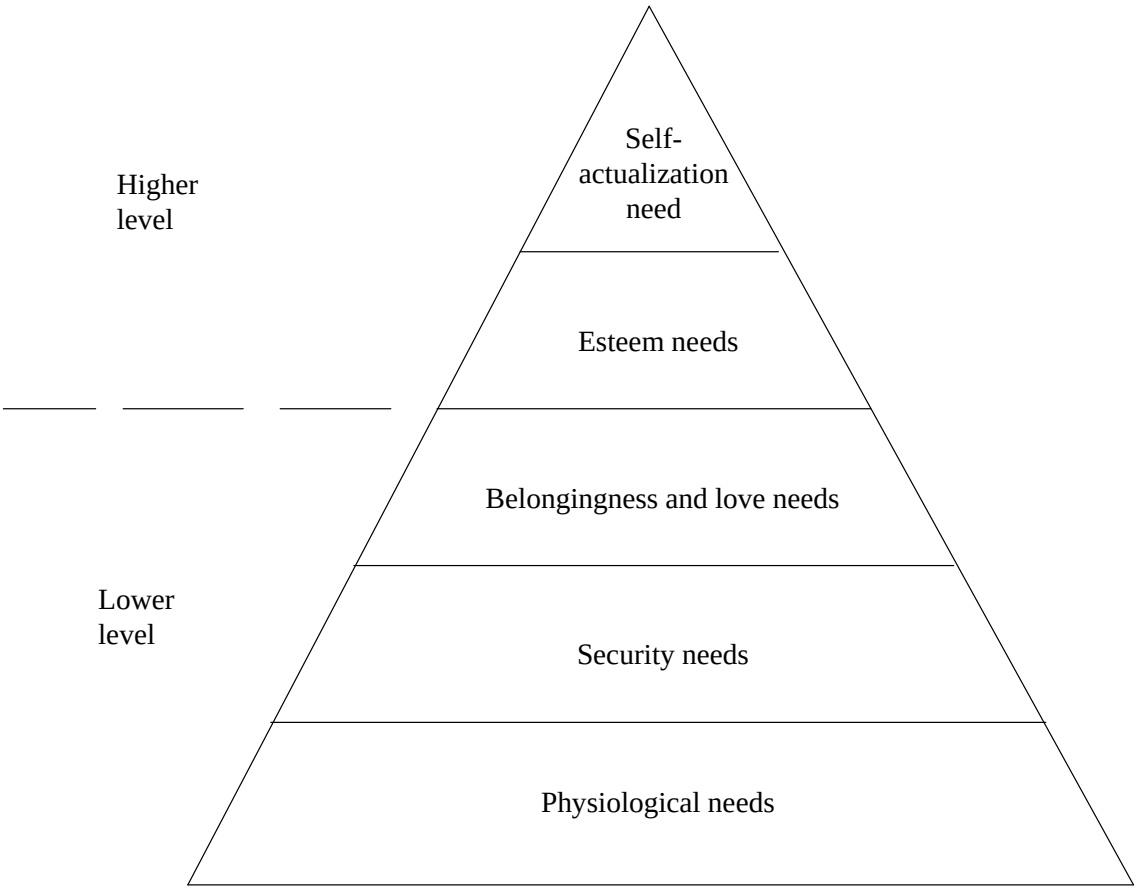


Figure 4 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (based on Maslow 1998)

The basic needs by Maslow (from bottom up) are: physiological needs, security needs, belongingness and love needs, esteem needs and self-actualisation need. First three of those needs can be classified to lower level and the last two to higher level needs. (Maslow 1987). Maslow also briefly mentions basic cognitive needs that are: desires to know and to understand, and aesthetic needs (Maslow 1987, 23-26) and sometimes these can also been seen in the pyramid in between of lower and higher needs.

The first level needs are *physiological needs* such as the need to eat and sleep. These needs are dominant and need to be relatively well satisfied in order to move to the next level. When these kind of basic needs have been satisfied, at once other (and higher) needs emerge, and these now dominate the organism. When these needs in turn are satisfied, again new (and still higher) needs emerge, and so on. (Maslow 1987, 15-18). The second level needs are *safety needs* including: security; stability; dependency; protection; freedom from fear, anxiety and chaos; need for structure, order, law and limits; strength in the protector and so on. These needs are less dominant than physiological needs but they still need to be satisfied in order to move to the next level. (Maslow 1987, 18-19.) Third level needs are *belongingness and love needs*, which are of social nature and refer to our need to communicate and form relationships with other human beings. The belongingness needs refer to one's need to belong in a group, such

as a family, circle of friends, religious groups etc. Love needs involve both giving and receiving love, whereas sex in Maslow's need hierarchy is considered as a purely physiological need. These needs have to be fairly well gratified and then the cycle repeats itself. (Maslow 1987, 20-21)

After these so-called deficiency motivated needs (physiological needs, security needs, belongingness and love needs) have been fulfilled, a person is ready to pursue the so-called growth motivated (i.e. higher level) needs of esteem and self-actualisation. The fourth level *esteem needs* refer to one's need for respect from others as well as the need for self-respect. A detailed list of esteem needs include firstly: the desire for strength, achievement, mastery and competence, confidence in the face of the world, and independence and freedom, and secondly: desire for reputation or prestige, status, fame and glory, dominance, recognition, attention, importance, dignity, or appreciation. Satisfaction of the self-esteem needs lead to feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability, and adequacy, of being useful and necessary in the world. Fulfilling these needs is not necessary for mere survival but failure to do so can evoke feelings of inferiority, of weakness and of helplessness that in turn can lead to mental illnesses. (Maslow 1987, 20-21).

Maslow pays a lot of attention to the notion of mental health, which relates to successful fulfilment of *all* the needs, including the highest level *self-actualisation need.* Others have found in their study a link between the effects of emotion to motivation so that if people are happy and excited about their work, they will work hard (Amabile & Kramer 2007, 76). In Maslow' theory, self-actualization refers to people's desire for self-fulfilment, the tendency for them to become actualised in what they are potentially: "the desire to become more and more of what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming". In this last level individual differences are the greatest and their emergence rests on other needs having been satisfied. Often, not always, a new discontent and restlessness in the individual arises, unless the person is doing what he or she individually is fitted for. Here Maslow becomes almost philosophical in stating that: "What humans can be, they must be. They must be true to their own nature." (Maslow 1987, 22). This concept of self-actualisation relates well to innovation champions and thus deserves a chapter of its own.

3.1.2 Self-actualizing people

Maslow pays extensive attention to individuals he calls *self-actualizing people.* According to him, these are people that have had all their lower level needs fulfilled all the way up to the level of self-actualization and are now "doing the best they are capable of doing" (Maslow 1987, 125-126). For his study, Maslow chose subjects from

personal acquaintances and friends, and among public and historical persons (Maslow 1987, 128). To explain how the motivation of self-actualizing people profoundly differ from that of others, he claims metaphorically that these people are living instead of *preparing* to live (Maslow 1987, 133). Since self-actualising people do not need to strive for fulfilling their basic needs, unlike others, they can concentrate on developing themselves. Maslow discusses the characteristics of these self-actualizing people in great detail and for this study it is noteworthy that these individuals seem to share common characteristics to those of innovation champions. In light of this theory it is reasonable to expect that innovation champions have for the most part been able to fulfil their lower level needs and can therefore be classified as self-actualizing individuals. The characteristics of self-actualising individuals are summarised in the figure 5 below and those they share with innovation champions are selected.

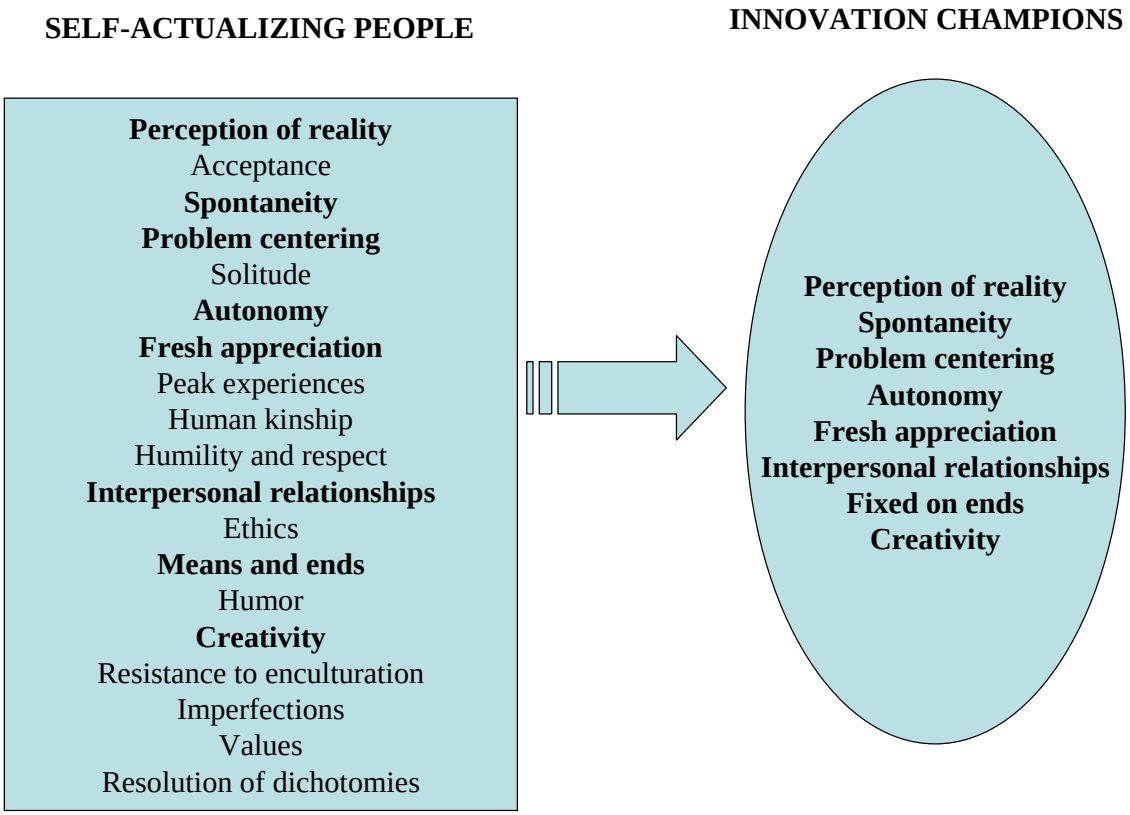


Figure 5 Common characteristics of self-actualizing people and innovation champions

These characteristics of self-actualizing people where they show parallels with innovation champions are now discussed. The ones that cannot reasonably be assumed to be characteristics of innovation champions are excluded here. These include: acceptance, solitude, peak experiences, human kinship, humility and respect, ethics, humour, resistance to enculturation, imperfections, values and resolution of

dichotomies. Not all of these are "characteristics" but in lack of a better word they are here so named.

According to Maslow, self-actualizing people have a different and more real *perception of reality* compared with people who have not been able to adequately satisfy their lower level needs. That is, they are more able to see what is real and what is not. Because of this "superior relationship with reality", the unknown is not frightening for self-actualising people, and they have no need to cling to the familiar. Maslow concludes that doubt, tentativeness and uncertainty can thus be perceived by them a "pleasantly stimulating challenge". (Maslow 1987, 128-130). Also a more recent researcher on creativity, Thompson, noted that "the idea person" does not accept reality as it is even though he or she is highly realistic but that the creative person "escapes into other realities" (Thompson 1992, 149). There has been no research denoting the perceptions of reality innovation champions possess but as existing literature views innovation champions as risk-takers and avert (see for example Chakrabarti 1974; Howell & Higgins 1990), it seems justified saying that innovation champions are not afraid of the unknown. If they where, they would not be promoting new, risky ventures in organisations.

Relating to this perception of reality, self-actualising people have a better acceptance of themselves and others, which in turn leads to *spontaneity*: they can disperse rules when doing something they are interested in and prefer freedom in their lives. However, these people can also act conventionally when need be. (Maslow 1987, 130) There is no knowing whether innovation champions share this acceptance of themselves and others but their ability to neglect rules is well documented (see for example Howell & Higgins 1990; Jenssen & Jorgensen 2003).

Self-actualising people also differ from others in their *problem centring* so that they are problem centred rather than ego centred. This follows naturally from their acceptance of themselves; since they generally are not problems for themselves, they are free to concentrate fully on problems outside themselves. Self-actualising people are also more likely to be concerned with basic issues and eternal questions of philosophical or ethical nature. (Maslow 1987, 133-134). Without any research data on problem solving abilities of innovation champions one is short of conclusions here. However, it might be reasonable to expect innovation champions to be more problem centred than ego centred since they are enthusiastically promoting new ideas in their work places and thus finding ways to tackle the problem of organisational resistance. Following from this, for self-actualising people *fixed on ends* are clearly distinguishable, meaning that they are fixed on ends rather than on means. It is possible for them to make a routine activity an intrinsically enjoyable event (Maslow 1987, 141). This should hold true for innovation champions as well because they use various means for reaching the desired end i.e. the adoption of an innovation (see for example Chakrabarti 1974; Howell &

Higgins 1990; Jenssen & Jorgensen 2003). Innovation champions might be better than most in discovering problems as they want to promote new solutions.

Maslow found out in his studies that self-actualisating people have no problem being alone and in fact, they seem to prefer *solitude* to a greater degree than other people. This may in part come from their tendency to stick by their own interpretation of a situation rather than "go with the flow". And also because self-actualizing individuals depend less on other people for fulfilling their needs, they are seen to show an unusual degree of detachment (Maslow 1987, 134-135). There is no clear indication that innovation champions would share this quality of detachment with self-actualising people described by Maslow but from existing literature (see for example Howell & Higgins 1990; Jenssen & Jorgensen 2003) it can be assumed that they do.

Also, self-actualising people and innovation champions are both presumed to have a strong inclination towards *autonomy*, that is, their relative independence of the physical and social environment. Another meaning of autonomy by Maslow is "self-decision, self-government, being an active, responsible, self-disciplined, deciding agent rather than a pawn, or helplessly "determined" by others, being strong rather than weak Also Deci (1995, 2) says: "To be autonomous mean to act in accord with one's self –it means feeling free and volational in one's actions". Because self-actualisating people are motivated by their own development and continued growth on their own potentialities and latent resources, they are not dependent on extrinsic satisfactions. (Maslow 1987, 135-136) One could therefore expect that similarly innovation champions do not depend on extrinsic motivation in the work place but do what they are intrinsically motivated to do (see for example Lawless & Price 1992; Jenssen & Jorgensen 2003), and therefore, the best way for management to motivate them would simply give them maximum amount of autonomy in their jobs.

Maslow states that self-actualising people have a "capacity to appreciate again and again, freshly and naively, the basic goods of life, with awe, pleasure and wonder, and even ecstasy, however stale these experiences may have become to others". He calls this *fresh appreciation.* He says that for these people, even the casual workaday can be a thrilling experience. However, these intense moments only come occasionally and at the most unexpected moments. (Maslow 1987, 136) If seeing the world "afresh" is a prerequisite for creativity it would be fair to say innovation champions also have this ability (see for example Howell & Higgins 1990; Jenssen & Jorgensen 2003).

This notion leads us to one essential characteristic of both self-actualising people and innovation champions: *creativity.* Maslow compares the creativeness of self-actualising people to that of children and agrees with many other scientists (of whom we shall speak more in the next chapter) that it is probably a fundamental characteristic of common human nature. Drawing parallels to fresh appreciation talked earlier, he calls this creativity "fresh and naive, direct way of looking at life". This kind of creativeness,

according to Maslow, is an expression of healthy personality rather than a trait of characteristics, and is present whatever activity the person is engaged in. (Maslow 1987, 142-143).

3.2 Extrinsic motivation

3.2.1 Extrinsic motivation in general

There are two types of motivation that have been introduced in organisational literature: extrinsic and intrinsic. Extrinsically motivated employees work only to gain money and other benefits that they can satisfy their non-work-related needs with, whereas intrinsically motivated workers find their job to be satisfying per se (Frey & Osterloh 2002). Where intrinsic motivation comes from within a person, extrinsic motivation comes from outside that person. Extrinsic motivation means that people "are doing something in order to reach some goal that is *not* part of the activity itself – for example, earning some money, winning a prize, avoiding punishment, meeting a deadline, fulfilling someone else's orders, or getting a satisfactory evaluation" (Amabile 1999, 54)

These two forms of motivation, extrinsic and intrinsic, are related so that when one increases, the other one decreases (Frey & Osterloh 2002; Deci & Ryan 1985). In practise this means that even when employees are offered an extrinsic reward, such as a bonus, for something they are intrinsically motivated to do, their original level of motivation diminishes (Deci & Ryan 1985, 301). Thus, intrinsically motivated workers require less extrinsic compensation for their work. This is called the 'crowding-out effect' and it is true especially in creative and innovative activities where intrinsic motivation is essential (Frey & Osterloh 2002). One needs to foster intrinsic motivation with extrinsic rewards and thus, "the central problem is how to utilize extrinsic structures in such a way as to encourage self-regulation and not alienate [in the original text: children, here: employees] from the process of learning or stifle their intrinsic motivation" (Deci & Ryan 1985, 246). Reward structures experienced as controlling bring pressure, tension and undermine intrinsic motivation whereas structures experienced as informational do not (Deci & Ryan 1985, 299). Also, competitive-contingent rewards are seen as the most detrimental for intrinsic motivation but rewards appropriately linked to performance together with positive feedback in informal context are the most effective (Deci & Ryan 1985, 310).

Despite the fact that management of the innovation process has been studied extensively, the relationship of management systems to innovation has been neglected. The whole organisation can be encouraged to innovate when the management system is in order. (Alaja 2008, 16.) Interestingly, however, one study found that incentives by the management were more important for the employees than the managers showing sympathy (Grosse 2007, 453). The reason for this was that these incentives were closely connected to the success of a project because it ensured that the team members worked hard to reach the project goals (Grosse 2007, 453). Innovation researcher Apilo says that the greatest obstacles for innovation in Finland are the compensation procedures, such as individual bonuses and rewards. She thinks that rewards are too often based on individual performance even though in reality it takes many people to pave the way for innovation. She agrees that creating simple procedures for rewarding team performance is not easy but it is possible. (Alaja 2008, 16.) She also says that it is a question of a delicate balance: "If one is only concerned about cash flow, there is no future, and if one is only looking into the future, there are no resources for getting there." (Alaja 2008, 18.) Professor Kathrin Möslein thinks that companies need to have a set of different tools for everyday management as well as for measurement, rewarding, motivating, training and choosing of managers. She says that often companies have too many of these tools, that include goals and their measurements, development discussions, 360-measurements, training and seminars. (Alaja 2008, 17).

Möslein also argues that different styles of management are needed in different stages of the innovation process (Alaja 2008, 18). Apilo divides innovation process into three different stages: 1) free idea stage 2) know-how stage 3) efficiency stage (Alaja 2008, 18). Möslein thinks that in the first stage visionary leadership is the most beneficial whereas in the last stage transactional leadership is needed (Alaja 2008, 18). Apilo says that the role of middle management is highlighted in the two last stages of the innovation process, whereas in the first stage it is the top management that should have a pivotal role (Alaja 2008, 18-19). Möslein also thinks that management has different roles according to different innovation types: incremental and radical (Alaja 2008, 19). However, this argument is not discussed further here since in this study no distinction is made between different innovation types.

3.2.2 Working conditions as motivators

As a part of extrinsic motivation, working conditions are discussed here. Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1966) conducted an extensive study where they asked people to tell stories about their jobs (current or previous) and then analyzed these histories. From their responses, they formed 14 first-level and 11 second level factors. A first

level factor they defined as “an objective element of the situation in which the respondent finds a source for his good or bad feelings about the job”, such as salary or advancement, (Herzberg et al. 1966, 44) and second level factor as “what in his own need and value systems led to his attitude towards his job”, such as feelings of recognition, achievement etc. (Herzberg et al. 1966). In the results they found that the feelings of achievement and of recognition were the most frequent ones associated with an increase in job satisfaction (Herzberg et al. 1966, 67). They also said that “a sense of personal growth and of self-actualization is the key to an understanding of positive feelings about the job”. (Herzberg et al. 1966, 70). On the other hand, company policy and administration were found to be the single most important factor determining job dissatisfaction and technical supervision is the second (Herzberg et al. 1966, 71, 73).

All in all Herzberg and others (1966, 113-114) found that feelings of unhappiness were not related with the job itself but with conditions that surround the doing of the job. These they called factors of *hygiene*. In normal life “hygiene operates to remove health hazards from the environment of man” and with the same logic, hygiene in work surroundings means making sure that the conditions for performing one’s job are optimal. These conditions include: supervision, interpersonal relations, physical working conditions, salary, company policies and administrative practices, benefits, and job security. Similarly, others have concluded that leadership, work group relations and problem-solving style affect individual innovative behaviour directly and indirectly (Scott & Bruce 1994, 581).

Herzberg and others (1966, 113-114) also found that what people found most important in their jobs were factors related to their tasks, performance of their work and the possibility of personal growth. These job factors they call *motivators*. These factors that lead to job satisfaction “do so because they satisfy the individual’s need for self-actualization in his work.” They conclude that “It is only from the performance of a task that the individual can get the rewards that will reinforce his aspirations.” They say that self-actualisation is present in every area of our lives and work is among one of the most important ones. Other researchers agree with this stating that work is essential for people in terms of income, self-esteem, health and even friendship (Deci & Ryan 1985, 293). Herzberg and others (1966, 138-139) firmly believe man must find meaning in work rather than leisure because it is best for society. Not to forget the fact that we spend approximately eight hours of each day doing our work we better enjoy it as well. We can all agree that “No man wants to be just a cog in a wheel.” (Herzberg et al. 1966, 117) See figure 6 for a list of factors of hygiene and motivators.

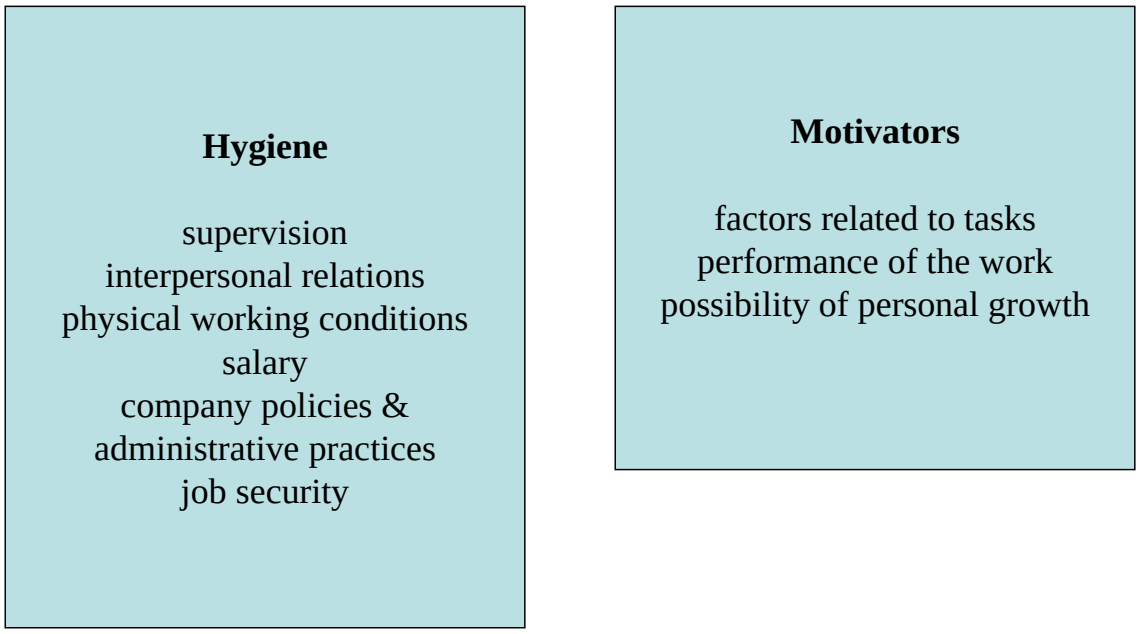


Figure 6 Factors of hygiene and motivators (adapted from Herzberg et al. 1966, 113-114)

The relationship of these concepts, hygiene and motivators, is of special interest to the present study as it gives practical guidance for improving job satisfaction**.** To raise the mental health of employees is to increase the potential for motivation in their work (Herzberg et al. 1966, 137) and from other researchers we know how important this health of the employees is to their creativity (Maslow 1987; Amabile 1999). The motivators are said to "fit the need for creativity" (Herzberg et al. 1966, 116). This can be estimated in turn, in leading to greater expression of creativity for innovation champions for promoting innovations and thus, benefits the whole company.

The findings of the study of Herzberg and others support the notion that good hygiene will prevent low working morale but still, it is not an end in itself; it is merely a beginning. Strengthening of motivators is the next step. (Herzberg et al. 1966, 131-132). Fair treatment in compensation, supervision, working conditions, and administrative practises does *not* lead the individual to high levels of job satisfaction and motivate to extra performance on the job. It only prevents dissatisfaction and poor job performance. (Herzberg et al. 1966, 115.) In other words, poor hygiene leads to job dissatisfaction but good hygiene does not necessarily lead to job satisfaction. The less motivators there are in place, the more there is need for good hygiene and vice versa; when motivators are in order, poorer hygiene is tolerated. (Herzberg et al. 1966, 115).

It has been discussed already in the chapters about extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, what people (and innovation champions namely) want in their careers. Herzberg and others (1966) agree to several researchers that it is first and foremost intrinsic motivation that rules. They say that in order to realize a sense of achievement and of personal growth, the individual should have some measure of control over the way in

which the job is done (Herzberg et al. 1966, 132). This sense of achievement and of personal growth is parallel to Maslow's self-actualising individual (Maslow 1987). One could think that the factors of hygiene relate to fulfilling a person's lower level needs and when these are in order an individual moves to satisfy their higher level needs and here the motivators play a central role. The challenge lies in the fact that "Some people, given the chance to control their own work, would improve markedly; some would deteriorate to a certain extent, as they failed for reasons of personal adjustment or of skill to meet the challenge of freedom." However, they state that overall this kind of increased autonomy would be positive for the company, since it would lead to some remarkable advances on the part of the individuals capable of them. (Herzberg et al. 1966, 138.)

In spite of emphasizing the importance of increased intrinsic motivation, Herzberg and others do not deny the usefulness of extrinsic motivation in the form of monetary compensation either. They state that incentive systems must allow motivators to operate and not just hygiene. They think that salary and other monetary incentives meet two kinds of avoidance needs: 1) economic deprivation and 2) feelings of being treated unfairly. Thus, they are more questions of hygiene rather than actual motivators. However, they believe that money "earned as a direct reward for outstanding individual performance is a reinforcement of the motivators of recognition and achievement". Here the role of supervisors is crucial because they need to recognise good work and to reward this good work *appropriately*. In their study, the comments respondents made on the equity of salary greatly outnumbered the comments on the absolute amount of salary. (Herzberg et al. 1966, 116-118, 136)

All in all, Herzberg and others believe that supervisors role as the dispenser of recognition in the form of salary increases, promotions, and quality of assignments together with mastering the technical aspects of organizing and planning the work leads to employees feeling achievement. The task of evaluation and of control becomes more difficult for supervisors but with supervisory training they can maintain good hygiene as well as support motivators. They also think that improvement in one's work, say, coming up with innovations, should be more heavily rewarded than it is at present –both in terms of direct recognition and material rewards (Herzberg et al. 115, 135-136, 138.) After having discussed extrinsic motivation in detail it is time to move to look at intrinsic motivation.

3.3 Intrinsic motivation

3.3.1 Intrinsic motivation in general

Intrinsic motivation according to Amabile (1999, 50, 54) is "the desire to do something for its own sake, because it is interesting, enjoyable, satisfying, or personally challenging". She also argues that intrinsic motivation has four main aspects: 1) love (even obsession) 2) dedication 3) a combination of work and play 4) a concentration on the activity itself (Amabile 1999, 51). Amabile talks about "the Intrinsic Motivation Principle of Creativity", which means that "people will be most creative when they feel motivated primarily by the interest, enjoyment, satisfaction, and challenge of the work itself – and not by external pressures (Amabile 1999, 51, 54).

Other researchers are along the same lines: "Self-motivation, rather than external motivation, is at the hearth of creativity" (Deci 1995, 9). According to Deci and others, intrinsic motivation "refers to the process of doing an activity for its own sake, of doing an activity for the reward that is inherent in the activity itself" and "to be truly intrinsically motivated, a person must also feel free from pressures, such as rewards or contingencies" (Deci 1995, 21; Deci & Ryan 1985, 29). In intrinsic motivation, an action is experienced as autonomous (Deci & Ryan 1985, 29). Deci and Ryan talk a lot about autonomy and self-determination and use these concepts synonymously. Also in this study, no distinction between them is made but they are both used to describe a state when an employee is given maximum freedom in deciding how to perform their job.

Deci and Ryan (1985, 294) continue to argue that self-determination in organizations should be a primary concern, and the biggest obstacle for allowing self-determination for employees is imposing control over them. On the other hand, some argue that in order to create a highly motivated working force one has to realize that different employees differ in their preference for extrinsic or intrinsic motivation (Frey & Osterloh 2002).

There have been classified five ideal types of employees in terms of motivation. In real life these archetypes hardly exist but we all are supposed to have a dominant element of preference we can be categorised into. The types are: income maximisers, status seekers, loyalists, formalists and autonomists, where the first two types are extrinsically motivated and the last three types intrinsically motivated. (Frey and Osterloh 2002) There is a clear parallel with the last group, the autonomists, to innovation champions. The autonomist type of employee is strongly intrinsically motivated, as one can expect the innovation champion to be as well because they

engage in innovation championing behaviour voluntarily and not because some extrinsic reward or command (see for example Howell & Higgins 1990; Jenssen & Jorgensen 2003). They both want to reach their own non-material goals no matter what and thus they both share a lack of respect for outside interventions in this regard. These people will use any means they consider correct in reaching these goals. (Frey & Osterloh 2002).

However, the motivation of extroverted type differs from that of the innovation champions. The extroverted type is motivated by outside factors and greatly influenced by the environment (Fordham 1964, 29-30), which would suggest that these people are rather extrinsically-motivated. Introverted type, on the contrast, "is concentrated upon subjective factors, and the predominating influence is 'inner necessity' (Fordham 1964, 30). It can be concluded, that Jung's theory is a reflection of the time when it was written when intrinsic motivation had not received attention in the research literature. Thus, in spite of the conflicts in these theories, innovation champions can be seen as extroverted types who are intrinsically motivated. Next creativity will be discussed as a part of intrinsic motivation.

3.3.2 Creativity

"A key feature of finding something new and being creative is the ability to think in ways that differ from established lines of thought" (Schweizer 2006.) As all innovations originate from ideas (Boeddrich 2004) it seems inevitable to discuss creativity in relation to innovations and especially in terms of innovation championing behaviour. However, the complexity of the employee creativity concept and the lack of a universally accepted definition of creativity make the measurement of creativity difficult (Chen & Kaufmann 2008, 71). Few researchers try to make a clear distinction between creativity and innovativeness as terms and most use them interchangeably as synonyms. Howell and Higgins (1990, 334) defined innovativeness as creating new solutions to problems and stated it as "a predominant personality characteristic of a champion". Some have tried to make a distinction between creativity and innovative performance suggesting that creative ideas become innovations when they have received social recognition for them (Schweizer 2006). The researchers tend to agree, however, that these kind of novelty-seeking abilities are essential in the innovation champion profile.

In the same way as innovation has been separated from invention, inventiveness and innovativeness should be distinguished as concepts. For the purpose of this research, creativeness and inventiveness are used to describe the ability to come up with something new, such as new ways of thinking or new processes. Innovativeness on the

other hand in this thesis is a personality trait related only to innovation champions who actively promote the innovation through their social networks.

According to a leading researcher on motivation, Theresa Amabile, all children are born curious and share the love of learning (Amabile1999, 9-10). This view is also shared by other researchers: "Curiosity is a basic propensity in human functioning. The desire to explore, discover, understand, and know is intrinsic to people's nature." (Deci & Ryan 1985, 245). Contradicting the views of Maslow, she thinks that suffering [caused by deprived needs] does not contribute to creativity, but happens in spite of it (Amabile 1999, 8-9). Neither does she favour Maslow's view of creativity being characteristics of only few but argues that ordinary people can be creative (Amabile 1999). However, Amabile agrees with Maslow that when a person is free of anxieties and mental disorders, they display creativity (Amabile 1999, 23). Amabile says that creativity does not imply intelligence or eccentricity nor is a person called creative when in fact they are talented or gifted (Amabile 1999, 21-22).

Rather, she defines an act creative when it fulfils two criteria: novelty and appropriateness. An act is appropriate when it is "technically correct or useful" for a given situation (Amabile 1999, 25-26). Thus, she concludes that a mistake is not creativity, unless the person recognizes its significance or actually intended to do something different (Amabile 1999, 24). She recognizes five stages in the creative process: 1) problem presentation 2) preparation 3) generation of ideas or possibilities (incubation) 4) validation 5) outcome assessment (Amabile 1999, 41-43). Amabile also talks about "the creativity intersection", that is, where the domain skills, creative thinking and working skills and intrinsic motivation overlap. That is where the person is most likely to be creative. (Amabile 1999, 63) See figure 7 for the creativity intersection.

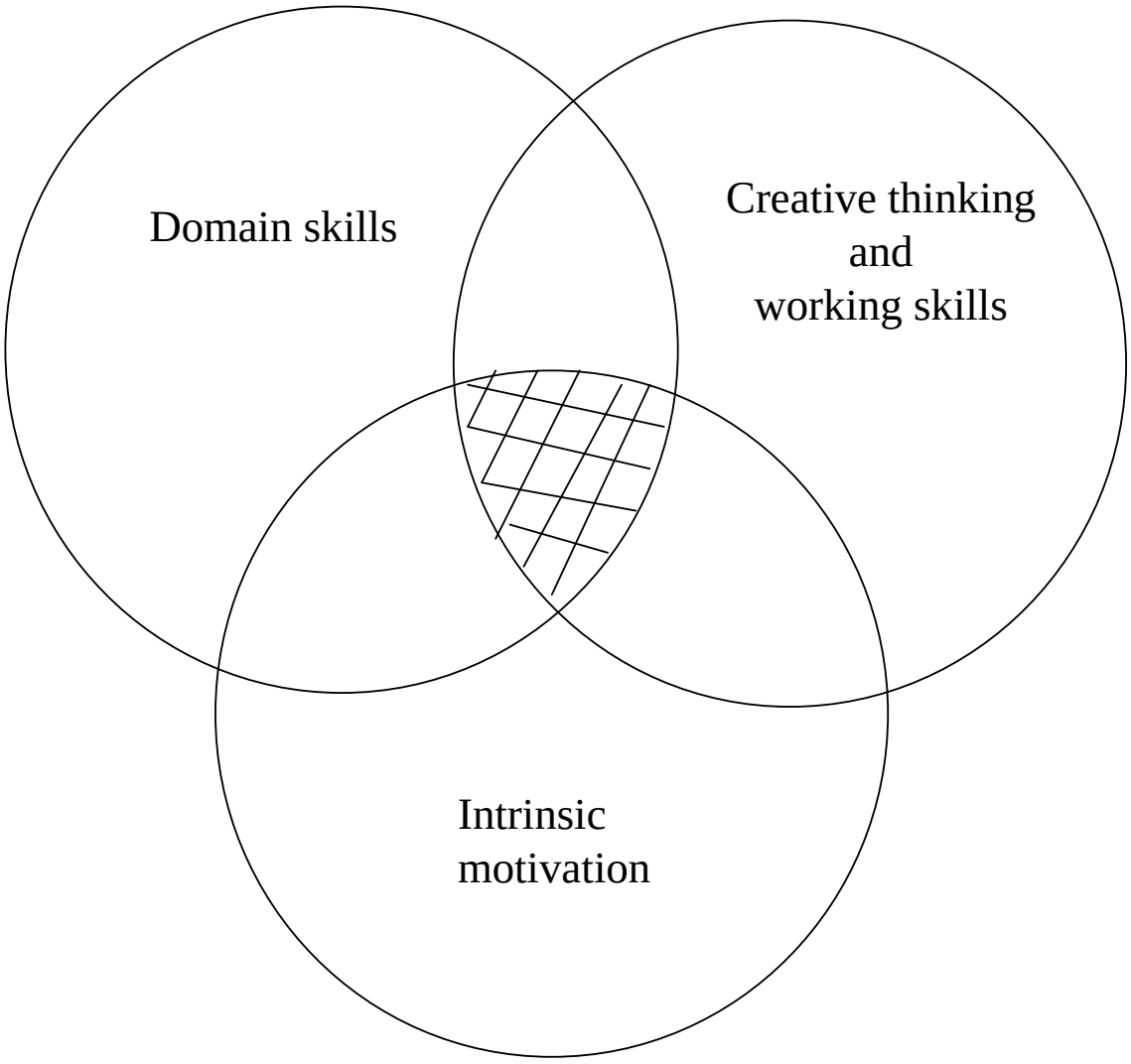


Figure 7 Creativity intersection (Amabile 1999, 63)

For Thompson (1992, 4) "creativity is the ability to look at the same thing as everyone else but to see something different". According to him, "creativity is not a trait monopolized by a few fortunate souls. Every person is creative, because creativity is the trait that makes us human." (Thompson 1992, 4) Thus, he sees creativity as "not so much a personality trait or a talent as it is a process, a continuum" (Thompson 1992, 5). Furthermore he argues that "creativity isn't a quantity, or a prize, or a point, but a state of being, in continual motion… it's a way of doing things - - it's a way of life" (Thompson 1992, 211)

Thompson (1992) sees creativity as being a four-stage process where the first step is *freedom*. He claims that we need freedom not only from our inner selves to be creative as well as freedom from other people's judgement. He says that other people can kill creativity with "killer phrases", which are "negative responses to new ideas and new ways of doing things" (Thompson 1992, 35). The second step is *expression* of ideas by asking specific questions, such as "For who is the product intended?" etc (Thompson 1992, 43-78). The third step is the actual *creation* of an idea. For this purpose

Thompson provides a variety of techniques such as mind-mapping and left-brain/ right-brain –exercises that help to create many ideas (Thompson 1992, 79-150). In his view, "the best way to come with great ideas is to come up with lots of ideas and throw the bad ones away" (Thompson 1992, 159). He promotes "Ready, Fire…Aim" –thinking as follows:

1) Define your problem [READY]
2) Come up with as many ideas as you can as fast as you can without criticizing them [FIRE]
3) Sift, synthesize, and choose [AIM]

The final and fourth step is *action*: "the phase of bringing ideas into reality" (Thompson 1992, 151-204) and this is where innovation champions are needed.

Thompson (1992, 154) also gives tips as to how to foster openness to ideas in organisations. First, one has to reduce the penalty for failure and "make sure that the penalty for failure is not greater than the penalty for doing nothing". In addition, one has to increase "fast failures", meaning that ideas should be evaluated as soon as possible so that no resources are wasted for trying them out (Thompson 1992, 154-155). He also urges companies to achieve a shared vision and to promote that vision. One has to "communicate your vision to others, to sell them on the idea. (Thompson 1992, 155-160.) This is what innovation champions know how to do well because of their interpersonal and communication skills (Howell & Higgins 1990). Thompson also gives guidance to evaluation new ideas as well as managing and retrieving them, for example, in idea meetings (Thompson 1992, 167, 177, 183). The overall point Thompson is making is simply to increase the number of new ideas in organisations (Thompson 1992, 159).

Thompson (1992, 155) also discusses a flow state that he defined as a: "time of intensely focused consciousness". Closely related to this concept is the idea of "peak experiences" that Maslow discusses. He describes it as: "feelings of limitless horizons opening up to the vision, the feeling of being simultaneously more powerful and also more helpless than one was before, the feeling of great ecstasy and wonder and awe, the loss of placing in time and space with, finally, the conviction that something extremely important and valuable had happened, so that the subject is to some extent transformed and strengthened in daily life by such experiences". He then states that self-actualising people can be divided into 'peakers' and 'nonpeakers' so that not all have these intense moments of revelation. (Maslow 1987, 137). Thus, one cannot really include this ability for peak experiences to really be a characteristic of neither self-actualising people nor innovation champions in particular.

After having discussed both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation it is time to look at what is the central theme that defines an individual's career i.e. what might an

innovation champion value most in their jobs; is it for example money, challenges, or security.

3.4 Career anchors

3.4.1 Career anchors in general

Career anchor is a concept that has a steady foothold in career development literature. The father of the concept, Schein (1985), defined it as "an overriding central issue that begins to guide and constrain all career decisions at all times", or "a person's self-image of what he or she excels in, wants and values". Schein originally developed career anchor theory in the 1970s and he revised his theory in the decades to follow. Schein suggests that the career choices we make reflect our unconscious and unavailable needs. In his opinion it is important for each one of us to be aware of these needs so that we can avoid career mismanagement i.e. when confronted with career choices we are able "to make those choices in a manner consistent with what you really value". Surely we all have many different needs and wants, both conscious and unconscious, but according to Schein a career anchor is "the thing that the person would not give up if he or she had to make a choice". (Schein 1985, 1, 35, 39.)

The career anchor theory has proved itself as a meaningful tool for examining people's career choices but like all theories, it has not survived to our days entirely without criticism and modifications. This shows that the theory has been found interesting and worth developing further. Some researchers have established links with occupations and preference to particular anchors (Igbaria, Kassicieh & Silver 1999; Nordvik 1996) that Schein himself rejected. Some accused Schein for having an insufficient sample (44 participants) in his original research and they questioned the idea of a single dominant anchor (Feldman & Bolino 1996).

Based on research on business and managerial careers Schein (1985, 45) suggested that people can be "anchored" to eight different things in their career. He claims that most people can be described in terms of these eight anchors:

1) security/ stability or organisational identity
2) autonomy and independence
3) creativity and entrepreneurship
4) technical/ functional competence
5) managerial competence
6) sense of service or dedication to a cause

7) pure challenge
8) life style.

The first of the eight anchors is *Security/ Stability, or Organisational Identity.* All people need some degree of security and stability in their lives but for security anchored people even career advancement seems to be a lesser need and if confronted with a choice between these two, they would choose security/ stability over climbing up the corporate ladder. Schein has identified two types of people who have careers anchored in security/ stability concerns. One has a very strong organisational identity and they are willing to move to "whatever functional area the company assigns him or her and making geographical moves whenever they are demanded". The other one is quite the opposite and "will pick a geographical area, invest in it by putting down roots, and shift jobs or companies whenever it is necessary in order to avoid being uprooted". (Schein 1985, 37.)

Second anchor, *Autonomy and Independence*, relates to people who simply hate being told what to do and they want to take the course of their lives in their own hands. Literally, the term autonomy refers to regulation by the self (Ryan & Deci 2006, 1557). For these people the sense of autonomy and independence form the basis of their career anchor. One might think that these people would then strive for a managerial position but in reality "Within management, one finds huge variations by type of function, geographical isolation, and the amount of autonomy that is possible." Thus many autonomy-oriented people seem to "find career satisfaction only in consulting, teaching or some other form of work that provides more freedom." and thus they do not thrive to climb up the corporate ladder. (Schein 1985, 38.)

Third anchor, *Creativity and Entrepreneurship,* compels to people who dream about creating their own businesses at some point in their lives and some are willing to risk it all trying to make this dream a reality. This desire can, according to Schein, derive from variety of needs like autonomy "being one's own boss" or security/ stability needs as to be financially secure or to avoid being uprooted from one's geographical area. For persons whose career is anchored in creativity and entrepreneurship, however, the ultimate motivation for going out their own is different. Schein describes it as follows: "To be anchored in entrepreneurial activity means an overriding preoccupation with creating something of one's own and proving to the world that he or she has done it." Schein also states that these types of people usually begin their entrepreneurial activities fairly early in their careers and keep pursuing these goals even through repeated failure. (Schein 1985, 30.)

Fourth anchor, *Technical/ Functional Competence* is not necessarily linked to whether or not a person performs a so-called functional job and how well they perform in it. A certain amount of technical or functional competence is needed in everyone's careers and in some occupations more than in others but Schein describes technically or functionally anchored people as the ones who "find the work intrinsically meaningful and satisfying

because they have a real talent for it and really like it". This can be seen as a circle: we tend to like doing things we are good at and by devoting more time and effort in doing those things we become more skilled in them. But according to Schein, only if this need to master one's area of expertise becomes more important than other needs, such as autonomy or security/ stability, is this person's career anchored in technical/ functional competence. (Schein, 40, 41, 42.) Schein also states that these technically or functionally anchored people "are usually the largest group within most organisations" and that they are also the "most vulnerable to career mismanagement, because most organisational careers are designed by generalists who put a high value on learning several functions". The worst thing to happen from the point of view of both the individual and organisation is to promote these persons to general management positions that they might not have a talent for or a willingness to perform, says Schein. Career advancement options for people anchored in technical/ functional competence can thus be limited as promotion often means moving to a supervisory position. These people can, however, excel in management "if they manage only within the function in which their talent lies". (Schein 1985, 40, 41, 42.)

The fifth group, people anchored in *managerial competence*, differ a great deal from the technically/ functionally anchored people described above. The former are interested in management in general and for them "advancement (climbing up the corporate ladder), high levels of responsibility, opportunity to contribute to the welfare of their organisations, leadership opportunities, and high income are the most important job values" says Schein. He also points out a valid argument that the hierarchical success criteria of the managerially anchored people dominate in the current world of organisations. According to Schein, general managers i.e. people who have managerial competence as a career anchor, need three types of competence: analytical, interpersonal and intergroup, and emotional. (Schein 1985, 37, 42, 43, 44.)

With analytical competence Schein refers to a person's problem-solving capabilities "under conditions of incomplete information and uncertainty". He sees this part of management as managing "the process of decision making" rather than actually making the decisions. Interpersonal and intergroup competence Schein describes as "the ability to influence, supervise, lead, manipulate, and control people at all levels of the organisation toward organisational goal achievement". (Schein 1985, 37, 42, 43, 44.)

Many of us dream about becoming managers but not all of us have the talent for it and even if we do posses it, we may find out through experience that we do not actually enjoy "being in charge" of people. For many, the lacking component in those situations may be the emotional competence that according to Schein is "the capacity to be simulated by emotional and interpersonal issues and crises rather than exhausted or debilitated by them". People with other career anchors than managerial competence may of course possess these three competencies too and even to greater amount than the managerially anchored people

but Schein states that it is the combination of those competencies that is the key to becoming an effective general manager. (Schein 1985, 37, 42, 43, 44.)

Sixth anchor is *Sense of Service or Dedication to a Cause.* We are used to associate certain jobs to be "so-called helping professions, in which the doctor, teacher, social worker, minister or therapist develops his or her basic self-image around the interpersonal helping activities". Schein points out that we should not, however, presume that everybody in these occupations is there to fulfil these value needs. A fire fighter may have chosen his career path around financial security or geographical stability issues or he might have a technical/ functional competence for the physically and mentally demanding work rather than just being "heroic" in nature. For sense of service or dedication to a certain cause to be a career anchor and "not merely a secondary concern of the person, it means that he or she would organise an entire career and the sequence of job decisions around the ability to work in a setting in which these values could be met". (Schein 1985, 44.)

Seventh anchor is *Pure Challenge*. For some people winning is everything. They want to prove to themselves as well as to others that they can overcome any obstacles, solve any problems and beat their toughest opponents in order to reach their goals. An artist who wants to sell more records than anyone else or a director who hopes to win as many Oscars as possible for his films can be extreme examples of the type. Surely everyone wants to be winners rather than losers but "for the challenge-anchored person it is the one thing that matters most", says Schein. These kinds of persons constantly seek variety in their careers and they may be attracted to management for the challenges that managerial situations provide. (Schein 1985, 44, 45.)

The eight career anchor is called *Life-Style Integration*. Trying to combine the different areas of our lives: work, family, friends, hobbies etc. in a balanced way can be difficult at times. For a student who has to work besides his/her studies or for a single-parent who wants to pursue his/her career the choice between family concerns, career concerns, and concerns for self-development can become a central issue in their lives. To have life-style integration as a career anchor means, according to Schein, the desire to "to integrate all these concerns and to keep them in balance with another". He also states that "life style as an anchor should not be confused with security or autonomy concerns" as "life style is more a matter of adopting some of the new social norms about the importance of a balanced and integrated life in which career decisions should not dominate". (Schein 1985, 45.)

Some researchers have divided the eight career anchors into talent-based, need-based and value-based groupings. Technical/ functional competence, managerial competence, and entrepreneurial creativity relate to a person’s work talents; security and stability, autonomy and independence, and lifestyle deal with a person’s needs; and dedication to a cause and pure challenge have their origin in a person’s values (Feldman & Bolino 1996, 96). Suutari and Taka (2004) found an altogether new career anchor named

'internationalism' when they researched managers with global careers. Marshall and Bonner (2003) came up with different results than Schein (1985) to the ranking of the anchors. There is also a widespread discussion among personality theorists to whether career anchors can change within time or are they permanent as Schein himself claimed. Next it will be looked at what career anchors innovation champions might prefer and thus gain more insight into their profile.

3.4.2 Career anchors of innovation champions

There has not been any research conducted as to which career anchors innovation champions might prefer. However, there has been at least one research that studied the dominant career orientations of research, development and engineering (RD&E) workers (Igbaria et al. 1999). The study hypothesized that RD&D workers would be anchored to managerial and technical competence, autonomy and challenge (Igbaria et al. 1999, 33) but found that somewhat surprisingly, the data showed that RD&E professional scored lowest on the managerial and technical competence orientations while service, job security, and lifestyle were the highest orientations (Igbaria et al. 1999, 43). They also expected men and women to differ in their career orientations and their findings did show a distribution of career orientations by demographic variables: RD&D females were less managerially and pure-challenge oriented than males and they scored higher on lifestyle orientation (Igbaria et al. 1999, 34, 44).

In the light of the literature reviewed earlier related to the personality characteristics of champions (see for example Chakrabarti 1974; Howell and Higgins 1990) and their inclination towards intrinsic motivation in career settings, it seems likely that anchors of autonomy and independence, creativity and entrepreneurship, and pure challenge would appeal most to champions. These three anchors have been shown to be positively correlated with organisational commitment (Igbaria et al. 1999, 46). Also, perceptions of job challenge and autonomy seem to be positively correlated to innovative behaviour of individual co-workers (De Jong & Kemp 2003, 189). Perceptions of autonomy may also influence the extent to which an employee may want to engage in innovative work behaviours (Ramamoorthy et al. 2005, 144).See figure 8 for career anchors of innovation champions.

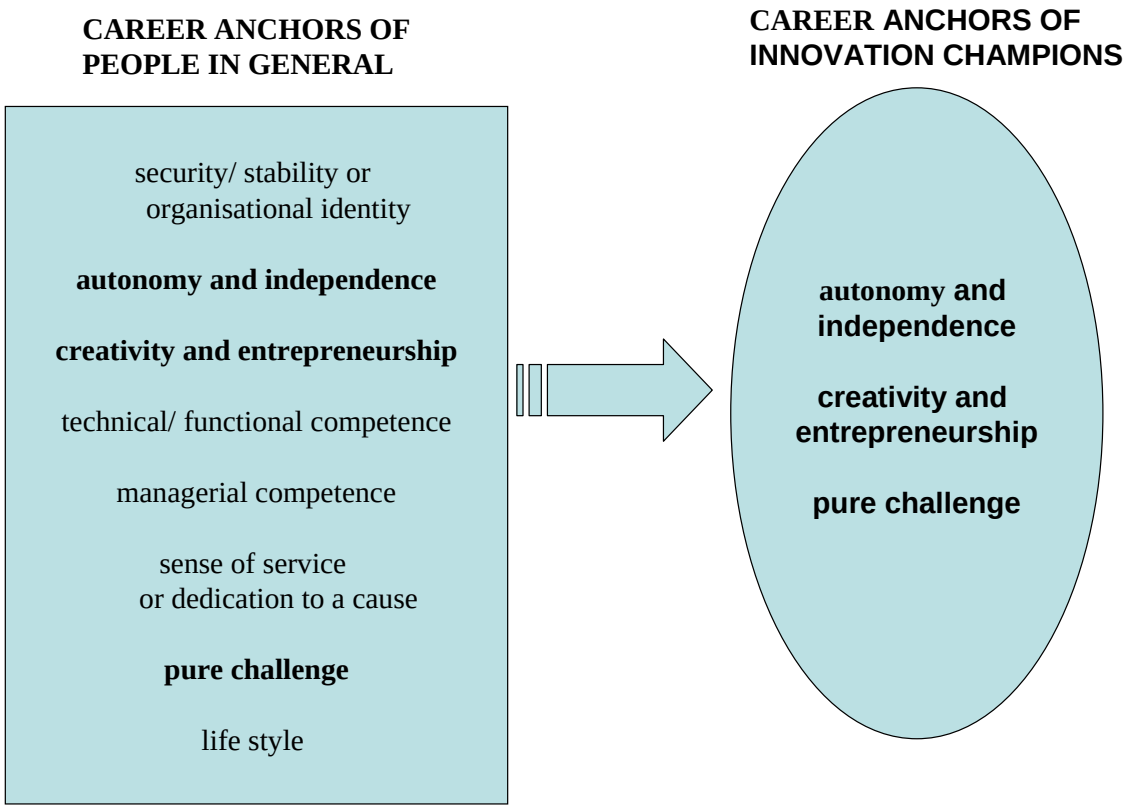


Figure 8 Career anchors of innovation champions

Autonomy and independence anchored persons would require more freedom from organisational constraints in their occupations and as is the case with champions (see for example Howell & Higgins 1990). For individuals anchored to creativity and entrepreneurship the ultimate career goal would be to create something of one's own and prove to the world that one has done it. This again would seem to suit the champions' perceived personality traits. In addition, the pure challenge anchored people constantly seek variety and challenges in their careers. (Schein 1985.) as do innovation champions.

3.5 Synthesis of motivation

In discussion about motivation, the source of individual's motivation becomes the essence: is the motivation intrinsic (=coming from within) or extrinsic (=coming from outside). There is a consensus that the motivation of human beings and thus innovation champions is primarily intrinsic. That is, they take joy in the performance of their job on its own and are not doing it for external pressures. We cannot completely exclude extrinsic motivation either, as it also plays a role in what we do. See figure 9 for Extrinsic and intrinsic motivation of innovation champions.

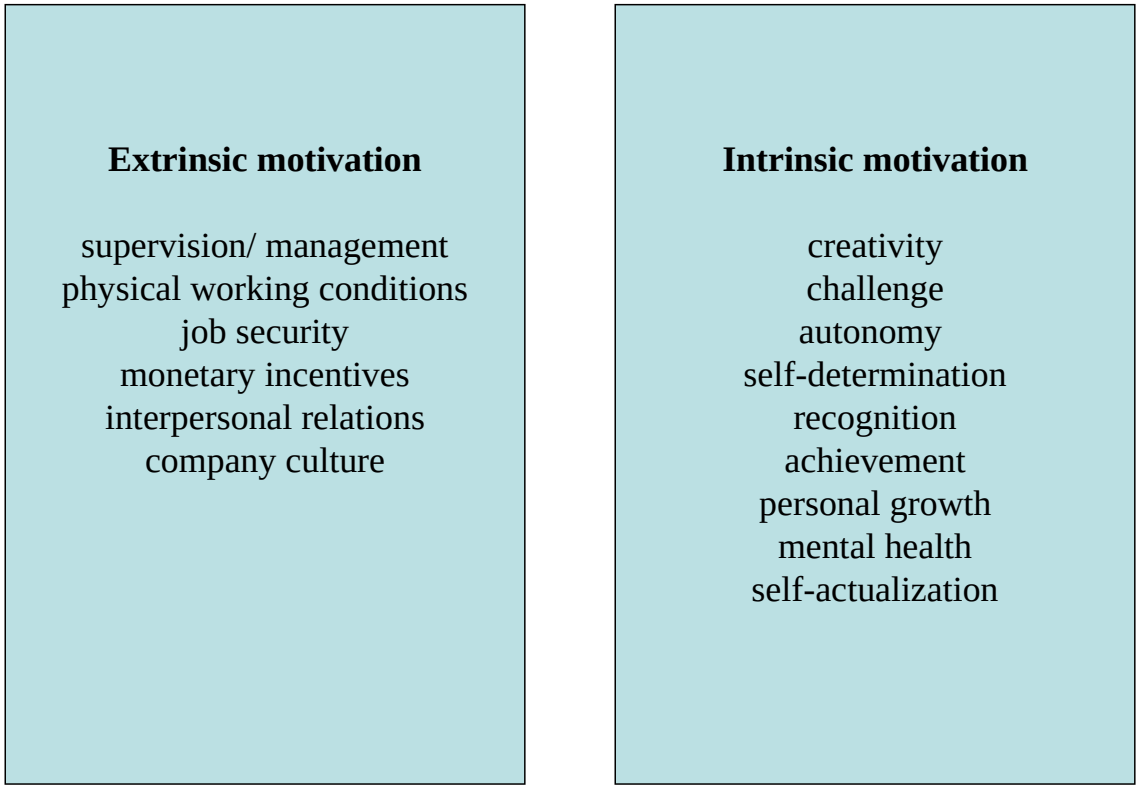


Figure 7 Motivation of innovation champions

At the heart of intrinsic motivation is creativity and that everyone is creative by birth. What people (here: innovation champions) wish to do in life more than anything is to use that creativity in order to fulfil their needs for achievement and recognition. Innovation champions want to have challenges that they can conquer with their inborn creativity. Some call this self-actualisation and conclude that it is only through this kind of personal growth that people will reach mental health. What innovation champions need for releasing their intrinsic motivation is the chance to be given autonomy in fulfilling their tasks which in turn leads to increased sense of self-determination.

Other measures a company needs, in addition to giving innovation champions enough challenges and autonomy is to provide for their extrinsic motivation as well. Thus, they need to take measures against hindering their intrinsic motivation. An organisation needs to ensure that supervision and management practices are fair and that physical working conditions are in order, and to provide job security. Monetary incentives, that is, salary, wages, rewards, and fringe benefits are also fair and do not diminish innovation champions' intrinsic motivation. Company culture is here meant to encompass company policies and administrative practises. Other than that, company culture as such will not be discussed in this research. It is simply stated that every company has its own unique company culture that can foster or hinder innovation championing. Interpersonal relations play a big role in how people enjoy their work and here, the term refers to peers and subordinates as the relations to one's supervisor are

under the supervision/ management heading. Now see figure 10 for the model for identification and motivation of innovation champions.

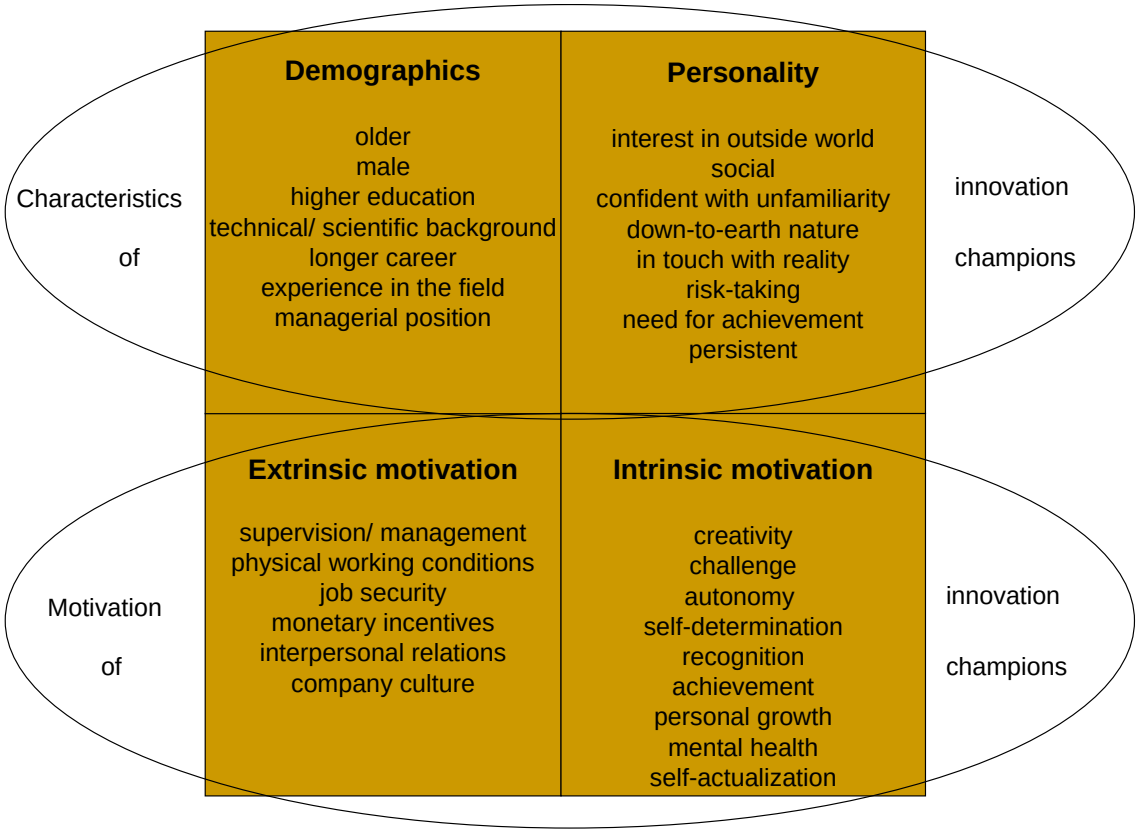


Figure 8 Model for identification and motivation of innovation champions

The model presented in the figure brings together the main points related to identification and motivation of innovation champions based on theory. This model will then be modified based the empirical findings of the case company, Itella.

4 METHODOLOGY

4.1 Research approach

The purpose of research is to find answers to questions through the application of systematic procedures (Berg 2004, 7). These systematic procedures will now be discussed. The thesis is based on qualitative research method, which "refers to the meanings, concepts, definitions, characteristics, metaphors, symbols, and descriptions of things" (Berg 2004, 3). Good research requires a clear understanding of the research questions and what type of information is needed to answer those (Wilkinson & Young 2004, 222). Qualitative research approach was chosen for the thesis because it is suitable to measure unquantifiable facts about people, such as their feelings and perceptions (Berg 2004, 7). In addition, qualitative research is considered an approach rather than a particular set of techniques and its appropriateness is dictated by the phenomena to be studied (Morgan & Smircich 1980, 491). Quantitative research method could have also been applied to answer the research questions of the thesis but because a particular case (Itella Logistics) was studied here, qualitative research method was chosen as more appropriate.

There is, however, an ongoing debate to the preference of a particular research method, that is, quantitative versus qualitative (see for example Bryman 1988; Hammersley 1992). The nature of qualitative research is to examine the quality of things by using words, images, and descriptions while quantitative research relies mostly on numbers and therefore, qualitative research method is sometimes accused of lacking scientific grounds (Berg 2004, 3). To avoid such accusations in this particular case, the process of data collection and data analysis will be thoroughly discussed after describing the actual research approach of the thesis, which is constructive in nature.

Theoretically, the constructive approach means solving managerial problems through the construction of models, diagrams, plans, organizations and the like (Kasanen, Lukka & Siitonen 1993, 243). Thus, "the constructive approach is a research procedure for producing constructions" (Kasanen et al. 1993, 244). Constructions are defined generally as "entities which produce solutions to explicit problems" and further *managerial constructions* as "entities that solve problems that emerge in running business organizations" (Kasanen et al. 1993, 244). The constructive approach research process includes six different phases:

1) Find a practically relevant problem which also has research potential.
2) Obtain a general and comprehensive understanding of the topic.
3) Innovate, i.e., construct a solution idea.

4) Demonstrate how the solution works.
5) Show the theoretical connections and the research contribution of the solution concept.
6) Examine the scope of applicability of the solution. (Kasanen et al. 1993, 246)

As illustrated in figure 11, an important part of the constructive approach is to link the research problem and its solution to theory.

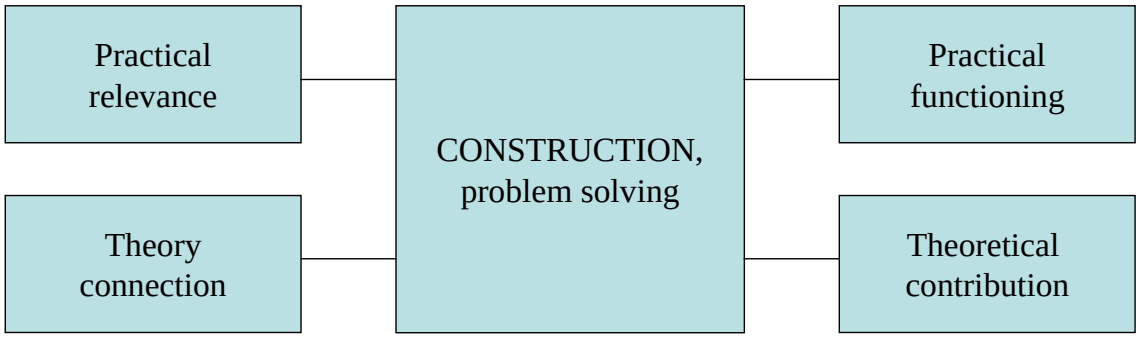


Figure 9 Elements of constructive research (adapted from Kasanen et al. 1993, 246)

It is these aims to make innovations and to make a theoretical contribution that are major factors differentiating between consulting and the constructive research approach (Labro & Tuomela 2003, 410). Also, the novelty and the actual working of the solution need to be demonstrated. It is always difficult, however, to assess the practical functioning of any new construction prior to its implementation. (Kasanen et al. 1993, 246.)

Using the widely referred methodological classification of research approaches by Neilimo and Näsi (Kasanen et al. 1993, 255[2]), there are four approaches: the nomothetical (natural scientific), the decision-oriented (management science oriented), the action-oriented (hermeneutic), and the conceptual (Kasanen et al. 1993, 255). In the *nomothetical approach* the underlying explanatory model is causal and attempts are made to generalise the research findings. The *decision-oriented approach* is usually similar to the nomothetical one but the results are meant to help management in running the firm. The *action-oriented approach* brings the human being into the focus of analysis and the emphasis is usually placed on gaining a thorough understanding of the subjects. Finally, *the conceptual approach* produces new knowledge primarily through the "method of reasoning". (Kasanen et al. 1993, 255-256.) See figure 11 where these approaches are located according to their main emphasis on two axes, theoretical-

[2] Original source: Neilimo, K. – Näsi, J. (1980) *The Nomothetical Approach and Business Studies in Finland* (in Finnish, translation of the title by EK, KL and AS), University of Tampere, Publications of the Department of Business Administration and Private Law, A2: Research reports 12.

empirical and descriptive-normative. The constructive approach takes a position in the lower section of the typology of the normative and the empirical areas.

The constructive approach has a lot in common with the decision-oriented one because in both cases a theoretical analysis and thinking plays an important role leading to the creation of something new. However, the constructive approach always entails an attempt to explicitly demonstrate the practical usability of the constructed solution.

As stated previously, the research approach of this study is constructive. The aim is to take a look at innovation champions through interviews and draw model trough information presented by these interviewees and also theoretical data. The validation of the made construct will be the feedback gathered from the case company representatives: the group discussion at the end of the project is to determine whether the created model is accurate and the suggestions made based on it realistically realizable. Constructive research approach here is thus at its simplest defined as making a proposal for the case company and then letting them evaluate it. Generally, in order to obtain information about a phenomenon it helps if the researcher can offer something in exchange that can be of practical use for the case company (Odendahl & Shaw 2002, 311), and therefore this approach was chosen for this study.

In constructive approach the direct and pragmatic empirical connections play a major role and therefore, the case study method is usually applied (Kasanen et al. 1993, 256-257). By definition, "case study methods involve systematically gathering enough information about a particular person, social setting, event, or group to permit the researcher to effectively understand how the subject operates or functions" (Berg 2004, 251). It can also been seen as a research strategy that focuses on understanding the dynamics present within single settings (Eisenhardt 1989, 138). There are three types of case studies:

- In *exploratory case studies* fieldwork and data collection may be undertaken with minimal prior framework.
- *Explanatory case studies* are used in causal studies.
- In *descriptive case studies* the investigator establishes the overall framework, a descriptive theory, to follow throughout the study. (Berg 2004, 257.)

This study falls into the last category because a framework concerning innovation champions has been established that will be followed throughout the study. For research on relationships, behaviours, attitudes, motivations, and stressors in organizational settings, case study has proven to be an extremely useful technique (Berg 2004, 260), and therefore it was chosen for this study. In addition, the strengths of case study research include novelty, testability, and empirical validity which arise from its intimate linkage with empirical evidence (Eisenhardt 1989, 157). However, "in some areas case studies can make the same sort of contribution as other types of research, while in other areas they can do things better or worse, or equal though different" (Platt 1988, 177).

An organizational case study can be fairly general in its scope but one can also place particular emphasis on a specific area or situation occurring in the organization (Berg 2004, 260), like in this study where Itella Logistics (one of the three business groups of Itella) was chosen as the case to be researched. This choice was made entirely by the case company and no justification for it was made.

4.2 Data collection

4.2.1 Selection of respondents

In field research, a distinction may be drawn between informants and respondents (McKinnon 1988, 50). Informants provide general background data on the organisation and the people in it whereas respondents are used to provide more specific information about themselves, their functions, experiences, and their interactions with others in the organisation, in respect of the phenomena of interest to the researcher (McKinnon 1988, 50).

In this study, one informant interview was conducted prior to the actual research: that of an HR specialist of Itella. This was done to gather information about the HR practises of Itella concerning compensation, rewards, bonuses and performance-related pay systems. The person was appointed by the case company as a suitable informant concerning the topic. The interview was conducted at Itella's premises on 13th December 2007 and its duration was 43 minutes. The interview was tape recorded, and some key notes where written as a backup in case of technical breakdown and later the interview was transcribed and analysed. The data obtained from the informant is presented in the findings chapter along with the data gathered from the respondents i.e. the innovation champions.

After this informant interview, the researcher spent two months (January and February 2008) in the premises of the case company. This was a requirement made explicitly by the case company "to get to know who they were dealing with" and it was considered to add insight knowledge to the research, much more so than simply going there to conduct the interviews. The researcher spent those two months, from two to three days in a week, working in an open office in the department issuing the thesis and was asked to participate in meetings concerning innovations that were currently in the progress. It was during these two months that the interviews were held and most of them were also transcribed then.

The idea was to interview innovation champions. They were to be found using a questionnaire for identification of innovation champions. See appendix 1 for the questionnaire for discovering innovation champions that was used in this study. Before the actual study, the validity of the chosen measurement for finding the innovation champions of the case company was tested. The questionnaire was sent by the department issuing the thesis, which was Research, Development and Venturing, to a handful of people among themselves to see if they understood it. Only one person answered the pilot study and since that person had understood the questions, there seemed to be no need to change it and thus, no alteration to the email was made, even though doing so might have improved the following response rate, which now remained quite low.

A list of all individuals who had administrative functions in the Logistics business group was provided by the case company. The list had 369 names on it. Everyone on that list was then contacted by email. After a brief introduction in which the nature of the project was explained, the respondents were asked to name those people identified as innovation champions The classification of innovation promoters (Rost et al. 2007) was used as the questionnaire by which the innovation champions of the case company, that is, the persons described as innovation champions by their peers, were found. In the original study, Rost and others (2007, 350) called people who had a specialisation in only one category *promoters* (Expert promoter, Power promoter, Process promoters, Relationship promoters and Technological gatekeepers) and people with more than one categories, *champions.* In this study all nominated people are invariably called innovation champions. The theory framework of Rost and others (2007) was chosen for this purpose because it was thought as easy to understand by people not familiar with the innovation championing literature.

Out of the 369 emails that were sent, 342 were functioning, and of those, 26 responses came back but one had to be discarded as invalid. Thus, the total response rate of the study after the initial email and two follow-ups was 25/342=7,3 %. This response rate was not very high but it was considered sufficient for this study because most of the answers were usable and from them an adequate number of possible interview subjects were found. The persons who were nominated at least three times were chosen as interviewee subjects and since there were 15 of them, all of them were interviewed, except one person who got three in two categories and could not thus be placed within one category. The 14 persons found this way to be the innovation champions of the case company were then interviewed in order to find out whether their demographics and personality features matched those found in the theory.

4.2.2 Identifying innovation champions

It was also decided that at least two persons from each innovation champion category (see Rost et al. 2007) should be interviewed. Altogether 97 persons were nominated, out of which 24 were females. See table 2 for results to innovation champion questionnaire. The results were similar to the original study if one compares the chosen innovation champions here to their nominated promoters (columns three and four).

Table 1 Results to innovation champion questionnaire

Categories	Nominations	Innovation champions	Mean in original study	Chosen for interviewing
1) Specific knowledge	53	7	0,22	4
2) Hierarchic power	21	6	0,15	4
3) Organizational knowledge	33	4	0,16	2
4) Business relationships	29	4	0,16	2
5) Knowledge transfer	20	2	0,17	2
Total	**156 (97)**	**23 (18)**	**-**	**14**

The first category of specific knowledge was the most popular one with 53 nominations, out of which seven persons had more than three nominations and four of them were interviewed. The logic follows for the other categories. However, many people were nominated in more than one category and were placed in the category where they had the most votes. Thus, altogether 18 innovation champions were found. Some had supervisory functions were as others had an expert position in the company. Only one person got the same amount of votes in two categories and was not therefore interviewed. It was logical to choose more people for interviews in the categories with the most innovation champions. In the last category only two people were nominated and thus, both of them had to be interviewed. Of all the 14 persons chosen as innovation champions no one refused to be interviewed.

The respondents were given complete freedom to choose who they identified as innovation champions. The email was in Finnish and the researcher's own translation of innovation champion, "innovaatiojohtaja", was used there. This might have distorted the nomination process somewhat because "johtaja" in English means "leader" or "manager" and this might have increased people's inclination to nominate mostly their managers, even though the theory, where no direct link to innovation champions' organisational position was made, was briefly introduced in the email. The persons who

got most nominations and thus were chosen for interviewing were mostly managers (9 out of 14).

The nominations were then added up and it was decided that those who had been named three times or more were regarded as innovation champions. Almost invariable the individuals chosen by this procedure actually were interviewed. See table 3 for more information about the innovation champions interviewed.

Table 2 Interviewed innovation champions of Itella Logistics

Interviewee	Role of the interviewee	Gender of the interviewee	Date of the interview	Duration of the interview (in minutes)
1	supervisor	male	17.01.2008	23:56
2	expert	male	17.01.2008	30:16
3	expert	female	18.01.2008	18:37
4	expert	male	18.01.2008	21:18
5	supervisor	female	22.01.2008	23:42
6	expert	male	22.01.2008	21:21
7	supervisor	male	24.01.2008	16:27
8	supervisor	female	24.01.2008	21:05
9	supervisor	male	24.01.2008	23:21
10	supervisor	male	24.01.2008	27:35
11	supervisor	male	25.01.2008	30:47
12	supervisor	male	25.01.2008	10:58 + partly no recording
13	expert	male	25.01.2008	no recording
14	supervisor	male	29.01.2008	18:54

The sights were set for approximately 10-15 interviews of innovation champions, since it was felt the resources would be adequate for such a project and that the amount of data that could be derived from that number of interviews would be sufficient to help answer the research questions and to form the model and 14 suitable interview subjects were found. The respondents had either middle/ executive management or specialist function in the organisation and consisted of both males and females.

As some sort of validation the innovation champions were asked if they could guess which innovation champion category they were named and very few of them knew. Only four persons got it right but others did agree to their categories when they were described the characteristics of their category.

4.2.3 Interviewing procedures

There are three different types of interviewing techniques used in qualitative research method: standardized interviews, semistandardized interviews and nonstandardized interviews. *The standardized interview* uses a formally structured and predetermined schedule of interview questions that is "expected to elicit the subjects' thoughts, opinions, and attitudes" relating to the study (Berg 2004, 79). At the opposite extreme from standardized interview *is the nonstandardized interview* where the interviewer has not a list of predetermined questions but makes the appropriate questions as they move along. They must "develop, adapt, and generate questions and follow-up probes appropriate to each given situation and the central purpose of the investigation" (Berg 2004, 80). As expected, *the semistandardized interview* lies somewhere in between these two extremes. This interviewing technique "involves the implementation of a number of predetermined questions and special topics" but the interviewer is allowed freedom to probe far beyond the answers (Berg 2004, 81). See table 1 for operationalisation table of this study.

Table 3 Operationalisation table

<table>
<tr><th>Research purpose</th><th>Sub objectives</th><th>Main themes of the interviews</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="7">To create a model for identification and motivation of innovation champions within an organisation</td><td rowspan="4">1) To identify innovation champions within an organisation</td><td>1) current job</td></tr>
<tr><td>2) background information</td></tr>
<tr><td>3) working methods</td></tr>
<tr><td>6) personality</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">2) To analyse the motivation of innovation champions for promoting innovations</td><td>4) innovations</td></tr>
<tr><td>5) motivation</td></tr>
<tr><td>+ interview with a HR development manager</td></tr>
</table>

The technique used in the thesis was semistandardized one because the subjects were not asked the exact same questions but questions related to preset categories. The questions were partly inspired by Sim, Griffin, Price and Vojak (2007, 435-436). See appendix 2 for the original interview guide used for the interview with a Human Resources Development (HRD) Manager and appendix 3 for the interview guide used with the innovation champions. It was felt that a totally structured interview would not give the subjects freedom to express their views and unstructured interview would probably have failed in answering the specific research questions of this study. Therefore, a semistandardized approach was adopted.

The interviews were mostly held in Itella's premises in Helsinki, Vantaa and Turku but one was held in a private home. All interviews were tape recorded except one of

them only partly because the battery ran out in the middle of the interview and therefore the interview that was scheduled right afterwards had no recording at all. In those interviews, systematic notes were thus written down by hand. In all the other interviews, only the main points of the interviewees were written down in case of possible technical breakdown and those were not used in the analysis stage but they served as back-up copies. Rigorous note taking fulfils two major functions in field research: 1) it provides a record of the data 2) allows control over threats to validity and reliability (McKinnon 1988, 46). These issues of trustworthiness will be discussed more in the chapter 4.4.

Every effort was made to obtain good rapport with the innovation champions interviewed. A preliminary email went out to the innovation champions chosen for interviewing to ask for permission to interview them. Because of the email for identification of innovation champions had had an introduction to the study (which was now attached as a reminder); the interviewees were thus acquainted with the general outline of the project prior to the interview. Although it was made clear that being interviewed was not to be forced on anyone, the case company indicated to its staff that cooperation was favourably viewed. All innovation champions interviewed were guaranteed anonymity in the final research report.

4.3 Data analysis

The main point of research is the analysis, interpretation and making of conclusions about the collected data (Hirsjärvi, Remes & Sajavaara 1997, 207). As there are no definite instructions how to do it in qualitative studies, the innovativeness and suitability of analysis is the direct result of the researcher's scientific imagination. (Eskola & Suoranta 1998, 147.) Data analysis consists of examining, categorizing and recombining the evidence, to address the initial research objectives (Yin 1989, 105). In any style of qualitative analysis, these analytic activities follow each other in an order of sequence:

- Data are collected and made into text (e.g. field notes, transcripts, etc.)
- Codes are analytically developed or inductively identified in the data and affixed to sets of notes or transcript pages.
- Codes are transformed into categorical labels or themes.
- Materials are sorted by these categories identifying similar phrases, patterns, relationships, and commonalties or disparities.
- Sorted materials are examined to isolate meaningful patterns and processes.
- Identified patterns are considered in light of previous research and theories, and a small set of generalizations is established. (Berg 2004, 267.)

According to Miles and Huberman (1984, 21) data analysis consists of three concurrent flows of activity that will now be looked each in turn. However, data

analysis in field research is an on-going process where these stages tend to occur continuously and interactively throughout the study (McKinnon 1988, 46). The flows of activity in data analysis are:

1) data reduction
2) data display
3) conclusion drawing/ verification.

Data reduction is the process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the collected data. In fact, data reduction, which does not necessarily mean quantification, occurs even before the actual research data is collected. This *anticipatory data reduction* is in effect when the researcher decides upon their conceptual framework, research questions and data collection approaches. Data reduction is a part of the analysis that continues throughout the project from the beginning until the end (Miles & Huberman 1984). In this research, data reduction was done by transcribing the interviews into a word document and highlighting the answers of different interviewees with different colours for the next phase.

The following phase is *data display*, where a 'display' is defined as an "organized assembly of information that permits conclusion drawing and action taking". The forms of display for qualitative data are narrative text, and many types of matrices, graphs, networks, and charts. (Miles & Huberman 1984, 21.) In this research, data display was organized so that the transcribed interviews were categorized under headings from the interview guide. At this point, all irrelevant information was left out.

The final part of analysis is *conclusion drawing/ verification* where the researcher starts to decide what things mean by noting regularities, patterns, explanations, possible configurations, causal flows, and propositions. The problem of this phase lies in the fact that humans are not able to process large amounts of complex information and in an attempt to find simplifying patterns may jump to hasty, partial and unfounded conclusions. Therefore, the conclusion drawing is only half of the last phase: conclusions are also verified as the analysis proceeds. The meanings emerging from the data have to be tested for their validity. In this research, conclusion drawing/ verification was done by searching similar words and ideas in the organized data display and then analyzing if the findings correspondent with the model based on theory.

These three phases of the process of data analysis; data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/ verification do not follow a linear pattern but rather are interwoven before, during, and after data collection. (Miles & Huberman 1984, 21-22.)

In case studies, such as the thesis, the most difficult stage is doing the case study analysis (Yin 1989, 125). It requires "rigorous thinking, along with the sufficient presentation of evidence and careful consideration of alternative interpretation" (Yin 1989, 105). The ultimate goal of case study analysis is "to treat the evidence fairly, to produce compelling analytic conclusions, and to rule out alternative interpretations"

(Yin 1898, 106). There are two general strategies for doing this: relying on theoretical propositions or developing a case description. The latter serves as an alternative when theoretical propositions are absent. (Yin 1989, 106-107.) This study relies on theory in the field but is mostly interested in developing a specific case description.

After choosing one of the general analytic case study strategies, one needs to take a look at more specific analytic techniques. Within a case study strategy, three dominant analytic techniques should be used: pattern-matching, explanation-building, and time-series analysis (Yin 1989, 105). The logic of *pattern-matching* compares an empirically based pattern with a predicted one. This technique is fit for descriptive and explanatory case studies. (Yin 1989, 109.) In other words, "pattern-matching is a situation in which several pieces of information from the same case may be related to some theoretical proposition" (Berg 2004, 256). The goal of *explanation-building* is to analyze the case study data by building an explanation about the case, and this technique is used mostly for explanatory case studies (Yin 1989, 113-114). In time *series technique* the relationship of events and changes are analyzed over time either in chronologies or cross studies (Yin 1989, 115-120). Out of these three techniques, this study draws on the pattern-matching technique because this case study is descriptive in nature.

From the very inception of this project, the technique of content analysis was planned to apply to the data gathered in the interviews. There are two basic approaches to content analysis (Herzberg 1966, 37). The first of these is an *a priori* approach in which analysis is based upon a previously defined and outlined schematic system (Herzberg 1966, 37). The second is *a posteriori* approach where the categories of analysis are extracted from the material itself (Herzberg 1966, 37). In this study, one can say that both approaches were used. First categorisation based on theory where the interviews were transcribed under the headings of the interview guide so that even when the answers to a certain question could be found under another, often related, question heading, these were copy-pasted under the heading were they should have been in the first place. For example, if a person volunteered information about networking in a question related to their working methods, this part of the answer was then transferred under the question concerned with networking, and this was clearly indicated in the transcripts. This means that the categories of statements were defined beforehand, and all the material obtained was sorted out into these categories.

Thus, the process of applying an objective coding scheme to the research data is commonly called content analysis (Berg 2004, 265). Artefacts of social communication, such as written documents or transcriptions of recorded verbal communications, even photographs, videotape, or any items that can be made into text, are amenable to content analysis (Berg 2004, 267). The criteria of selection used in content analysis must account for each variation of message content and must be applied so that others, looking at the same messages, would obtain the same or at least comparable results

(Berg 2004, 268). In content analysis, one can analyze either *manifest content* (i.e. "those elements that are physically present and countable") or *latent content* (i.e. "an interpretative reading of the symbolism underlying the physical data"), or both (Berg 2004, 269).

There are flexible rules as to how one goes about sorting through interview transcripts, observational notes, documents, and visual material. However, the coding procedure to be used to reduce the information to themes or categories should be identified. (Creswell 1994, 154.) Once the categorical scheme was prepared, the task of detailed analysis could begin. Each sequence of interviews was read carefully. The factors found in that sequence were identified and coded by means of the categorical theme. Based upon the review of literature, an analytical framework was provided for analyzing the data gathered in interviews but the most valuable analysis was the one which emerged from the material itself. This analytic scheme is much more strongly based on the data itself and the defining characteristics for the analytic categories are both meaningful and more communicable. Having sorted and organized the data, interpretation of the patterns apparent from both the organizational scheme and the details offered in response to interview questions could begin.

In content analysis, there are two means of coding: open coding and the use of coding frames. *Open coding* means unrestricted coding of the data whereby the researcher carefully and minutely reads the data to determine the concepts and categories that fit the data. This development of inductive categories helps researchers to link or ground these categories to the data from which they derive. These categories that emerge should reflect all relevant aspects of the messages and retain, as much as possible, the exact wording used in the statements and not merely be arbitrary or superficial applications of irrelevant categories. At this stage, however, the categories should be considered entirely tentative. *The coding frames* are used after the open coding procedure to organize the data and identify key findings i.e. results (Berg 2004, 280-281.)

The interview guide has been named a good tool for coding research data (Eskola & Suoranta 1998, 153). Verbatim transcriptions from recordings, which include literal representations of pauses, mispronounced words, grammatical errors, slang, and other language styles (Berg 2004, 271) were not used in this study because it was considered not to add depth to neither the analysis itself nor its validity.

Afterwards, a categorisation based on theory and data was created and the results were presented both in categories based on theory as well as one that emerged during the analysis. For example supervision was a theme that emerged in many of the interviews though there were no questions directly linked to it. This precoding of the interview material, that is, classifying it during the interview as well as the transcribing process eased the analyzing task considerably.

4.4 Trustworthiness of the research

The process of gathering information is always imperfect and incomplete, and in order to deal with this fact the researcher needs to be aware of the various types of error that may occur (Wilkinson & Young 2004, 222). This concerns the trustworthiness of the research. When it comes to field studies, they are frequently criticised for their inability to attend adequately to the research criteria of validity and reliability (McKinnon 1988, 34). Some researchers might therefore reject these criteria and rely only on their personal conviction that "they know what they know" (McKinnon 1988, 34). It is the responsibility of the field researcher to provide sufficient details of the conduct of the study to allow others to evaluate the validity and reliability of the findings (McKinnon 1988, 52). In this study good research practises are followed, and thus, the issues of validity and reliability are explicitly addressed.

The terms validity and reliability attract definitions which assume a particular research method but here those concepts are defined rather broadly because regardless of the type of study, the researcher must show that they are studying what they say they are and that they can rely the obtained data (McKinnon 1988, 36). Firstly, reliability concerns the consistency of measures or observations (Elmes et al. 2003, 54-55) so that "reliability of any measure or observation refers to the probability that an observation if repeated at a different time by the same person, or at the same time by another competent observer, will give the same result" (Gorden 1975, 6). In short, reliability tells whether the researcher is obtaining data on which she or he can rely (McKinnon 1988, 36). This assumes that the conditions being observed have not changed with repeated observation (Gorden 1975, 6).

There are many potential sources of error in measurement that pose a threat to reliability, such as:

1) Other relatively stable characteristics of the individual that influence the test score, such as intelligence, social desirability and education
2) Short-term or transient personal factors, such as health, emotions, fatigue
3) Situational factors, such as the presence of other people, noise and distractions
4) Sampling of items included in the scale: addition, deletion or changes in the scale items
5) Lack of clarity of the scale, including the instructions or the items themselves
6) Mechanical factors, such as poor printing, overcrowding items in the questionnaire, and poor design
7) Administration of the scale, such as differences among interviewers
8) Analysis factors, such as differences in scoring and statistical analysis (Malhotra & Birks 2006, 312.)

Measurement error refers to ”the variation in the information sought by the researcher and the information generated by the measurement process employed” (Malhotra & Birks 2006, 312) which means that there is always a difference between the true value of the characteristic and the actual obtained result. The total measurement error includes systematic error and random error. *Systematic error* represents stable factors that affect the observed measurement in the same way each time the measurement is made while *random error* represents transient factors that affect the measurement in different ways each time. (Malhotra & Birks 2006, 313.) Thus, reliability means the extent to which a scale produces consistent results if repeated measurements are made over time (Malhotra & Birks 2006, 313).

In addition to threats to reliability, researchers in social sciences can never attain perfect validity and can therefore speak only of degrees of validity (McKinnon 1988, 41.) It is clear that for observations to be valid they must be reliable, but the fact that observations are reliable is no guarantee that they will be valid (Gorden 1975, 7). Thus it can be said that “reliability is a necessary but not sufficient condition for validity” (Gorden 1975, 7) because “an unreliable measure cannot be valid” (Lincoln & Guba 1985, 292). Validity then refers to whether a researcher is studying what he or she is supposed to be studying (McKinnon 1988, 36), or “to the truth of the observations” (Elmes, Kantowitz and Roediger 2003, 54-55). Validity can also simply be said to refer to the extent to which the data conform to fact (Gorden 1975, 6).

In this study, the findings cannot be generalised outside the studied case because the aim of the study was to conduct a specific case study of Itella Logistics. Even within this case, only limited group was interviewed (the administrative people with supervisory/ developmental responsibilities or both) so the results cannot be directly implied even to people in other positions within Itella Logistics, such as the truck drivers. There might be, however, some degree of generalisation possible concerning other departments of Itella to people with similar type of responsibilities than the innovation champions interviewed. In general, the results cannot be transferred to other organisations because the uniqueness of Itella’s company culture that was a major issue underlying the responses of the interviewees. However, analytical generalisations can still be made.

Also, one cannot really know what really causes the observed phenomenon, in this study for example, if the found characteristics of the innovation champions’ interviews were really linked to the fact that they are innovation champions. If one had interviewed another group from Itella, of people not regarded as innovation champions, and still had similar results one could say that the internal validity of the study was low. Because there was no comparison group, one cannot say much about the internal validity of the current study. The 14 people in the case company interviewed were somewhat different in their training, the kind of work they do and other variables, which was good since a

selection limited to for example, one position in the company would have yielded results of doubtful generality. However, it was not checked by noting the degree to which the pattern of age, length of service etc. matched that within the population as a whole. There is no knowing how presentative of the whole of Itella Logistics, not to mention Itella as a whole, this interviewed selection was.

The convergent-discriminant validation measures were not relevant to this study because they are better suited for quantitative studies. In this qualitative study there were not multiple variables to compare with each other. Here, the considerations for trustworthiness of case studies prove more important.

Generalisability in case studies is then achieved if the results not only fit the specific individual, group, or event studied but also generally provide understanding about similar individuals, groups, and events. The logic behind this is the fact that human behaviour is generally accepted to be predictable. Therefore, a properly undertaken study suggests an explanation for similar settings. (Berg 2004, 259.) Generalisability of this study was relatively high because it provides more understanding about innovation champions in general.

However, the objectivity of case studies does not depend on the typicality or representativeness of the case but upon the soundness of the theoretical reasoning. Thus, case studies may be used analytically only if they are embedded in an appropriate theoretical framework. (Mitchell 1983, 197.) In this study, high level of objectivity was achieved through clearly articulating what has been studied and how. There are four threats to validity and reliability in field study research:

1) observer-caused effects
2) observer bias
3) data access limitations
4) complexities and limitations of the human mind (McKinnon 1988, 37).

Observer-caused effects occur when the researcher's presence in the setting is causing the participants to change their behaviour and conversations and thus, the researcher is not observing the natural setting, but one that is disturbed by the researcher's presence (McKinnon 1988, 37). This may occur when the role attributed to the researcher by the participants is such that it causes them to alter materially their behaviour (McKinnon 1988, 37). *Observer bias* then concerns the distorted effects of the researcher's selective perception and interpretation (McKinnon 1988, 37). This potential threat is present not only in the process of observing actions and behaviour, but also in the researcher's casual conversations or formal interviews with participants, and in the analysis of documentation (McKinnon 1988, 37). It is important to remember that every researcher comes complete with a unique set of biases which mean that the way in which a phenomenon is seen, interpreted and analysed will most likely differ from one observer to another (McKinnon 1988, 38).

Data access limitations occur for several reasons (McKinnon 1988, 38). First, the researcher is only on site for a limited period of time and thus, cannot observe what happened before they arrived or after they leave the site (McKinnon 1988, 38). Second, the time period the researcher spends at the site may coincide accidentally with an exaggerated or abnormal instance of the phenomenon (McKinnon 1988, 38). This happened with this study because Itella had named innovations focus point of their strategy in 2008 and this was one of the reasons why they agreed to participate in this study. They were, in fact, constructing an "innovation network" within the company and the results of this study might be used for this purpose. However, the research hosts may impose restrictions on mobility and access to certain documents, events or people (McKinnon 1988, 38). This happened when the case company decided all by itself which of its business groups would be researched and they chose Itella Logistics. There the selection of respondents was restricted to administrative staff only whereas workers, such as the drivers of the trucks, were excluded from the study. This was a choice made by the case company and the rationale behind it was not explained. It might have created a somewhat substantial threat to the validity of the research concerning the generalisability of the findings because the theory of innovation champions does not attribute the emergence of innovation champions according to the function they have in the organisation.

Last but not least, the complexities and limitations of the human mind pose possible threats to validity and reliability of a research (McKinnon 1988, 38). The statements subjects make may not be able to be taken at face value because the subject may consciously seek to mislead or deceive the researcher, perhaps talking about the phenomenon in a manner most flattering or acceptable to them (McKinnon 1988, 38-39). Also, subjects may be trying to be honest and accurate in their dealings with the researcher, but their statements and reports are affected by natural human tendencies and fallibilities, such as: people forget things, they pay varying amount of attention at different times to their own behaviour and to the behaviour of others, and just like the researcher, they also have their own sets of biases which shape their perceptions and opinions (McKinnon 1988, 39). Nor do people walk around with well thought out views and opinions waiting for a researcher's questions (McKinnon 1988, 38) and therefore, the interview subjects of this study were told beforehand what the topic of interview would be in order to give them a possibility to prepare themselves.

These four types of threats to validity and reliability identified above are of particular importance in field research, and therefore continued attention must be accorded to them throughout the duration of the study (McKinnon 1988, 39). There are, however, three strategies to counter these threats:

1) the amount of time the researcher spends in the research setting
2) the use of multiple methods and multiple observations

3) the researcher's social behaviour while in the setting (McKinnon 1988, 39.)

First, the researcher should try to spend substantial length of time in field because the commitment to a lengthy period of observation and interaction with people in the setting provides a powerful counter to threats to validity and reliability (McKinnon 1988, 40). The longer the period spent in the field, the more the researcher can concentrate on simply watching and listening, and the less pressure is felt in those stages to see patterns, uncover meanings, or develop hypotheses and conclusions (McKinnon 1988, 40). Also, the longer the researcher is in the field, the more they are exposed to, and forced to confront events and statements that may be contrary to the researcher's preconceptions and expectations (McKinnon 1988, 40). This was achieved by spending two months in the premises of the case company.

To reduce the variability of results and thus to increase the reliability of the study the methods of data gathering (in this case, the interviews) should be taken under the same conditions (Elmes et al. 2003, 60; McKinnon 1988, 42). In this study, this was achieved by conducting all the interviews by the same person and in the premises of the case company. However, in field studies where the measurement instrument is the researcher, the objective of reliability is hard to obtain because neither the researcher nor the event can ever be represented as identical (McKinnon 1988, 42).

5 IDENTIFICATION AND MOTIVATION OF INNOVATION CHAMPIONS AT ITELLA

5.1 Introduction of case company

5.1.1 Itella in brief

Postal services in Finland were established by Governor-General Per Brahe on 6th September 1638. In 2001 the post of Finland become a public company (Finland Post Corporation) wholly owned by the Finnish State. On 1st June 2007, the company changed its name to Itella Corporation but the Posti name remained in use for consumers in Finland, where Itella's key mission is to provide daily mail services (letter and parcel) five days per week for all throughout the country. Number of employees in Itella group is around 31,700 and their net sales amounted to EUR 1,953 million in 2008. Approximately 96% of their net sales come from companies and organizations. (Itella Group 2009.)

Itella's key customer industries include trade, media, financing, telecommunications and the public sector. Itella services of some 250,000 corporate customers globally under the name Itella and some 5,3 million consumer customers in Finland under the name Posti. Itella operates in Northern and Central Europe, and in Russia, with its international activities, launched in 2002, account now for nearly a third (31% in 2008) of their net sales. Itella Group comprises three business groups (see figure 12):

- Itella Mail Communication
- Itella Information
- Itella Logistics. (Itella Group 2009.)

Figure 10 Business groups of Itella (based on a PowerPoint presentation provided by the case company)

Itella Mail Communication offers paper-based communication and delivery services and customer marketing solutions. Itella Information offers multi-channel information logistics services for the management of goods flows; outsourcing solutions for invoicing, financial management and digitization. Itella Logistics offers logistics services for the management of goods flows; solutions for land, sea and air freight, parcel deliveries, and warehousing and contract logistics. (Itella Group 2009.) We will now turn to look more closely this third business group, Itella Logistics, because it was the chosen case for this study.

5.1.2 Itella Logistics

In the 1990s Finland Post started to construct logistics services for the needs of corporate customers in particular and in 2002, the Logistics business group was established. In 2003, the Logistics business group was made fully responsible for domestic parcel services. Today the division has approximately 10,000 employees in eight operating countries: Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway, Russia, and Sweden. Itella Logistics had net sales of more than EUR 813 million in 2008 and operating profit of EUR 16 million (excl. impairment loss). A key customer target group for Itella Logistics is growth companies that are going global and whose business demands the efficient management of long supply chains. (Itella Group 2009.) In 2009 the net sales where EUR 713,9 million and operating profit EUR -15,2 million (Itella Annual Report 2009.)

The core competence of Itella Logistics is service logistics, with management solutions for material flows to support the customer's business strategy. Itella Logistics operates in the following service areas: freight and forwarding, parcel and transport delivery, warehousing, contract logistics and consulting. Customers can outsource either some element of their logistics processes or all logistics management and development to Itella Logistics. Itella's freight and forwarding services include land, sea, and air freight as well as terminal and customs clearance services and the customer can monitor the progress of a process outsourced to Itella in real time. The goal of Itella Logistics is to be a leading service logistics operator in Northern Europe, but also elsewhere through partners by 2012. (Itella Group)

5.1.3 Itella's compensation system

To find out what kind of compensation system and rewards Itella currently has in place, a HRD Manager was interviewed. She answered questions concerning Itella's

compensation procedures and especially reward systems concerning improvement suggestions i.e. situation-related reward ("aloitepalkkio" in Finnish).

First of all the HRD Manager told about the Kannustava ja palkitseva Posti –unity ("Encouraging and rewarding Posti") and said that at Itella they see the "classical way" of monetary compensation as the roof of the house that is the overall compensation system. However, more important building blocks of the house are supervision, development possibilities and training all of which she says have a major impact on individual motivation. She says that this kind of overall model is commonly used in other companies nowadays as well but it was not seen this way only a few years ago.

The HRD Manager tells also that as a part of this compensation system there is in place different kind of result-related reward systems ("tulospalkkio" in Finnish) for both white-collar and blue-collar workers. They also make it mandatory for all supervisors to hold individual development discussions with their staff once a year. As these issues are not within the scope of the thesis, they will not be discussed further here.

More interesting for the study of innovation champions is the situation-related reward system Itella has got. That is to encourage individual employees when they make a suggestion for improvement of a internal process or a service offered to clients. The HRD Manager stresses that this is different from result-related reward so that it is not annually planned but it can be given spontaneously and also, that it is in right proportion to the importance of the suggestion. However, they have tried to make some general guidelines at Itella level as to what kind of ideas should be rewarded and how. They have made a system where the value of the idea is counted by points and one point equals a specific euro amount. The HRD Manager says they have renewed the system so that the closest supervisor can immediately give the smallest reward if he or she thinks the idea may lead to something. It is also the responsibility of the supervisor to send the idea forward to a panel where its value and potential is discussed. If the panel then decides that the idea should be adapted they can give the person who came up with the suggestion more money, again according to the point system.

The HRD Manager remarks, however, that this system is not without flaws. First of all, it is difficult to assess what really is an improvement suggestion that should be forwarded. She tells an example of this:

> *I must be honest. I once got one of these improvement suggestions that I thought was not a real suggestion at all but the supervisor had thought it was. Well, he/ she had given the reward then, and it is not the end of the world that he/ she did but I had to tell him/ her that I did not see it that way and would not have supported it myself. (HRD Manager)*

The situation-related reward system is not all about money, however. The HRD Manager says that more important than money can often be the simple recognition of the suggestion, a symbolic thank you in public in a staff magazine or maybe a dinner after a project well done. She says that they have encouraged supervisors to keep a stock of football and movie tickets etc. minor things to give their employees to motivate them and says that supervisors have taken into this habit quite well.

When asked what the HRD Manager thinks is working well in their system and what needs to be improved the equality of the systems comes up. The HRD Manager admits that the downside of their compensation system in terms of individual rewarding is that it is difficult to treat employees equally. The HRD Manager says that companies always get the lowest score in staff questionnaires in issues related to compensation that they are not an exception in this regard. She says that they even raised the monetary amount of these rewards a few years ago and thinks that now they are really considered meaningful to pursue. Here is what she thinks of the equality of the situation-related reward.

> *That is its downside [equality]. It is a very challenging model, the most difficult one in fact, that we have chosen but what can you do about it? - - I think people are quite content with it [the system] but there is always the challenge of equality that the supervisors face because they have different scales in their heads. They are only humans after all. (HRD Manager)*

They have voiced concern even at the top management level that they need more training in these issues, the HRD Manager says. Therefore she thinks it is important to try to make the organizational guidelines even clearer as to what is an improvement suggestion worth rewarding so that everyone would think of it in same terms even though the individual performance and situation each time is different. The HRD Manager adds that the constant changing of the supervisors poses an additional challenge to this but according to her, there is only one solution:

> *Training, training, training. That's all there is to it. (HRD Manager)*

Therefore, more emphasis should be placed on training the supervisors both on the organizational level as well as the top management to know what really constitutes an improvement suggestion worth of rewarding and how this suggestion should be rewarded. From compensation system it is time to turn to look at Itella's innovation system and how it could be improved.

5.1.4 Itella's innovation system

The innovation champions were asked if they were involved with innovations in their daily work and if so, what kind of innovations they were. In addition, they were asked how Itella's current innovation system could be improved. Innovation here was described to the interviewees simply as "new products or services, or new processes". All of the innovation champions said that they were in some way involved with innovations through their work. Most of them (11 persons) said this was especially in the form of improving Itella's inner processes and about half of them (6 persons) admitted also having their hands on new product/ service development. Many of the innovation champions said that in fact developing processes and services is a part of their job description. Here is what some of them said.

> *It is our daily job, basically, to try developing production processes and on the other hand based on those, services for the customers. It is "business as usual" (the quote originally in English) (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

> *Of course new products are a part of my work. A part of my work is thinking about new products and services, thinking about new methods and solutions, for sure. (Supervisor/ Relationship Promoter)*

> *Actually, it happens every day. When the sales persons tell you of a customer need that is already a signal for innovation. (Supervisor/ Relationship Promoter)*

The innovation champions were then asked where new ideas come from and they said they come mainly from two sources: their subordinates and customers. Here is what they said.

> *They usually come from the customers, those thoughts and ideas. What customers need, what we hear from them, how we understand the customer when we go and discuss with them…That is where the thoughts come from, what we could do differently and what the customer might need even though they may not know it themselves. (Supervisor/ Relationship Promoter)*

Also, innovation champions said that the innovation process can sometimes be structured and sometimes not. The following quotes demonstrate this.

> *A part of them is supervised so that you have to come up with a solution to something and then you go around it in the beginning or then you try to work at it systematically, more project-like. But some of them come, if I really think about it, many of them originate purely from café break discussions, that there you get this good idea and then you start looking at it if it is really good or not. But I do not know if it is really supervised, this innovation management, so that it is like a part of normal work and then when you interact you get new ideas. Some you have to work hard on and some come accidentally… just like normally. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

The innovation champions were also asked if the ideas are documented or not and it become clear that some do while others do not. One innovation champion said there is a document in the Point (the intranet of Itella) that the supervisor should fill in and forward to the secretary of the improvement suggestion board and this would then send it forward to whoever had the responsibility for the area of the suggestion. Then again some said that if the new ideas are good they are implemented and then they are not documented in any way like this following quote shows.

> *Our company culture has been and still is such that we do not document everything we do so that processes are improved but we are in such a hurry that those improvements are left undocumented. They are also often carried out so that you do not even realise: "hey we improved this system and fixed this problem" but it goes so that you see that it works and it had to be fixed. (Expert/ Expert Promoter)*

Some were strongly in favour of documenting the ideas and improvement suggestions that come up while others said that they are always in the "silent knowledge" of the employees. Somebody knows what has worked before and what has not. Also this boiled down to the question at the base: what constitutes an improvement suggestion. Many said that the ones that qualify are documented but the ones that do not are lost forever.

5.1.5 Improvement suggestions for Itella's innovation system

The innovation champions were asked what they thought of Itella's innovation system at the moment: what are its strengths and how it could be improved. When it came to

the improvement of Itella's current innovation system, it boiled down to the basics. Many of the innovation champions said what constitutes a suggestion for improvement should be more clearly defined as to avoid confusion. One innovation champion told an example where his subordinate had made a suggestion which he then thought was a part of "normal development of one's work" and therefore, he did not reward it. He admits that this is how the system can be frustrating for some who think they make a real suggestion when it is not considered as one.

Therefore it was suggested by some that these ideas should be rewarded quite "lightly" because it is not a question of a lot of money for the company but it is more important that the employees stay motivated. Here is a quote that illustrates this.

> *-- we recommended to supervisors that even if the improvement suggestions are not so revolutionary that they would give the situation-related rewards, because it is such little money that X euros and try to encourage the drivers to make these suggestions but like I said, it did not go as we hoped - - (Expert/ Expert Promoter)*

Another critique that often came up was constant hurry in development projects. Here is what they commented.

> *To exaggerate it slightly, the assignment often comes in a way "this should have been working already last week". (Expert/ Expert Promoter)*

One innovation champion also remarked there are too many products at the moment and their number should be cut down. Another one said that they start too many things but finish very few of them. About the process itself innovation champions remarked that yes it should be planned and documented to a certain degree but in reality you just have to go with the flow. This quote illustrates this view well.

> *You assume that development is a tight process when its not. Sure it has got phases such as: recognising the situation and gathering information, then analysing it and so on but it is always a person in each stage doing it. - - Then the individual resources there have to be unleashed. The processes must be well described but at the end it is the individual who makes the decision whether this is good or not. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

The innovation champions had different ideas as to how to unleash the individual potential of the employees. Some had brainstorming with their staff where everyone

where encouraged to express their views freely around certain subject and then somebody would document what was the end result of the meeting.

One constant critique was, that it is the role of the supervisors to take the improvement suggestions of their subordinates seriously and support them in forwarding them. The following quotes illustrate this well.

> *I think it is the role of the supervisor to take the improvement suggestion forward when they get it so that it goes to the higher level and is looked at and documented. (Expert/ Expert Promoter)*

> *I think that the supervisor should give time and support so that the person can make the improvement suggestion. (Expert/ Process Promoter)*

Thus, the role of supervisors is important in supporting the individual who has given the improvement suggestion and making sure that it is forwarded. One critique that emerged was also that the individual employee may never know what has happened to his or her improvement suggestion after it had gone on to the improvement suggestion board. One of the innovation champions themselves said to have made an improvement suggestion that was important on a national operations level and that person never was told what happened to it. Again, the role of the supervisor was stressed here as the second one of the following quotes show.

> *The supervisor must take the improvement suggestion forward and monitor what happens to it - - If the supervisor puts it forward they must keep the employee updated what happens to it and if something is done to it and if not, why not. (Expert/ Technological Gatekeeper)*

Below is a figure 13 that shows how the current innovation system of Itella should be improved.

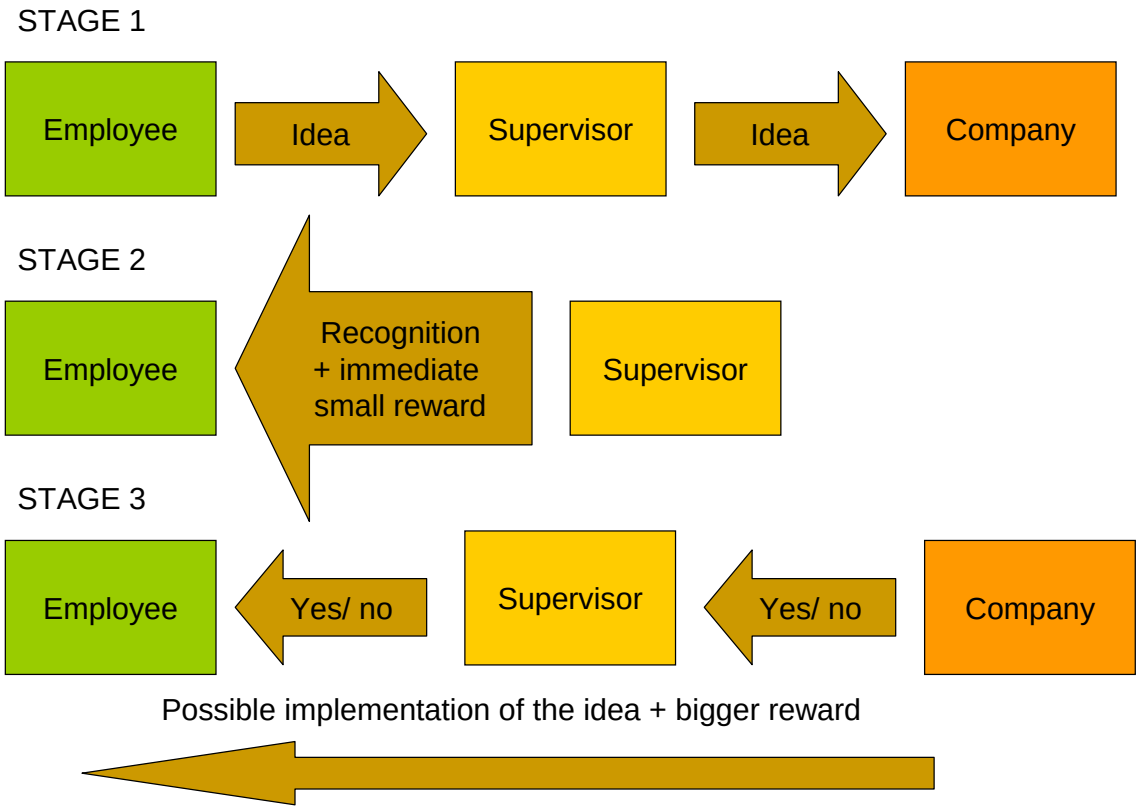


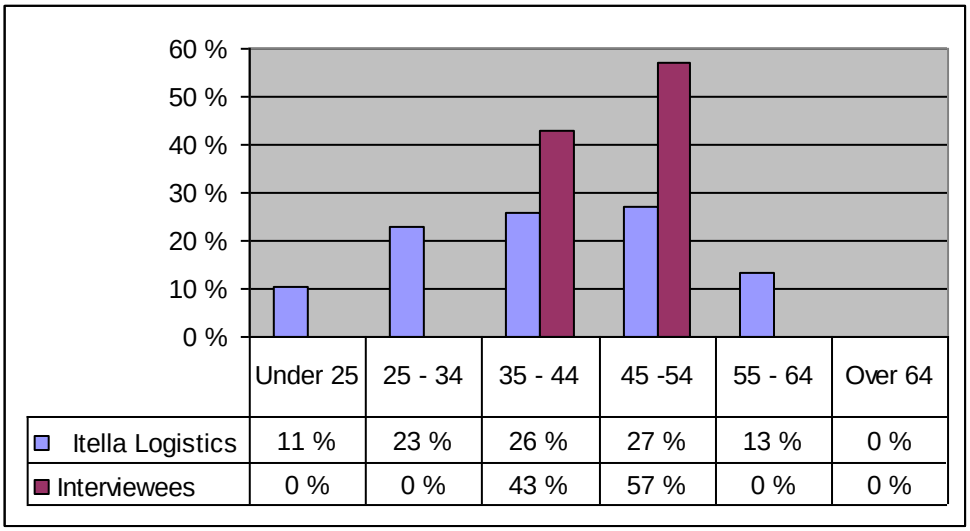
Figure 11 Improved innovation system of Itella Logistics

At the first stage the employee comes to the supervisor with his or her idea that the supervisor then forwards to the panel. At the second stage the supervisor gives the employee recognition and immediate small reward of a specific amount of euros. In reality, these two stages can happen simultaneously but here they are separated for clarity's sake. At the third stage the panel informs the supervisor what has happened to the idea of the employee i.e. whether it is accepted or not, and why, and the supervisor then informs the employee of this. If the idea is implemented, the employee is rewarded a bigger monetary bonus. Next the demographics of the interviewees are looked at and discussed how they relate to the theories of innovation champions.

5.2 Demographics

According to theory, innovation champions were assumed to be *older* employees rather than younger because it is through experience that one gains the social networks and courage needed in innovation championing behaviour. This assumption that innovation champions would be older was supported by the findings. The average *age* of the interviewees was 50 years, the youngest being 38 years and the oldest 53 years of age. The median age was also 50 years. In the case company, Itella Logistics, the average age of all the employees was 41 years, almost ten years younger than that of the

interviewees. The median age of the case company was, however, the same than that of the interviewees, 50 years. See figure 14 for the age distribution of the case company's employees and the interviewees.



	Under 25	25 - 34	35 - 44	45 -54	55 - 64	Over 64
Itella Logistics	11 %	23 %	26 %	27 %	13 %	0 %
Interviewees	0 %	0 %	43 %	57 %	0 %	0 %

Figure 12 Age distribution of Itella Logistics employees and the interviewees

As can be seen in the figure, the age distribution in interviewees is much more homogenic than that of the case company, as one would expect. Here, they are middle aged as the lowest and highest age groups remain completely empty and all interviewees are within the 35-54 age bracket. This clearly shows that innovation champions are older employees rather than younger as one assumed based on theory. Also because most of the interviewees were in a managerial position (9 out of 14) the sample consisted of older employees as it takes time to rise to that level within a company.

The high average age and median age of the case company show that Itella Logistics has got a rather mature work force. This may have implications as to how can they continue to come up with new ideas and innovations if it lacks younger employees with fresh perspective. However, this lack may be balanced out by the silent knowledge accumulated by the older employees in the course of their careers that can help them become innovation champions. The effect of work experience on innovation championing behaviour will be discussed later when the length of career and experience in the field in this regard are analysed.

Also based on theory it was expected that most of the innovation champions are *males* since males are often more entrepreneurial and competitive in nature than females. This was found to be true as majority of the interviewees were males (eleven persons out of the fourteen) and only three of the persons interviewed were females. This might be because of the fact that most of the nominees in this case (the persons identified as innovation champions by others) were managers and since there are fewer

female managers, their number among the interviewees was low. See figure 15 for the gender distribution of the case company and the interviewees.

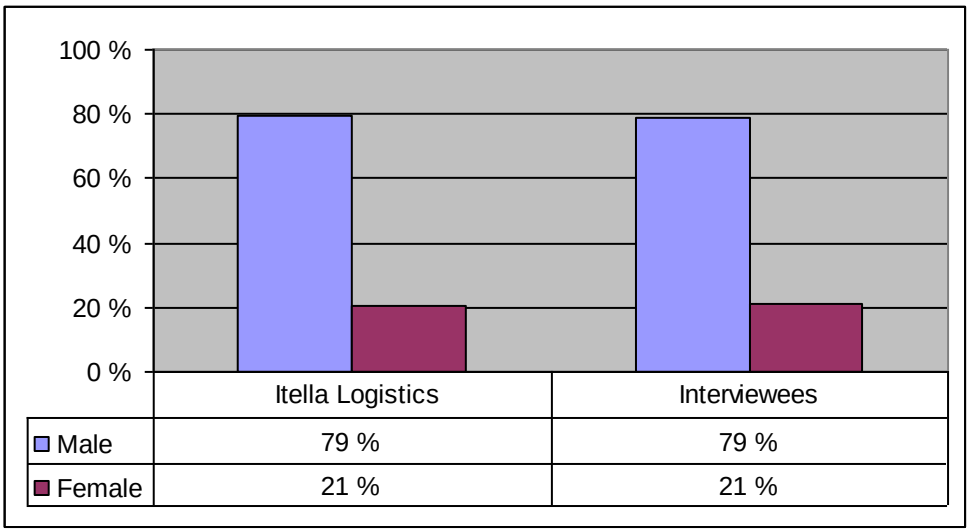


Figure 13 Gender distribution of Itella Logistics employees and the interviewees

Logistics is traditionally a very engineering and thus, male-dominant field. Therefore, it came as no surprise that the amount of males in the work force was far greater than that of females, 79 % males and 21 % females. The gender distribution of the interviewees was exactly the same than that of the case company as a whole. What this means in terms of innovation championing is again, homogeneity of ideas, that is, the lines of thought of same-aged, similarly-educated males may not bring enough different perspectives. By employing more females to the organisation would ensure that more females would also become innovation champions. However, men and women may differ in terms of what motivates them in the work place and what would ultimately lead them to engage in innovation championing behaviour. These possible differences will be discussed more with regard to findings concerning motivation and rewarding.

When it comes to education, based on theory it can be expected that innovation champions are somewhat higher educated that their non-champion colleagues. This assumption was supported in our respondents. Seven persons had a *higher education* (university or university of applied sciences) while four persons secondary education (high school or vocational school) and only three of them had first level education (comprehensive school). See figure 16 for the education level of the employees of the case company and the interviewees.

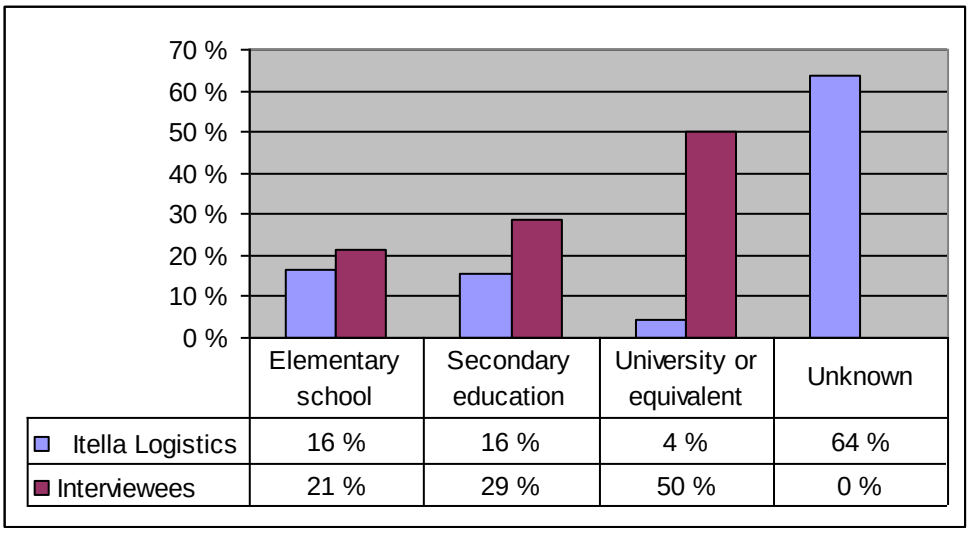


Figure 14 Education of Itella Logistics employees and the interviewees

Due to system upgrading, the level of education was unknown for 64 % of the employees therefore, the percentages for the education of the whole case company are not considered valid.. In the interviewees, 50 % of them had a degree in university or equivalent while 29 % had a secondary education and 21 % had only first level education. However, the ones that have lower education probably have longer careers and they have gained more understanding in the field that way. It must also be remembered, that the original questionnaire for finding innovation champions was emailed only to the people in management, specialist and administration positions while the so-called "blue-collar" workers were excluded.

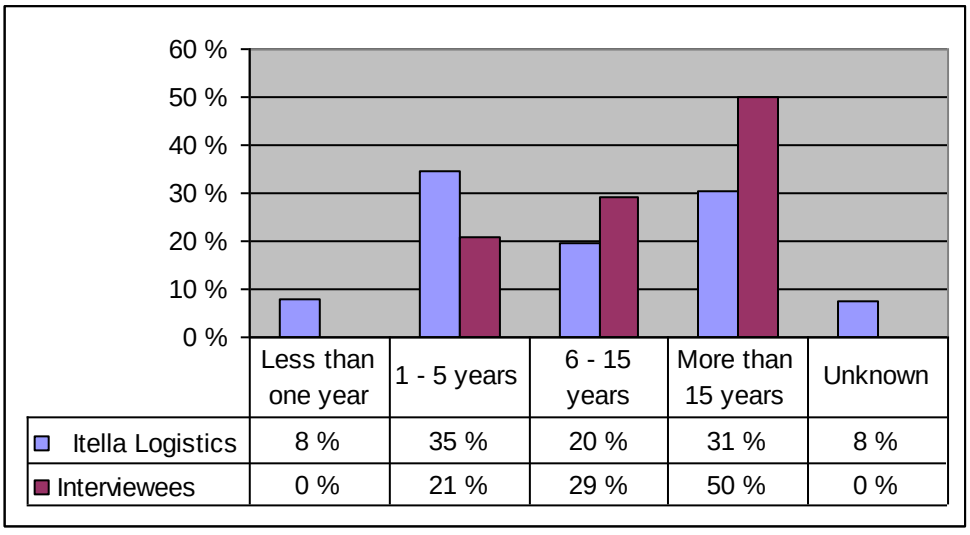
There well might have been innovation champions amongst those people as well even though the theory suggests that innovation champions are generally more highly educated people. In terms of innovation championing, higher education may be useful. Through lengthy academic studies innovation champions have probably gained a set of analytical tools for assessing the potential of new ideas and the needed communication and networking skills needed to help those ideas become innovations. It may be, however, that new ideas born in and reported from the "grass-root level" may not reach these innovation champions who are at a different place in the organisation and also, may not take ideas coming from "down below" seriously. Communicating and collecting these ideas originated at the operational level should be done effectively and systematically as was already discussed more with regard to the case company's innovation system in general and how to improve it.

Theory suggests that innovation champions have a strong *scientific* and somewhat *technical* educational *background*. It was supported by the findings as the interviewees did have a strong scientific background in terms of academic education but surprisingly only two of the persons interviewed had a degree in engineering and one had a degree in computer sciences. In addition there was one mathematician and one chemist. Also,

four of the persons had a business background. However, business and technology degrees were the most common ones among this group and also those who did not have this kind of general degrees had taken or were currently taking some courses in either business or technology. Thus this supports the assumption that innovation champions have a strong technical and scientific background.

There was no data available as to from which fields the case company's employees had their secondary and higher level degrees from but it can be expected, that in the logistics field there are a lot of people with a technology degree. This may lead to engineering-dominated thinking that may not serve well the new paradigm shift of traditional transportation industry to a services-oriented company. This will be discussed more with regard to Itella Logistics company culture in chapter 5.5.5.

It was estimated that innovation champions would be persons with a *longer career* within an organization rather than younger recruits. This assumption was supported by the findings. The respondents had worked most of their career in Itella (or Posti), the average length being 16 years ranging from 1 to 32 years with the median length of 24 years. These numbers were calculated 2008 – the year of coming to Itella/ Posti. There were some who had worked in affiliates for some years in between or being on study leave but these were still calculated, for simplicity's sake, as service years at Itella/ Posti. Also, some reported their length of service as x years and y months or x and half years. Those numbers were rounded downwards to complete years. See figure 17 for the length of career in Posti/ Itella of the employees of the case company and the interviewees.



	Less than one year	1 - 5 years	6 - 15 years	More than 15 years	Unknown
Itella Logistics	8 %	35 %	20 %	31 %	8 %
Interviewees	0 %	21 %	29 %	50 %	0 %

Figure 15 Length of career in Posti/ Itella of Itella Logistics employees and the interviewees

Within the employees of Itella Logistics there are careers of various lengths as seen from the figure. Altogether 44 % of the employees have worked at Posti/ Itella for less

than five years. For the interviewees, every one of them had worked at Posti/ Itella for at least one year and one fifth, that is, 21 % had worked there for less than five years. In all of Itella Logistics the amount of rather long careers (6-15 years) was 20 % and the share of very long careers (more than 15 years) was 31 %. The respective percentages for the interviewees were 29 % and 50 %.

The high amount of long careers at Itella tells us something about its company culture. It is clearly a place where people can and want to stay working for a long time, in many cases all their careers. This is the heritage of a secure, previously state-owned company as will be discussed more in the section about Itella company culture in chapter 5.5.5. Itella being one of the biggest and also oldest companies in Finland, it is possible to have a long career within its walls by changing from one division and or position to another. As the interviewees reported themselves:

> *It has been such a long time but it has not felt like it. This is a good place so that if you want to develop yourself further, you have the opportunity to do so and since this is a big organization, you can easily move from one position to another. (Supervisor/ Relationship Promoter)*

> *You are born here and then you bring your whole family to work here and finally you die here - but I am an exception. (Supervisor/ Technological Gatekeeper)*

The amount of very long careers among innovation champions shows that it was as theory suggested; a person needs to have the prestige, know-how and networks of somebody who has been longer time in the house to emerge as an innovation champion. Also, working for the same company for a long time one knows how things work in that particular organisation. However, the fact that this sample interviewed were mostly managers also had an effect on the length of career as it takes time to climb up the corporate ladder to a managerial position. Once more this raises the question, whether fresh new ideas can be evolved into innovations when the same people have worked for the company for so long. The side effect is the setting to particular ways and preferring the status quo of things and possibly rejecting new ways with the common phrase “this is how it has always been done”.

It was suggested by the theory that innovation champions would have extensive experience in the field they are working in as this knowledge in form of skills and networks would help them become innovation champions. The long time the respondents had worked at Itella/ Posti confirms this notion. Some of the respondents who had not worked their entire career at Itella/ Posti had however acquired experience in the field of Logistics but they were a minority, only three of the respondents.

However, as the interviewees had such a long time worked for Itella/ Posti it can be said that they in general did have a substantial experience in the field, as expected based on theory. This notion shows that if management wishes to encourage individuals to become innovation champions they should focus on the employees with a longer career in the field as they are more likely to take on these kind of informal responsibilities by themselves.

It was suggested based on theory that innovation champions would presumably have *managerial position* rather than be experts or standard workers. This hold to be true as out of the 14 interviewees 9 were in a supervisory position and only 5 were not. Somewhat surprisingly, for two of them this was a choice of their own as they did not want to be managers at all but preferred to be experts in what they did and responsible only for their own work. The respondents with supervisory responsibilities had either middle or executive management function in the organisation. These persons are referred to in the quotes as "supervisors". The others had expert position and are therefore referred to as "experts". The amount of subordinates ranged from mere 2 to more than a thousand but of course not all of these were not direct subordinates. The number of direct subordinates ranged from 2 to around 70 with the average being around 16, and the median being 7.

There is no data available as to how many of the employees of the whole case company has got supervisory functions or not but naturally, the numbers would be a lot lower as this sample consisted mostly of managers. It is the power that managers hold that makes it easy for them to become innovation champions. Often collecting new ideas and forwarding them is a part of their responsibilities, as will be discussed more in detail later when the interviewees tell how they see innovations and how for many they are a part of their job description if only implicitly.

5.3 Personality

It was assumed based on theory that innovation champions would have *interest in outside world*. To answer this question the interviewees were asked to describe their hobbies and what they liked to do in their free time. The answers concentrated around four key themes: children (7 persons), reading (5 persons), physical exercise and sports (12 persons), and working on their home/ summer cottage (6 persons). The biggest of these by far was the category for physical exercise and sports. Only two persons did not mention any physical activities as hobbies. There was no clear distinction whether innovation champions preferred individual or group sports that could tell us something about their social nature but they were equally engaged in both.

May of the respondents mentioned that their past time includes normal family activities such as taking children to their hobbies or going to the summer cottage with their family. Almost as many said they liked reading. These hobbies all except group sports seem rather introverted. It may be that since their current jobs that evolve around many interpersonal networks innovation champions wish to have their own time and space on their free time and therefore, spend it by themselves or their family. Therefore, this question did not reinforce the premise that innovation champions would have interest in outside world and therefore this variable was excluded from the final model.

It was expected by the theory that innovation champions would be *social* in nature and prefer the company of others to solitude. To find out if this was true, the innovation champions were asked if they preferred to work alone or in a team, assuming that they would prefer team work to working alone. Only a small portion said they absolutely preferred team work (three persons) and as many said they liked to work alone, all of the rest said they were fine either way and that it depends on the circumstances.

> *Both, if you ask for my personal preference, but in this job you must do both and I have never thought it would be a problem to do it either way. The content and the result are what counts, not who does it. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

> *I like both and I have tried to learn more and more to delegate things. - - And therefore… I like working with people and understanding how to do things so it becomes easy to say: "You do this, and I do this, and then we'll look at it together." However, I think my strength is doing things on my own. (Supervisor/ Process Promoter)*

> *I do not think having meetings of everything is part of it because team work often results in people talking over each other. Rather, preparing ones views well in advance and then working as a team and thinking why others disagree and then pushing your own views through. (Expert/ Technological Gatekeeper)*

Therefore, this question did not help to determine to what degree innovation champions are social and how. However, the innovation champions were also asked to describe themselves with any words of their own choosing. There they came up with many characteristics that show social nature such as: talkative (3 persons), easily approachable (3 persons), social (2 persons), open, easy to communicate with and takes others into consideration. Therefore, it can be said that innovation champions are social

in nature. Also they were good at building networks and for that one needs to be socially skilled.

It was shown in theory that innovation champions would be *confident with unfamiliarity*. There was no question related to this but when innovation champions were asked what motivates them in their work they often stated that they liked new things and change as the following quotes demonstrate.

> *What motivates me personally is that you get to learn new thing constantly. There is no such boredom that you are always stuck with the same things but new challenges provide always something new where you have to develop yourself so that you can move forward and learn new things. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

> *Change, making changes and making the processes better. (Expert/ Technological Gatekeeper)*

The empirical evidence suggests that innovation champions embrace change and therefore it can be said that they are confident with unfamiliarity. This characteristic therefore stays in the final model as well.

It was also expected based on theory that innovation champions would have *down-to-earth nature* and be *in touch with reality*. There was no questions asked that would have provided support for these premises, nor did these themes come up spontaneously. Thus, in lack of empirical support these were excluded from the model.

When comparing innovation champion literature to that of entrepreneurs it was assumed that they would share the same kind of *risk-taking* attitude. There was one question in the interview that could help answer this. It was the last question posed at the stage when the interviewees were most relaxed: "What would you do if you had all the time and money in the world?" This question was asked to get an insight into what kind of people the innovation champions were essentially, what would be their biggest dreams. The answers concentrated around three key themes: travelling, relocation and starting one's own business. Travelling and moving somewhere warn are probably such common themes that they do not necessarily tell us anything about innovation champions as opposed to people in general.

More interesting is that altogether three persons said they would consider starting their own business if they had the time and money to do so. Also, two persons stated they would change profession altogether to something totally different to logistics and out of the office where they could do something creative with their hands such as design or photography. These answers would indicate that innovation champions are not afraid of the unknown and willing to take risks. However, as these are only dreams and not yet

realised, and also because they were a minority, risk-taking was excluded from the final model in lack of supporting evidence.

It was assumed also that innovation champions would have a high need for achievement. Empirical evidence supporting this notion was found in relation to what motivates innovation champions and the analysis can be found there under the "achievement" heading. However, this need for achievement was included in the final model also.

It was expected by the theory that innovation champions would be *persistent* and the self-assessment of the interviewees confirmed this. They described themselves with words such as: *stubborn, "pushy", determined, "does not give in easily", and demanding.*

> *Well perhaps I am, or at least I try to be determined and fair to the organization; to get things moving forward. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

This trait of characteristic is especially important for innovation championing because without it the new ideas that may become innovations do not move forward from theory to practice. Innovation champions must be even a little bit stubborn and demanding at times to get their views across to the bureaucratic company system where the potential for innovations is assessed.

In addition to the characteristics found in the theory and justified by the findings, also new ones emerged. The innovation champions used repeatedly words such as: *impatient* (3 persons), *quick, energetic, lively, and fast-paced* (3 persons). Here is how innovation champions themselves described these characteristics.

> *I may have a little impatient persona for sometimes things do not progress as fast as I would wish them to. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

> *I find it challenging that as I am quite quick at doing things I can not put up with slowness amongst my own team. Well, I have learned to put up with it but often I see its faster for me to do it myself than explain it to somebody else - -. (Supervisor/ Process Promoter)*

That innovation champions are fast-paced is not surprising though, as innovation champions *actively* promote innovation they must be people who have high levels of energy and quite low tolerance for things moving too slow for their pace. Also, the individuals who are engaged in the process of development of radical innovations often feel very enthusiastic and stimulated (Sandberg 2007, 265). When innovation

champions see things that are not working they grow impatient and want to make things right as fast as possible. Trying to capture the essence of all these related characteristics, the word *fast-paced* was chosen and added to the final model.

5.4 Extrinsic motivation

Factors effecting extrinsic motivation of innovation champions were considered to be: supervision/ management, physical working conditions, job security, monetary incentives, interpersonal relations and company culture. To find out answers to these questions the innovation champions were asked whether they were familiar with Itella's situation-base reward system and what they thought of it. Also they were asked is they thought that these kind of small amounts of money or small items such as movie tickets were a good way to motivate people. Last but not least the innovation champions were asked what motivates themselves in their work.

To find out the importance of the first factor of external motivation, *supervision/ management*, the interviewees were asked how they saw themselves as supervisors, since most of them had supervisory functions. The importance innovation champions placed on good supervision in terms of innovations and general work satisfaction was great, both in terms of their own supervisors and themselves as being supervisors of others. This variable came up spontaneously in many other questions as well and all the data related to it is presented here.

One thing the innovation champions remarked about supervision is that the supervisor must be "easily approachable" as they had classified themselves to be as well. All in all, they preferred close relationship between supervisors and subordinates with very low hierarchy as the following quotes demonstrate.

> *Like I said before, I see myself more as a colleague to these people even though they are my subordinates. I try to be as easily approachable as possible that there would be no pain and fear to come and approach the supervisor. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

> *I do not try hard to be a boss; I do not like presenting myself as though I would be above everybody else. Sure, I am the leader here but I do not present myself so that I would be bossing people around. In fact, I consider all of these people who work here more as colleagues. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

One innovation champion remarked well that supervision encompasses the idea of developing things, as this quote demonstrates.

> *Well, this work is in fact development. Leadership always leads to the development of something. In reality, it is not just maintenance. – In my role you have to be able to feed the organization so that you get new ideas and new things to do. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

To know that supervision is important for innovation champions is good for the company to know. They have to make sure that supervisors are trained to be fair, to give enough autonomy to their subordinates (this will be discussed more with autonomy) and to give enough support for the ideas of their subordinates.

As a part of conditions surrounding the actual job and providing extrinsic motivation, supervision, physical working conditions, job security, monetary incentives, interpersonal relations and company culture were included in the model. There was no question that would tell what innovation champions thought of their *physical working conditions*; neither did it come up spontaneously in the discussions. This may not mean, however, that they do not have impact on job satisfaction of innovation champions but that in the case of Itella Logistics they are in order so that they do not hinder innovation championing behaviour. In lack of data as to their importance they must be excluded from the final model.

Also, there was no question asked about how innovation champions perceived job *security* and this theme did not come up in discussions. However, as the innovation champions had very long careers in the case company it must mean that job security is good, that there is no fear of loosing one's job and it is easy to move jobs within the company. Traditionally Posti/ Itella has been a secure company to work for but the year of the global slow-down 2009 had its effect also at Itella that had to let go 231 persons and in addition 29 employees were moved to retirement (Itella Tiedotteet). This happened one year after conducting the interviews and back then, the interviewees were probably feeling secure in their jobs. Not to question the importance of this factor of hygiene it has to be excluded from the final model in lack of supporting data.

The assumption that *monetary incentives* would be important motivators was somewhat supported. Three of the innovation champions said that money is the best motivator but they meant this as not for themselves but for their subordinates. In addition, two persons thought that the current situation-related rewards were too small so that if their amount was increased they would motivate people to innovate more. Also, four people readily admitted that money is important and there has to be enough of it like the following quotes demonstrates:

> *I am not going to hush-hush: money is important. - - You have to earn enough so that you feel compensated for your work, if you feel underpaid you will not be motivated in the long run. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

> *Let me put it this way, it has to be enough, and reasonable for what you do. (Expert/ Process Promoter)*

> *Well, money is a question of hygiene, which it has to be right. (Supervisor/ Process Promoter)*

It can thus be concluded from the empirical evidence that innovation champions see monetary compensation as it was described in the theory: a factor of hygiene. It has to be enough so that the motivation of innovation champions does not decline and also, that their subordinates should be well rewarded for the ideas they bring forward. Monetary compensation thus is included in the final model.

As innovation champions were considered according to the theory to be social they would probably have good *interpersonal relations* and use them to their advantage in innovation championing. To investigate this assumption, the interviewees were asked three questions in relation to this: 1) do they have good networks inside and outside the company, 2) which do they see as being more important, and 3) do they use these networks for finding support for new ideas.

The innovation champions did say they had very good networks both inside and outside the organization. Their longer career at Itella had helped them build good inner networks of colleagues across the organization and also external networks of clients, competitors and other stakeholders trough different collaboration and training. This was often due to prior experience in the field also and not just their career at Itella.

> *Let me put it this way: I have been such a long time here that I have a rather good network which means that when you know what type of problems you are dealing with, you know who to contact and get thinking about it. (Supervisor/ Expert Promoter)*

> *I do not remember the last time I would have needed to search for the right person to contact. (Expert/ Expert Promoter)*

Innovation champions did not clearly put one network above the other but said one needs both but perhaps the inner one is more important in order to get things in motion.

> *I do use networks for everything and if I get for example an idea: what should I do with this" I do not rely solely on my crew but I have people outside the organization that I can discuss these at some level. -- Of course for this job the inner one [is more important] but for the whole, they are just as important. I have gotten a lot of support and help from people outside the organization without having to tell what it is about but sharing thoughts anyway. (Supervisor/ Process Promoter)*

> *You can say that within Itella I have got it, and if I do not, they will know who to get…So in that sense, I do not have a lot on the outside but I have got inner contacts and these inner contacts know where to start searching for the external ones. (Expert/ Process Promoter)*

Thus, it can be said that innovation champions place a lot of weight on interpersonal relations in their jobs and they actively use these networks both inside and outside the organization for innovation championing. Therefore, it should be encouraged by management that innovation champions have time to do this kind of networking.

Company culture was named as one of the factors that have an effect on external motivation. There was no direct question as to what the innovation champions thought of the company culture of Itella but it did come up spontaneously in many other answers. Some of the things they said are grouped here. One thing the innovation champions appreciated was the fact that Itella is such a well-know, respected company, as the following quotes show.

> *--The same goes with customers: we are involved with every major customer project and thus, we know what happens in different industries and that is how we already know a little what the competition is doing as we hear things. Sometimes we even get a statement that we are unbeatable, that no one else can do what we do. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

> *Before when you said that you were from Posti and now from Itella, there is no such client that you could not get to meet. – You can very easily get to the top management of big Finnish or international companies if you have the need to. (Supervisor/ Relationship Promoter)*

The innovation champions also appreciate the fact that since Itella is a big company, it is easy to switch position as often as they like and always find something interesting.

> *Like I said, this is a big house. In principle you can change position as often as you like - - (Supervisor/ Relationship Promoter)*

It is concluded that innovation champions find company culture as a factor for their external motivation and therefore it is included in the final model.

5.5 Intrinsic motivation

Based on theory, innovation champions were assumed to be *creative* because they operate at the highest level of the need hierarchy, self-actualisation (this will be discussed more under self-actualisation). To determine if this was the case, the innovation champions were asked what kind of problem-solving style they prefer: analytical or creative, expecting those to use creative style more. The innovation champions did not clearly see themselves either-or types on this spectrum. Only three of them of them saw themselves as been creative and four saw themselves as the opposite. The rest of the innovation champions said they used both way depending on the situation, often beginning with the analytical style as far as they could go with it and then using the creative approach.

> *First analytical, then creative if the analytical does not cut it. At least that is my opinion, that I try to go about it systematically but if it seems I am not going anywhere then I start throwing things around, to experiment it like "what if we do it this way, what if we do it that way". (Expert/ Expert Promoter)*

> *Yes, before you can be creative you must be analytical because otherwise you do not know what it is that you start creating. Thus, being analytical may be finding out the starting point and then on top of it you must, or you can be, creative so that you can move forward with the situation. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

As some of the interviewees remarked creativity is often judged by others and therefore hard to say for themselves. Very few of the innovation champions said they see themselves as being creative but some of them did, like the following quotes show.

> *Creative [problem-solving style]. I do not necessarily trust ready solutions that much. Somebody has developed them and I think you can always improve them. (Expert/ technological Gatekeeper)*

> *I like starting things and like somebody once said: everybody loves the inspiration stage but when then perspiration stage begins, everybody disappears. I do love being in the inspiration stage but it is clearly a weakness of mine that then going through with it is something I need to work on. (Expert/ Expert Promoter)*

It was assumed that as innovation champions are creative they would not like routines and this was confirmed by the findings. When asked what they thought of routines, all the innovations champions except one said they did not like them very much and even this person admitted he would not want them to be "7,5 hours per day". Some felt very strongly against them while others said routines are inescapable and inevitable in every job and that they have to be done but they tried to have as little of them as possible. Some said they preferred each day to be different.

> *Sure each job has got its routines that you must do that are a part of it but what is perhaps one of the most interesting things about this job and logistics in general is that things change all the time and situations develop quickly and that is how the days and the assignments are always different. (Supervisor/ Relationship Promoter)*

> *I like that every day is different which means that I get very excited about things and want to start developing them further and want to be a part of many things but often I find out that when everything I have promised to be involved in is in motion, I realise that the hours of the day are not enough. (Expert/ Expert Promoter)*

Knowing that innovation champions like each day to be different and they do not like routines is important for the management to know so that they can plan the job description of innovation champions accordingly. When innovation champions are not burdened down with routines they have more time and energy to engage in innovation championing behaviour.

Based on theory, it was assumed that innovation champions like *challenge*. The answer to this come up mostly when asked what innovation champions found motivating in their jobs. Also in the question about what would they do if they had all the time and money in the world not all of the innovation champions would leave their current because they like the challenges it gives them. The following quotes show examples of this.

> *Even if I had money so much I would not know what to do with it - - I would not still quit this job. I do not think it would be the first thing on my mind that now I got to stop working. I like tremendously my current job: there are so many challenges and still so much to work to do to get all the ideas you have to the finish line. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

> *I have thought about it and I am not sure yet if I would be involved in business life because the unlimited freedom without the challenges of business life might however be boring. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

Many of the innovation champions said they liked challenges in their work so it can be said that there is empirical evidence to include this variable in the final model.

The concept of *autonomy* and *self-determination* was considered to be a major factor for intrinsic motivation of innovation champions. There was no direct question related to this but the interviewees talked a lot about it spontaneously. Especially it came up in relation to supervision that supervisors need to trust their subordinates enough to give them freedom to perform their work as they choose but naturally within certain guidelines. This view was expressed both by how innovation champions themselves wished to be supervised and how they tried to supervise their own subordinates, if they had them. Here is what the innovation champions said about autonomy in relation to supervision.

> *I like being supervised so that I have my own space where I can do my work. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

> *I give certain freedom and certain control and of course I give as much support as needed. I have told everyone that as soon as there is some problem it is my job to clear it. (Supervisor/ Expert Promoter)*

Many of the innovation champions said that they do not interfere in their subordinates work unless there is a problem that needs to be handled like the following quotes demonstrate.

> *I do have quite an authoritarian approach to supervision so that I keep things under control but when I know that things are moving forward I do not interfere unless somebody points out something alarming there. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

> *You give them guidelines and limits and tell them where we are going and what we do but then as people start doing things you correct them if needed but people must work independently and bring their own thoughts and ideas forward. (Supervisor/ Relationship Promoter)*

When you give your employees autonomy, you also give them sense of purpose and they become more loyal to the company they work for. Here is a quote that expresses this view.

> *I try to make it so that each member would be responsible for their area and that it would go down the whole organisation so that everyone would know their responsibility so that they would not just work here and get paid once a month but that they would really know why they work here. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

Also, innovation champions said that by giving employees autonomy you encourage them to notice problems themselves and to solve them. It can also be done by pushing the employees gently to the right direction. The following quotes show this well.

> *Let me say that the assignments do not come from me but people themselves see what needs to be done and then they can look for the solutions themselves. Then it is my job to support them. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

> *I use constant, light pressure so that "something needs to be done, how you will fix it" and so on. Not by ordering and bossing around but when you through ideas and demands people start to spontaneously take action as opposed to telling them what to do. (Supervisor/ Technological Gatekeeper)*

Clearly these answers show that autonomy and self-determination are things innovation champions encourage both for themselves and for their subordinates. Knowing this is at the core of intrinsic motivation, organisation must see to it that innovation champions are given as much autonomy as possible so that they can be creative and spontaneously start developing things further that may become important innovations one day.

Innovation champions were expected based on theory to be motivated by *recognition* and the empirical evidence showed this to be the case, therefore it is included in the model. This was especially the case in the supervisor-subordinate relationship that

instead of money employees would rather that their supervisors recognize their good work.

Innovation champions were also assumed to be motivated by achievement. The empirical evidence showed this as they said they do not develop things for any other reason than to make them better. To see an improved process is their reward, therefore achievement is included in the final model.

Mental health was considered to result when a person was able to be creative and fulfil their need for self-actualisation. There was no actual question about the mental health of the interviewees but they named family and hobbies as balancing factors in their lives as the following quote demonstrates.

> *I have got two children, and they both are active in various hobbies so my free time, which I find therapeutic, is spent with them. (Supervisor/ Power Promoter)*

As this aspect of mental health was really not investigated nor did it come up voluntarily by the interviewees, it is not included in the final model.

Innovation champions were assumed to be motivated by self-actualisation, that is, they operate at the highest level of the need hierarchy where they can engage in activities that lead to personal growth. The empirical evidence supported this as the innovation champions stated that they do not work for money or any other thing that could be considered fulfilling their lower level needs but they wish to actualize their full potential at work. Therefore, self-actualisation is included in the final model. The concept of personal growth that was in the model based on theory is so close to self-actualisation that it was excluded from the model altogether.

5.6 Final model for identification and motivation of innovation champions

Here is the final model for identification and motivation of innovation champions. It was first constructed from theory and then modified after empirical evidence. The changes were not great but they made the model clearer and easier to digest. See figure 18 for the final model for identification and motivation of innovation champions.

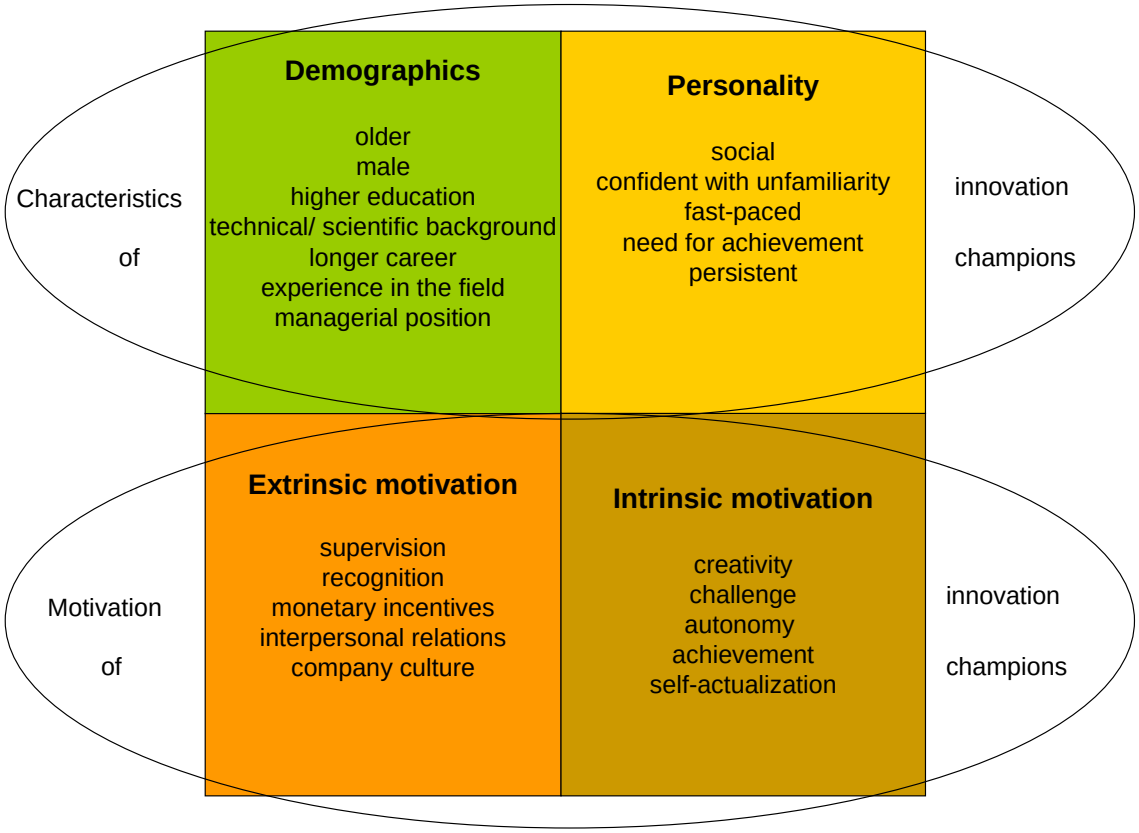


Figure 16 Final model for identification and motivation of innovation champions

The demographics block is the only one that stayed exactly the same. The empirical evidence did not contradict with the assumption based on theory, that innovation champions were older employees, and mostly males. They also had higher education often in technological field or otherwise some sort of scientific background. In terms of their career they had longer careers and because of that, or in addition to it, also a lot of experience in the field. The innovation champions were also mostly in a supervisory position.

The personality characteristics of innovation champions were the hardest to measure but some of them were supported by the empirical evidence. The ones supported by the findings were social, confident with unfamiliarity, need for achievement and persistent. There was no empirical evidence supporting that innovation champions would be in touch with reality or have a down-to-earth nature and thus, those characteristics were excluded from the model. Surprisingly there was also no evidence supporting the premise that innovation champions would be prone for risk-taking and therefore also that variable was removed from the model. However, a new personality characteristic named fast-paced was found and added to the model.

When it comes to motivation blocks, there were more changes. First in the extrinsic motivation box physical working conditions and job security were removed because of lack of empirical evidence supporting them. Monetary incentives, interpersonal relations and company culture were supported by the findings to have an effect on the

extrinsic motivation of innovation champions and therefore they stayed in the model. It was as expected based on theory that they were more questions of hygiene than actual motivators. Also, supervision/ management factor (changed for clarity to "supervision") was heavily supported, that is, it was considered a major factor in terms of motivation. Especially it was considered the responsibility of supervisors to give recognition to their subordinates for good work and since this can be seen as "external" to the individual it was removed from the intrinsic motivation box to the extrinsic motivation box under supervision.

Then looking at the intrinsic motivation of innovation champions, the empirical evidence supported the fact that their main motivational factors are creativity, challenge, autonomy, achievement and self-actualisation. The term self-determination was considered so close to autonomy that it was removed from the box, also personal growth can be seen as a natural by product of self-actualisation and therefore that too, was removed. Mental health as a factor for intrinsic motivation was not supported by the findings i.e. it can not be said if innovation champions were in better mental health than others so this variable was also removed from the model.

The results of the study, that is, the final model for identification and motivation of innovation champions was presented to the case company on 18th March 2010. The case company presentative had nothing to add to or remove from the model. Thus, it was considered to be valid as it is.

6 CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Managerial implications

Managerial implications of this study are its most important end result, as good HRM practices promote innovation by enabling people and their networks to create, transfer and institutionalize knowledge (Shipton, Fay, West, Patterson & Birdi, 2005, 118). This knowledge transfers itself to innovation and therefore, the study of what motivates or enables individual innovative behaviour is critical (Scott & Bruce 1994, 580). Here, innovation champions were found to be mostly intrinsically motivated as they fulfill their self-actualisation need and this is best encouraged by giving innovation champions as much autonomy as possible and this is the role of the supervisors to do.

One of the objectives of a supervisor is to spur creativity and innovation from the people working for them, however, any attempt to coax or pressure people for results will not work as creativity in others is best encouraged with subtlety (Weiss 2006, 21). This is best achieved by giving employees enough freedom to perform their work since innovation involves trial and error, success and failures and that is why job autonomy provides employees with an avenue to try out new ideas even in the face of failure (Ramamoorthy et al. 2005, 144).

Another thing to remember is that external contacts have been shown to be positively related to innovative behaviour of individual co-workers (De Jong & Kemp 2003, 189), and this was verified by this research as well. The innovation champions were found to have a social nature and they used their both internal and external contacts for promoting innovations and therefore, these should be encouraged.

All in all, organisations need to recognise the diversity of career orientations so that appropriate motivational tools for different individuals or groups can be used (Igbaria et al.1999, 43). Especially it takes sensitivity from the top management and supervisors to recognize the motivational factors of different types of innovators and other talented people (Antola & Pohjola 2006, 149) such as individuals with the potential of becoming innovation champions. In order to learn how innovative employees can and should be supported, understanding the relationship between employee well-being and innovativeness is important (Huhtala & Parzefall 2007, 299).

Even if the organization is filled with creative individuals, it does not yet make it innovative (Antola & Pohjola 2006, 148). However, there is always a difference between creative potential and practiced creativity in organizations that could represent important untapped resources that could boost innovation, productivity, organizational effectiveness and job satisfaction if utilized (Diliello & Houghton 2008, 43-44).

6.2 Theoretical implications

From a theoretical point of view, the study of innovations and innovation champions is important in the changing world. Though the direction of this study was more towards creating and improving managerial procedures and practices, it has got theoretical implications as well. There have not been any studies that would link the characteristics of innovation champions in terms of demographic variables and personality traits to a complete package that could help identify the innovation champions of a given company and this study provided a tool for it. The identification of innovation champions within a company seems to be possible to do rather easily with the questionnaire based on Rost and others (2007).

Similarly there has not been virtually any study as to the extrinsic and intrinsic motivational factors of innovation champions. Here, they were gathered from various sources of theory and then empirically tested and validated and thus providing an insight into how innovation champions are motivated to engage in innovation championing behaviour.

6.3 Limitations of the research and suggestions for further study

There undoubtedly are some limitations to this research and therefore suggestions for further study are needed. First of all, this research was only concerned with identification and motivation of innovation champions that the case company already had within its ranks. Thus the study at hand does not provide any clear answers as to how can companies get innovation champions to work for them in the first place. As this study was only concerned with motivation and compensation of innovation champions it did not provide answers as to how can companies in recruitment situations find individuals with the potential to become innovation champions.

All these demographics of innovation champions; age, gender, education, technological/ scientific background, length of career, experience in the field and managerial position are such that they are easily identifiable. Thus, organisations can take them into consideration when hiring persons to work in innovation-related projects. These demographics can be found in HR records of employees when the person already is working in an organisation, bearing in mind the privacy of employees as to which personal data can be given and to whom.

The personality features of innovation champions, however, are harder to detect. Organisations usually have not got official records saying which of their employees have interest in outside world, are social and confident with unfamiliarity and possess a down-to-earth-nature and so on. This is not to say that there are no *unofficial* records of

these things in other employees' minds. That is why peer review is a powerful tool for finding out who are the innovation champions of an organisation are. This method was used by for example Howell and Higgins (1990) in their study as it was used in the thesis as well.

As a result of this, for example the questionnaire used to identify innovative individuals by peer review or the innovation champion interview guideline cannot be used for recruitment purposes as such. They may provide a starting point as to what kind of questions the candidates can be asked to find out if they possess the potential for becoming innovation champions but there should be a study aimed at building recruitment tools and practices especially for this purpose alone.

Neither did this research give any answers as to whether a company's existing individuals could be trained to become innovation champions, if they can at all because it is considered a spontaneous development. There were suggestions as to what kind of motivational tools can be used to create the best possible environment for innovation champions to emerge but there should be a research to find out, if these innovation championing roles could be developed artificially trough some kind of formal training.

In relation to motivational tools organizational culture was briefly discussed. There was indication, however, that this may be a very strong factor in encouraging innovation championing behaviour, and therefore, an extensive study on the impact of organizational culture and organizational structure to innovation championing is needed.

One major limitation of this research is that it was carried out within only one company and within one industry, logistics. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalized into other industries or even to other companies within the logistics industry. Therefore, more research of innovation champions in different industries is needed and if interest lies in innovation championing in logistics, then more extensive study comprising multiple companies in the industry is needed.

In addition of the case company being only on within one industry, it naturally was also placed within one national culture and therefore, tells us more about innovation champions in Finland than anywhere else. All the innovation champions interviewed were Finnish and spoke Finnish as their national language, and therefore, it would be interesting and important to study innovation champions of other cultural backgrounds as well.

Final remark on the limitation of this study is that the innovation champions of the case company were all interviewed at a certain short point in time as all the interviews were carried out within only two months in 2008. Therefore, a longitudinal study in the field of innovation championing is needed.

7 SUMMARY

In introduction chapter the importance and definition of innovations was discussed. In the thesis, innovation was chosen to mean either the creation or improvement of an existing internal process or new product/ service development. Also the research purpose and subojectives of the thesis were explained and the research was to be carried out as a case study of Itella Logistics. The aim of the thesis was to analyse how innovation champions can be identified and motivated within an organisation with the help of the following subobjectives:

1) To identify innovation champions within an organisation
2) To analyse what motivates innovation champions for promoting innovations.

In chapter two first the definition of innovation champions was discussed and then their characteristics were deducted from existing theory. Innovation champions were defined as persons who voluntarily promote the adoption of innovations in organisations. They were expected to be older male employees, with higher education and technical/ scientific background and to have had longer career in the organisation as well as experience in the field and to be in a managerial role. In terms of personality, they were assumed to be social and interested in outside world, persistent risk-takers confident with unfamiliarity and in touch with reality and to have down-to-earth nature and need for achievement.

In chapter three the motivation of innovation champions for engaging in innovation championing behaviour was examined. As factors of hygiene, i.e. that have an effect on the extrinsic motivation of innovation champions were assumed to be: supervision and management, physical working conditions, job security, monetary incentives, interpersonal relations and company culture. In terms of intrinsic motivation, the following concepts emerged: creativity, challenge, autonomy, self-determination, recognition, achievement, personal growth, mental health and self-actualisation. Finally, a model for identification and motivation of innovation champions was constructed based on theory.

In chapter four the methodology of the thesis was discussed. Qualitative research approach and case study approach were chosen for the thesis. Data collection process in terms of selection of respondents and interviewing procedures were detailed. Altogether 14 innovation champions of Itella Logistics were found for interviewing using a peer review questionnaire. In addition, one informant interview concerning compensation systems was held. Data analysis was decided to be done using a content analysis, which is, clustering of related words and concepts from narrated text or equivalent which here was the interview transcripts. Finally, the trustworthiness of the thesis was analysed and the standards of validity and reliabity were met to a reasonable degree.

In chapter five, the empirical findings of research were analysed in light of the theory discussed earlier. The chapter began by introducing the case company, Itella Logistics and especially discussing its compensation and innovation systems. Suggestions for their improvement were made based on the interviewees opinions. Then the theoretical model for identification and motivation of innovation was tested against the empirical findings. All of the demographics were found to hold true and most of the personality characteristics as well. Only variables of down-to-earth nature, in touch with reality and risk-taking were not empirically supported. The variable interest in outside world was included in the variable social. A new variable named fast-paced was included in the model as it arose from the empirical data.

As for motivation, most of the factors of hygiene for extrinsic motivation were supported; only physical working conditions and job security were not. Management was included in the supervision variable and recognition from intrinsic motivation was moved to extrinsic motivation as it was taught to be something that comes from outside of an individual. Also, most of the issues related to intrinsic motivation remained, only the variable of mental health was removed from the final model not because of contradicting evidence but because of difficulties in its measurement. Self-determination was included in the autonomy variable and personal growth into the self-actualisation. Finally, the final model for identification and motivation of innovation champions was introduced to the case company, Itella Logistics, and thus validated without any need for its modification.

In chapter six, managerial and theoretical implications of the thesis were discussed as well as limitations of the research and suggestions for further study. The model for identification and motivation of innovation champions was considered to have good managerial implications in terms of supervision and compensation practises especially, and to be a useful tool for companies. There were fewer theoretical implications than managerial ones but the value of the research lies in its ability to combine formerly separate theories around the key concept to a complete model. There were found to be some limitations to the study. The research was done in one company division at one point in time and from a limited point of view. It was suggested that this research is to be used as a starting point for investigating the phenomenon if innovation championing in different fields and countries and taking a good look at the aspects of recruitment and possible training of innovation champions that were neglected in this study.

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APPENDIX 1 QUESTIONNAIRE FOR IDENTIFICATION OF INNOVATION CHAMPIONS

Please name those persons in your company who:

1)…actively encourage an innovation process by means of *specific knowledge*. In particular, those persons who are proven technical and/ or procedure-specific experts in innovation projects and who assist by the development of new products or procedure.

2)…actively promote an innovation process by means of *hierarchic power*. In particular, those persons who order sanctions against opponents and provide protection for those who are in favour of innovation.

3)…actively arbitrate between the technical and economic world by means of *organizational knowledge*. In particular, those persons who recognize organizational hurdles and contribute to innovation processes through their negotiation capabilities.

4)…actively encourage an innovation process by means of innovation-related *business relationships* inside and between the organisation. In particular, those persons who initiate, design, and foster relationships to important actors and third parties.

5)…actively support cross-organizational *knowledge transfer*. In particular, those persons who assist and help by searching out and evaluating external technical information.

Source: Rost, Katja – Hölzle, Katharina – Gemünden, Hans-Georg (2007) Promotors or champions? Pros and cons of role specialisation for economic process. SBR 59, October 2007, 340-363.

APPENDIX 2 INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR HRD MANAGER

Interviewee: HRD Manager of Itella Group
Time and place: 13.12.2007 Itella Head Quarters, Postintaival 7

- Kannustava ja palkitseva posti –unity
- Compensation principles at Itella
- Compensation strategy
- Compensation unity
- Monetary compensation
- Role of supervisors
- Issues related to development and welfare
- Perks
- Assessment and measures
- Situation-related reward
- Result-related reward
- Innovativeness/ ideativeness
- Effects of organisational changes to compensation
- Itella's strongest points at the moment
- Targets for future improvements

APPENDIX 3 INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR INNOVATION CHAMPIONS

Interviewee:
Time and place:
Innovation champion category: (number of votes)

1) Current job
    - What is your current position? Responsibilities?
    - Have you got any subordinates? The number of direct subordinates?
    - Have long have you worked for Itella/ Posti?

2) Background information
    - What degree have you got and what year did you graduate?
    - When where you born?
    - Your general working history?

3) Working methods
    - Would you rather work independently or in a team, and what size should the team then be?
    - How would you describe your leadership style?
    - How do you normally solve your problems: analytically or creatively?
    - How do you like routine work?
    - What kind of networks have you got both inside and outside the organisation?
    - Do you use these networks to promote innovations?

4) Innovations
    - Can you guess which innovation champion category you were named for and why?
    - In your daily job, do you work with innovations, i.e. new products and services, or new organisational processes? Which?
    - Where do new ideas usually come from: subordinates, customers?
    - Have you got any method of collecting those ideas, such as an idea bank?

5) Motivation
    - Are you familiar with the situation- and result-related pay systems of Itella?
    - Are monetary rewards/ small gifts a good way of motivating people?
    - What motivates you in your job?
    - Have you got any ideas for improving Itella's innovation process?

6) Personality
    - How would you describe yourself?
    - What are your hobbies?
    - What would you do if you had no shortage of time and money?
    - Is there something you would like to add?